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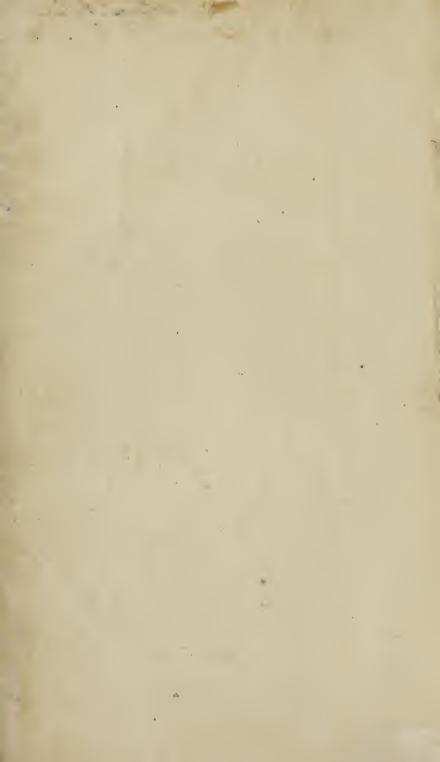
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#### QUINCY'S LEXICON-MEDICUM.

A NEW

# MEDICAL DICTIONARY3

CONTAINING AN

#### EXPLANATION OF THE TERMS

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ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, PRACTICE OF PHYSIC, MATERIA MEDICA, CHYMISTRY, PHARMACY, SURGERY, MIDWIFERY,

AND THE VARIOUS BRANCHES OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY CONNECTED WITH MEDICINE.

SELECTED, ARRANGED, AND COMPILED, FROM THE BEST AUTHORS.

"Nec aranearum sane texus ideo melior, quia ex se fila gignunt, nec noster vilior quia ex alienis libamus ut apes."

JUST. LIPS. Monit. Polit. Lib. i. cap. i.

BY ROBERT HOOPER, M. D.

of the university of oxford, and the noval college of physicians of london; physician to the st. mary-le-bone infirmary, &c. &c.

#### PHILADELPHIA:

PUBLISHED BY E. & R. PARKER, M. CAREY & SON, AND BENJAMIN WARNER.

1817.



### WILLIAM SAUNDERS, M.D. F.R.S.

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS;
OF THE ANTIQUARIAN AND OTHER SOCIETIES;

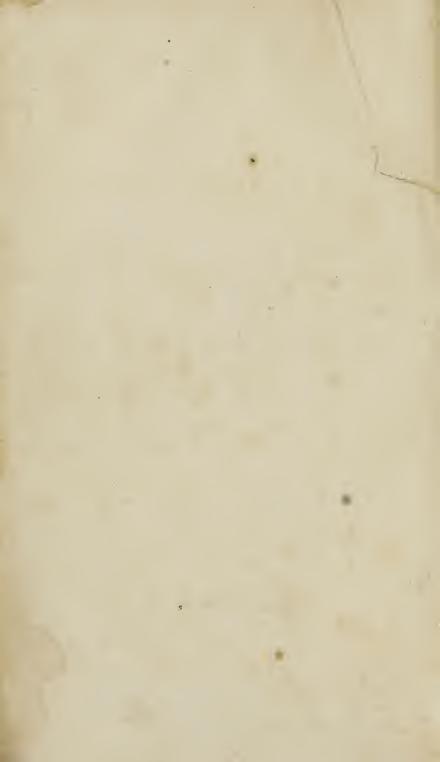
THIS WORK IS DEDICATED,

AS A MARK OF RESPECT AND ESTEEM,

BY HIS SINCERE FRIEND,

THE AUTHOR.

A. BITNER Jr.



## PREFACE.

WHEN Dr. Quincy published the first edition of his Lexicon Medicum, mathematical principles were generally adopted to explain the actions of the animal frame: hence we find in his work a continual recurrence to them. Since his time the functions of the animal economy and the knowledge of anatomy have received successive improvements, and the fashionable follies of mathematical explications have been reduced to their proper standard. To preserve the name which Dr. Quincy so deservedly obtained, and to render his work as useful as possible, such alterations and amendments were made in every following edition, as were suited to the doctrine of the times. It nevertheless has so happened, that his work, even in the thirteenth edition, contains very many of the absurdities of his day: The anatomical explanations are given in the language of the old schools, too often tedious, and abounding with every hypothesis; the physiology of the human body has been almost wholly overlooked; and all useful nosological descriptions omitted. Similar deficiences and useless exuberances occur in every other department of the work.

When, therefore, the present editor was solicited to undertake its revision, he thought he could not do a more acceptable office to the public, than almost wholly new model it. With this view he has been careful to collect such information as may render the work generally useful. Particular attention has been paid to the derivation of the terms, the anatomical description of the various parts, and the explanation of their functions; the diseases are considered according to the most approved nosological arrangement, and their symptoms and distinctions clearly enumerated: the materia medica and the preparations, especially those which enter the last edition of the London Pharmacopæia, have been amply considered; the improvements of modern Chymistry every where introduced, and the terms in Surgery, Midwifery, Medical Botany, and other Branches of Natural Philosophy, as far as connected with Medical Science, have been fully treated. In doing this, the editor has availed himself of the labours of the most eminent writers on the different branches of medicine, and has made such extracts, abridgments, translations, and selections, as the extent of the work would admit. It was his original intention to have given to each writer the merit of the particular description selected from his work; but having occasion to consult, frequently to abridge, and sometimes to alter various passages in works connected with his subject: and finding it difficult. and in many instances impossible to discover the original writer of several articles; and at the same time attended with no particular dvantage, he prefers making a general acknowledgment of his oblirations than to particularize the respective labours of each individual.

The following have principally contributed toelucida to the several subjects. Accum, Aiken, Albinus, Bell, Bergius, Blanchard, Burns, Burserius, Callisen, Castelli, Chaptal, Cooper, Cruickshank, Cullen, Denman, Duncan, Edinburgh Dispensatory, Endinburgh Encyclopædia, Editors of Motherby's Dictionary, Fourcroy, Green, Haller, Hunter, Innes, Latta, Lavoisier, Lewis, Linnæus, Meyer, Murray, Nicholson, Pott, Richeraud, Richter, Sannders, Sanvage, Scarpa, Smith, Sæmmering, Swediaur, Symonds, Thomas, Thomson, Turton, Vaughan, Vossius, Willan, Willich's Encyclopædia, Wilson, Woodville.

A. BITNER Jr.

#### A NEW

# MEDICAL DICTIONARY.

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. AA. ANA. (From ava, which signifies of each.) A term in pharmacy.

It is never used but after the mention of two or more ingredients, when it implies, that the quantity mentioned of each ingredient should he taken; e.g. B. Potassæ nitratis: Sacchari albi āā Zj. i. e. Take the nitrate of potash and white sugar, of each one drachm.

ABAM. A term used by some ancient

chymists for lead.

ABACTUS. Abigeatus. Among the ancient physicians, this term was used for a miscarriage, procured by art, or force of medicines, in contradistinction to abortus, which meant a natural miscarriage. moderns know no such distinctions.

ABACUS. (From a Hebrew word, signifying dust.) A table for preparations, so called from the usage of mathematicians of drawing their figures upon tables sprin-

kled with dust.

ABAISIR. Abasis. Spodium Arabum. Ivory black; and also calcareous powder. ABALIENATIO. A decay of the body, or

mind.

ABALIENATUS. Corrupted. A part so destroyed as to require immediate extirpation; also the fault or total destruction of the senses, whether external or internal, by disease.

ABANET. (Hebrew, the girdle worn by

the Jewish priests.) A girdle-like bandage.

Aranga. Ady. The palm of the Island of St. Thomas, from which Thernal's re-

storative is prepared.

ABAPTISTA. (From a, priv. et βατία, to plunge.) Abaptiston. The shoulders of the old trepan. This term is employed by Galen, Fabricius ab Aquapendente, Scultetus, and others, to denote the conical saw with a circular edge, (otherwise called modiolus, or terebra,) which was formerly used by surgeons to perforate the cranium.

ABARNAHAS. See Abaptista. ABARNAHAS. Ovum ruffum. A chemical term formerly used in the transmutation of metals, signifying luna plena, magnes, or magnesia.

ABARTAMEN. Plumbum, or lead.

ABARTICULATION. (From ab, and articulus, a joint.) That species of articulation which has evident motion. See *Diarthrosis*.

ABAS. (An Arabian word.) The scald-

head; also epilepsy.

ABASIS. See Abaisir.

ABBREVIATION. The principal uses of medicinal abbreviations are in prescriptions; in which they are certain marks, or half words, used by physicians for despatch and conveniency when they prescribe, thus: - readily supplies the place of recipeh. s. that of hora somni-n. m. that of nux moschata-elect. that of electarium, &c.; and in general all the names of compound medicines, with the several ingredients, are frequently wrote only up to their first or second syllable, or sometimes to their third or fourth, to make them clear and expressive. Thus Croc. Anglic. stands for Crocus Anglicanus-Conf. Aromat. for Confection Aromatica, &c. A point being always placed at the end of such syllable shews the word to be incomplete.

ABDOMEN. (From abdo, to hide, because it hides the viscera. It is also derived from abdere, to hide, and omentum, the caul; and by others it is said to be only a termination, as from lego, legumen, so from

abdo, abdomen.) The belly.

The abdomen is the largest cavity in the body, bounded superiorly by the diaphragm by which it is separated from the chest : inferiorly by the bones of the pubis and ischium; on each side by various muscles, the short ribs and ossa ilii; anteriorly by the abdominal muscles, and posteriorly by the vertebræ of the loins, the os sacrum and os coccygis. Internally it is invested by a smooth membrane called peritoneum, and externally by muscles and common integuments.

In the cavity of the abdomen are contained,

1. Anteriorly and laterally.

The cpiploon. 2. The stomach. 3. The large and small intestines. 4. The mesentery. 5. The lacteal vessels. 6. The pancreas. 7. The spleen. 8. The liver and gall-bladder.

Posteriorly, without the peritoneum, are,

1. The kidneys. 2. The supra-renal glands. 3. The ureters. 4. The receptaculum chyli. 5. The descending aorta. 6. The ascending vena cava.

3. Inferiorly in the pelvis, and without the

peritoneum,

In men, 1. The urinary bladder. 2. The spermatic vessels. 3. The intestinum rectum.

In women, beside the urinary bladder and intestinum rectum, there are,

1. The uterus. 2. The four ligaments of the uterus. 3. The two ovaria. 4. The two Fallopian tubes. 5. The vagina.

The fore part of this cavity, as has been mentioned, is covered with muscles and common integuments, in the middle of which is the navel. It is this part of the body which is properly called abdomen; it is distinguished, by anatomists, into regions.

The posterior part of the abdomen is called the loins, and the sides the *Epicolic* 

regions

Abdominal Hernia. See Hernia Abdominalis.

Abdominal muscles. See Muscles.

Abdominal ring. See Annulus Abdominis. Abdominal regions. See Regions.

ABDUCENS LABIORUM. A name given by Spigelius to the levator anguli oris. See Levator anguli oris.

Abducent nerves. See Nervi abducentes. Abducent Muscles. See Abductor.

Abbuttio. (From abduco, to draw away.) A species of fracture, when a bone is divided transversely near a joint, so that each part recedes from the other. In Cœlius Aurelianus it signifies a strain; and is mentioned as one of the causes of ischiadic and psoadic pains.

Appecton. (From abduco, to draw away.) Abducens. A name given to those muscles whose office is to pull back or draw the member to which it is affixed from some other, as the abductor pollicis draws the thumb from the fingers. The antagonists are called adductores, or adductors.

Abductor auricularis. See Posterior auris. Abductor auris. See Posterior auris.

Abductor brevis alter. See Abductor pollicis manas.

ABDUCTOR INDICIS MANUS. Abductor of Douglas. Semi-interesseus indicis of Winslow. Adductor indicis of Cow-

per.

An internal interosseous muscle of the fore-finger, situated on the hand. It arises from the superior part of the metacarpal bone, and the os trapezium, on its inside, by a fleshy beginning, runs towards the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, adheres to it, and is connected by a broad tendon to the superior part of the first phalanx of the fore-finger. Sometimes it arises by a

double tendon. Its use is to draw the fore-finger from the rest, towards the thumb, and to bend it somewhat towards the palm.

ABDUCTOR INDICIS PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the fore-toe, which arises tendinous and fleshy, by two origins, from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe, from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, and from the os cuneiforme internum, and is inserted tendinous into the inside of the root of the first joint of the fore-toe. Its use is to pull the fore-toe inwards, from the rest of the small toes.

Abductor longus pollicis manas. See Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis manas.

ABDUCTOR MEDII DIGITI PEDIS. An interosseous muscle of the foot, which arises tendinous and fleshy, from the inside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the middle toe internally, and is inserted tendinous into the inside of the root of the first joint of the middle toe. Its use is to pull the middle toe inwards.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI MA-NUS. Carpo-phalangien du petit doigt of Dumas. Extensor tertii internodii minimi digiti of Douglas. Hypothenar minor of

Winslow.

A muscle of the little finger, situated on the hand. It arises fleshy from the pisiform bone, and from that part of the ligamentum carpi annulare next it, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inner side of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger. Its use is to draw the little finger from the rest.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. Calcaneo-phalangien du petit doigt of Dumas. Adductor of Douglas, Parathenar major of Winslow, by whom this muscle is divided into two, Parathenar major and metutarsens. Adductor minimi digiti of

Cowper.

A muscle of the little toe, which arises tendinous and fleshy, from the semicircular edge of a cavity on the inferior part of the protuberance of the os calcis, and from the rest of the metatarsal bone of the little toe, and is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe externally. Its use is to bend the little toe, and its metatarsal bone, downwards, and to draw the little toe from the rest.

ABRUCTOR OCULI. Adductor of Donglas and Winslow. Orbito-intus-scleroticien, orbito-extus scleroticien of Dumas. Rectus Adducens oculi of Albinus. Indignatorius, or the scornful muscle. Adducens Iracundus. See Rectus externus oculi.

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS MANUS. Scaphosns-pholanginien du pouce of Dumas. Adductor pollicis manûs, and Adductor brevis alter of Albinus. Adductor thenar Riolani of Douglas, (the adductor brevis alter of Albinus is the inner portion of this muscle.) Adductor pollicis of Cowper.

A muscle of the thumb situated on the hand. It arises by a broad tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the ligamentum carpi annulare, and from the os trupezium, and is inserted tendinous into the outer side of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to draw the thumb from the fin-

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ABDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. Calcanes phalangien du pouce of Dumas. Abductor of Douglas. Thenar of Winslow. Abductor

policis of Cowper.

A muscle of the great toe, situated on the foot It arises fleshy, from the inside of the root of the protuberance of the os calcis, where it forms the heel, and tendinous from the same bone, where it joins the os naviculare; and is inserted tendinous into the internal sesamoid bone and root of the first joint of the great toe Its use is to pull the great toe from the rest.

ABDUCTOR TERTII DIGITI PEDIS. An interesseous muscle of the foot, that arises tendinous and fleshy from the inside and the inferior part of the root of the me-tatarsal bone of the third toe; and is inserted tendinous into the inside of the root of the first joint of the third toe. Its use is to pull

the third toe inwards.

ABEBÆOS. (From a, neg. and Bauos firm.) Abebæus Weak, infirm, unsteady A term made use of by Hippocrates de Signis.

ABEBRUS. See Abebros.

ABELMOSCHUS (Arabian.) Granum moschi. Moschus Arabum. Ægyptia moschata. Bamia moschata Alcea, Alcea Indica Alcea Ægyttaca villosa. Abrette. Abelmosch. Abelmusk. The seeds of a plant called the musk mallow, which have the flavour of musk. The plant Hibiscus abelmoschus of Linnæus, is indigenous in Egypt, and in many parts of both the Indies. The best comes from Martinico. By the Arabians the seeds are esteemed cordial, and are mixed with their coffee, to which they impart their fragrance. In this country they are used by the perfu-

Abelmosch. See Abelmoschus.

Abelmusk, See Abelmoschus.

ABERRATIO. (From ab and erro, to wander from.) Lusus nature. Dislocation.

ABESSI. (Arabian.) Filth. The alvine excrements.

ABESUM. Quick lime.

ABEVACUATIO, (From ab, dim. and evaevacuation of the peccant humours, either

naturally or by art.

ABIES. (From abeo, to proceed, because it rises to a great height; or from artis, a wild pear, the fruit of which its cones something resemble.) Elate Theteia. The An evergreen tree. Linnæus includes the abies in the genus Pinus. Botanists have chumerated several species: the four which follow, are the principal that afford materials for medicinal use.

1. Pinus Picea, the silver fir-tree, which affords the common turpentine.

2. Pinus abies alba, the Norway spruce firstree, which vields the Burgundy pitch.

- 3. Pinus larix, the common white larchtree, from which is obtained the Venice turpentine.
- 4. Pinus sylvestris, the Scotch fir, which yields the pix liquida.

ABIES CANADENSIS, See Balsamum Canadense

ABIGEATUS. See Abactus.

ABIOTOS. (From α, neg. and βιω, to live.) A name given to hemlock, from its dead qualities. See Conium.

ABLACTATIO. (From ab, from, and lac, milk.) Ablactation. The weaning of a child

from the breast.

Ablatio. (From affero, to take away.) The taking away from the body whatever is useless or hurtful; it comprehends all kinds of evacuations. Sometimes it signifies the subtraction of a part of the diet, with a medical view; and sometimes it expresses the interval betwixt two fits of a fever, or the time of remission.

Chymical ablation is the removal of any thing that is either finished or else no longer

necessary in a process.

ABLUENTIA (Abluentia, sc. medicamenta, from abluo, to wash away.) Abstergents.
Abluents. Medicines which were formerly supposed to purify or cleanse the blood.

ABLUTION. (From ublue, to wash off.) A washing or cleansing either of the body or

the intestines.

In chemistry it signifies the purifying of a body, by repeated effusions of a proper liquor.

ABOIT. An obsolete term of Arabic ex-

traction for white lead.

ABOLITIO. (From aboleo, to destroy.) The separation or destruction of diseased parts. ABORTION. (Abortio, from aborior, to

be steril.) Aborsus. Amblosis. Diaphthora. Ectrosis. Exambloma. Examblosis. Apo-

pallesis. Apopalsis Apophthora.

Miscarriage, or the expulsion of the fætus from the uterus, before the seventh month. after which it is called premature labour. It most commonly occurs between the eighth and eleventh weeks of pregnancy, but may happen at a later period. In early gestation, the ovum sometimes comes off entire; sometimes the fœtus is first expelled, and the placenta afterwards. It is preceded by flooding, pains in the back, loins, and lower part of the abdomen, evacuation of the water, shiverings, palpitation of the heart, nausea, anxiety, syncope, subsiding of the breasts and belly, pain in the inside of the thighs, opening and moisture of the os

Anontives. ( Abortiva, sc. medicamenta ; from aborior, to be steril.) Amblotica. Ecbo-

Medicines capable of occasioning an

abortion, or miscarriage, in pregnant women. It is now generally believed, that the medicines which produce a miscarriage, effect it by their violent action on the system, and not by any specific action on the womb.

ABRASA. (From abrado, to shave off.) Ulcers attended with abrasion of part of

their substance.

ABRASION. (Abrasio, from abrado, to tear off.) This word is generally employed to signify the destruction of the natural mucus of any part, as the stomach, intestines, urinary bladder, &c. It is also applied to any part slightly torn away by attrition, as the skin, &c.

ABRATHAN. Corrupted from abrotanum, southernwood. See Abrotanum.

ABRETTE. See Abelmoschus.

Abric. An absolete Arabic term for sulphur.

ABROMA. (From a, neg. et βςωμα, food; i. e. not fit to be eaten.) A tree of New South Wales, which yields a gum

ABROTANUM. (Αδζοτανον, from α, neg. and βξοτος, mortal; because it never decays: or from αδζος, soft, and τονος, extension; from the delicacy of its texture.) Common southernwood. Abrotanum mas.

Artemisia fruticosa, of Linnæus:—foliis setaceis ramosissimis. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. A plant possessed of a strong and, to most people, an agreeable smell; a pungent, bitter, and somewhat nauseous taste. It is supposed to stimulate the whole system, but more particularly the uterus. It is very rarely used unless by way of fomentation, with which intention the leaves are directed.

ABROTANUM MAS. See abrotanum.

ABROTONITES. (From abrotanum.) A wine mentioned by Dioscorides, impregnated with abrotanum, or southernwood, in the proportion of about one hundred ounces of the dried leaves, to about seven gallons of must.

Abscepentia. (From abscedo, to separate.) Decayed parts of the body, which, in a morbid state, are separated from the sound.

bound.

ABSCESS. (From abscedo, to depart; because parts, which were before contiguous, become separated, or depart from each other.) Abscessio Abscessus. Imposthuma.

A collection of pus in the cellular membrane, or in the viscera, or in bones, prece-

ded by inflammation.

Abscission. (Abscissio; from ab, and scindo, to cut.) Apocope. The taking away some morbid, or other part, by an edged instrument. The abscission of the prepnce makes what we call circumcision. Abscission is sometimes used by medical writers to denote the sudden termination of a disease in death, before it arrives at its decline. Celsus frequently uses the term abscissation to express a loss of voice.

ABSINTHIUM. (Αψνθιον, from α, neg. and ψινθος, pleasant: so called from the disagreeableness of the taste.) A genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. Wormwood.

Absinthium comment. Set Absinthium vulsare

Absinthium maritimum. Sea wormwood, falsely called in our markets, Roman wormwood. Artemisia maritima.

Absinthium Ponticum of Linnæus :- foliis multipartitis, tomentosis racemis cernuis flosreculis famineis ternis. This plant grows plentifully about the sea-shore, and in salt marshes. The specific differences between it and the common wormwood, absinthium vulgare, are very evident. Its taste and smell are considerably less unpleasant than those of the common wormwood, and even the essential oil, which contains the whole of its flavour concentrated, is somewhat less ungrateful, and the watery extract somewhat less bitter than those of the common wormwood. Hence it is preferred, in those cases where the Artemisia absinthium is supposed to be too unpleasant for the stomach. A conserve of the tops of this plant is directed by the London Pharmacopœia.

ABSINTHIUM PONTICUM. See Absinthium

Maritimum.

ABSINTHIUM VULGARE. Common worm-wood. Falsely called in our markets Absinthium Romanum, or Roman wormwood. Absinthium Ponticum of Discorides and Pliny. Murray.

Artemisia Absinthium of Linnaus:-foliis compositis multifidis, floribus subglobosis pendulis : receptaculo villoso. Class, Syngenum. Order, Polygamia superflua. This plant is a native of Britain, and grows about rub-bish, rocks, and sides of roads. The leaves of wormwood have a strong disagreeable smell: their taste is nauseous, and so in-tensely bitter as to be proverbial. The flowers are more aromatic and less bitter than the leaves, and the roots discover an aromatic warmth, without bitterness. This species of wormwood may be considered the principal of the herbaceous bitters. Its virtus, in the words of Bergius, is antiputredinosa, antacida, anthelminthica, resolvens, tonica, spasmodica. And although it is now chiefly employed with a view to the two last-mentioned qualities, yet we are told of its good effects in a great variety of diseases, as intermittent fevers, hypochondriasis, obstructions of the liver and spleen, gout, calculi, scurvy, dropsy, worms, &c. See Woodville's Medical Botany. Cullen thinks it is possessed of a narcotic power, and that there is in every bitter, when largely employed, a power of destroying the sensibility and irritability of the nervous power.

Externally, wormwood is used in discu-

tient and antiseptic fomentations. This plant may be taken in powder, but it is more commonly preferred in infusion. The Edinburgh Pharmacopæia directs a tincture of the flowers, which is, in the opinion of Dr. Cullen, a light and agreeable bitter, and, at the same time, a strong impregnation of the wormwood.

Absorbing vessels. Sec Absorbents. ABSORBENTS. Absorbentia.

1. Small, delicate, transparent vessels, which take up any fluid from the surface of the body, or of any cavity in it, and carry it to the thoracic duct, to be mixed with the blood. They are denominated according to the liquids which they convey, lacteals and lymphatics. See Lacteals and Lymphatics.

2. Medicines are so termed, which have no acrimony in themselves, and destroy acidities in the stomach and bowels; such are calcined magnesia, prepared chalk,

oyster-shells, crab's claws, &c.
ABSORPTION. (From absorbeo, to suck up.) A function in an animated body, arranged by physiologists under the head of natural actions. It signifies the taking up of substances applied to the mouths of absorbing vessels: thus the nutritious part of the food is absorbed from the intestinal canal by the lacteals: thus mercury is taken into the system by the lymphatics of the skin, &c. The principle by which this function takes place, is a power inherent in the mouths of the absorbents, a vis insita, dependent on the degree of irritability of their internal membrane by which they contract and propel their contents forwards.

ABSTENTIO. Calius Aurelianus uses this word, to express a suppression, or retention. Thus, abstentio stercorum, a retention of the excrements, which he mentions as a symptom very frequent in a satyriasis. a sense somewhat different, he uses the word abstenta, applying it to the pleura, where he seems to mean, that the humour of the inflamed pleura is prevented, by the adjacent bones, from extending itself.

ABSTERGENTS. (Abstergentia, scilicèt medicamenta; from abstergo, to cleanse away.) Lotions, or any application that cleanses or clears away foulness. The term is seldom employed by modern writers.

Abstraction. (From abstraho, to draw away.) A term employed by chymists in the process of humid distillation, to signify that the fluid body is again drawn off from the solid, which it had dissolved.

ABSTRACTITIUS. (From abstraho, to draw away.) Native spirit, not produced by fermentation.

Absvs. An obsolete term for the Egyptian lotus.

ABVACUATIO. (From abvacuo, to empty.) Local or morbid discharge. A large evacuation of any fluid, as of blood from a plethoric person.

Acaca. (From a, neg. and zazos, bad.) Diseases which are rather troublesome than

ACACIA. (Axaxia, from axaça, to sharpen.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. The Egyptian thorn.

ACACIA GERMANICA. Acacia nostras. German acacia, or the German black-thorn or sloe-tree. Acacia nostras. Succus pruni sylvestris. The inspissated juice of the German wild sloe, prunus spinosa, or prunus sylvestris spinosa of Linnæus; now fallen into disuse.

ACACIE GUMMI. Gummi acanthinum. Gummi thebaicum. Gummi scorpionis. Gum-lumac. Gummi senega, or seni-Acacia gum, or gum-arabic. The gum

of the Egyptian thorn.

Acacia vera, of Willdenow: -spinis stipularibus patentibus, foliis bipinnatis; partialibus extimis glandula intertinctis, spicis globosis pedunculatis. Cairo and Alexandria were the principal marts for gum-arabic, till the Dutch introduced the gum from Senegal into Europe, about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and which now supplies the greater part of the vast con-sumption of this article.

The tree which yields the Senegal gum, grows abundantly on the sands, long the while of the Barbary coast, and particularly about the river Senegal. There are several species, some of which yield a red astringent juice, but others afford only a pure, nearly colourless, insipid gam, which is the great article of commerce. These trees are from eighteen to twenty feet high, with thorny branches. The gum makes its appearance about the middle of November, when the soil has been thoroughly saturated with periodical rains. The gummy juice is seen to ooze through the trunk and branches, and, in about a fortnight, it hardens into roundish drops, of a yellowish white, which are beautifully brilliant where they are broken off, and entirely so when held in the mouth for a short time, to dissolve the outer surface. No clefts are made, nor any artificial means used by the Moors, to solicit the flow of the The lumps of gum-senegal are usually about the size of partridge eggs, and the harvest continues about six weeks. This gum is a very wholesome and nutritious food; thousands of the Moors supporting themselves entirely upon it during the time of harvest. About six ounces is sufficient to support a man for a day; and it is besides, mixed with milk, animal broths, and other victuals.

The gum-arabic, or that which comes directly from Egypt and the Levant, only differs from the gum-senegal in being of a lighter colour, and in smaller lumps; and it is also somewhat more brittle. In all other respects, the two resemble each other perfectly.

Gum-arabic is neither soluble in spirit nor

in oil; but, in twice its quantity of water, it dissolves into a mucilaginous fluid, of the consistence of a thick syrup, and in this state answers many useful pharmaceutical purposes, by rendering oily, resinous, and pinguious substances miscible with water. The glutinous quality of gum-arabic renders it preferable to other gums and mucilages as a demulcent in coughs, hoarsenesses, and other catarrhal affections. It is also very generally employed in ardor urina, diarrheas, and calculous complaints.

Acacia Indica See Tamarindus Indica. Acacia Nostras. See Acacia Germanica. Acacia Vera. Accacia veravel. Succus

acaciæ veræ.

1. The expressed juice of the immature pods of the tree called Acacia vera by Willdenow, and Mimosa Nilotica by Linnaus. This inspissated juice is brought from Egypt in roundish masses, wrapped up in thin bladders. It is considered as a mild astringent medicine. The Egyptians give it, in spitting of blood, in the quantity of a drachm, dissolved in any convenient liquor, and repeat this dose occasionally. They likewise employ it in collyria, for strengthening the eyes, and in gargles, for quincies. It is now seldom used as a medicine, being superseded by the use of catechu, or terra japonica.

The inspissated juice of the unripe sloe is usually sold for the Egyptian acacia.

2. The systematic name of the true acacia or Egyptian thorn: the tree which affords the gum-arabic. See Acacia gummi.

ACACIA VERAVEL. See Acacia vera.
ACACIA ZEYLONICA. Logwood. See

Lignum Campechianum.

ACALAI. (Arab.) Common salt, or muriate of soda.

ACALCUM. Tin.

Acamatos (From a, neg. and za μοω, to weary.) A perfect rest of the muscles.

Acantha. (Acantha, from an a point.)
A thorn, or any thing pointed, as the skin,

or spina dorsi.

ACANTHABOLUS. (From ακανθα, a thorn and επλλω to east out.) An instrument, or forceps, for taking out or removing thorns or whatever may stick in the flesh. Paulus Ægineta.

ACANTHE. The name of the artichoke in

ancient authors.

Acanthinum. (From απανθα, a thorn.) Gum-arabic was so called because it is pro-

duced from a thorny tree.

ACANTHULUS. (From ακανθα, a thorn.) A surgical instrument to draw out thorns or splinters, or to remove any extraneous matter from wounds.

ACANTHUS. (Anarbos, from anarba a thorn; so named from being rough and prickly.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Didynamia.

Order, Ingiospermia. Bear's breech. Brank-ursine.

ACANTIUS MOLLIS. (Axavθot, from axavθa, a thorn; so nained from its rough and prickly surface. (Bear's-breech or Branckursine. Acanthus mollis, foliis sinuatis incrmibus of Linnaus. Branca ursina of the shops. The leaves and root abound with a mucilage, which is readily extracted by boiling or infusion. The roots are the most mucilaginous. Where this plant is common, it is employed for the same purposes to which althaa and other vegetables possessing similar qualities are applied among us. It is fallen into disuse. The herbwomen too often sell the leaves of helleboraster or bear's foot and of spondylium or cow's parsnip for the bear's breech.

ACAPNON. (From α, priv. and καπνος, smoke) Common wild marjoram. Un-

smoked honey.

Acanus. (From anagu small.) An insect

which breeds in the skin.

Acatalersia. (From α, neg. and καταλαμόζανω, to apprehend) Uncertainty in the prognostication or judgment of diseases.

Acatalis. (From a, neg. and xarea, to want.) The juniper, named from the abun-

dance of its seeds.

ACATAPOSIS From α, neg. and καταπινω to swallow.) Difficult deglutition.

ACASTATOS. (From α, neg. and καθιζαμι, to determine.) Inconstant.

1. Fevers are so called which are anomalous in their appearance and irregular in their paroxysms.

Turbid urine without sediment.

ACAZDIR. Tin

ACCELERATOR URINÆ. (From accelero, to hasten or propel.) Ejaculator Seminis. Bulbo-syndesmo caverneux of Dumas. Bulbo-cavernosus of Winslow.

A muscle of the penis. It arises fleshy from the sphincter ani and membranous part of the urethra, and tendinous from the crns, near as far forwards as the beginning of the corpus cavernosum penis; the inferior fibres run more transversely, and the superior descend in an oblique direction. It is inserted into a line in the middle of the bulbous part of the urethra, where each joins with its fellow; by which the bulb is completely closed. The use of these muscles is to drive the urine or semen forward, and by grasping the bulbous part of the urethra, to push the blood towards its corpus cavernosum, and the glands by which they are distended.

Accession (From accedo, to approach.)
The approach or commencement of a disease. A term mostly applied to a fever which has paroxysms or exacerbations: thus the accession of fever, means the commencement or approach of the pyrexial period.

ACCESSOREI OF WILLIS. (Accessorii, sc. nervi, from accedo, to approach;

having connection with by contact or approach; so called from the course they take.) The name given by Willis to two nerves which ascend, one on each side from the second, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs of nerves, through the great foramen of the occipital bone, and pass out again from the cranium through the foramina lucera, with the par vagum, to be distributed on the trapezius muscle.

Access Rius. Being connected by con-

tact or approach.

Accessorius Lumbalis. A muscle of the loins. See Sacro-lumbalis.

Accib. An obsolete term for lead.

Accipiter. (From accipio, to take.) 1. The hawk; named from its rapacity.

A bandage which was put over the nose; so called from its likeness to the claw of a hawk, or from the tightness of its grasp.

Accipionina. (From accipiter, the hawk.) The herb hawk weed, which Piny says was so called because hawks are used to scratch it, and apply the juice to their eyes to prevent blindness.

Accurves. A muscle of the belly, so named from the oblique ascent of its fibres.

Sec Obliquus ascendens abdominis.

Accordieur. A midwife.

Accor CHMENT. The act of delivery.

Accaerton. (From ad, and cresco, to increase.) Nutrition, growth.

The growing together of the fingers or

ACCUBATIO. [From accumbo, to recline.)

Childbed. Reclining. Acedia. From a. priv. and unfos, care Carelessness, neglect in the application of medicines. Hippocrates sometimes uses this word, in his Treatise on the Glands, to

signify fatigue or trouble.

ACEPHALUS. (Ausqualos, from a. priv. and REPARM, a head.) A term applied to

monsters born without heads.

ACER (Acer, sharp: because of the sbarpness of its juice.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Polygamia. Order, Monoecia

ACER PSEUDOPLATANUS. The maple-tree, falsely called sycamore. It is also called Platanus traga. This tree is common in England, though not much used in medicine. The juice, if drank whilst fresh, is said to be a good antiscorbutic. All its parts con-tain a saccharine fluid; and if the root or branches are wounded in the spring, a large quantity of liquor is discharged, which when inspissated, yields a brown sort of sugar and syrup like molasses. Large quantities of this sugar are obtained from the trees in New England and Canada, and is much used in France, where it is commonly known by the name of Saccharum Canadense or Saccharum Acernum, maple sugar. It has been supposed that all Europe might be supplied from the maples of America, but the sugar is coarse and ill tasted.

Aceratos. (From α, neg. and κεραω, or κεξαννυμι, to mix.) Unmixed, uncorrupted. Is applied sometimes to the humours of the body by Hippocrates. Paulus Ægineta mentions a plaster of this name.

ACERB. (Acerbus, from acer, sharp.) A species of taste which consists in a degree of acidity, with an addition of roughness; properties common to many immature

fruits.

ACERBITAS. Acidity. Sourness.

Acerides. (From a, priv. and ungos, wax.) Soft plasters made without wax,

ACESCENT. Substances which readily run into the acid formemation.

Acesis. (From aneomai, to cure.)

1. A remedy or cure.

2 The herb water-sage, so called from its supposed healing qualities.

Acesta. (From axequal, to cure.) Dis-

tempers which are easily cured.

Acestis. Borax. See Boras soda. Acestoris. (From axeomas, to cure.) It strictly signifies a female physician, and is used for a midwife.

Acestribes. A midwife.

ACETABULUM. (From acetum, vinegar; so called because it resembles the acetabulum, or old saucer, in which vinegar was held for the use of the table.) A name given by Latin writers to the cup-like cavity of the os innominatum, which receives the head of the thigh-bone

ACETARIA. (From acetum, vinegar; because they are mostly made with vinc-

gar.) Sallads or pickles.

A salt is so ACETAS. An acetate. called in the new chemical nomenclature and pharmacopæias, which is formed by the union of the acetic acid, with an earthy metallic or alkaline base. Those used in medicine are the acetat of ammonia, lead, zinc, and potash.

ACETAS POTASSE. Acetated vegetable alkali, Kali acetatum. Sal Diureticus. Terra foliata tartari. Sal Sennerti.

Take of subcarbonnate of potash, a pound and a nalf. Acetic acid, a gallon. Mix them together in a large glass vessel, and having evaporated the solution to half, over the fire, add gradually as much more acetic acid as may be necessary for perfect saturation. Let the solution be further reduced to one half by evaporation, and strain it: then by means of a water-bath evaporate it, so that on being removed " from the fire, it shall crystallize.

The acetate of potash is esteemed as a saline diuretic and deobstruent. It is given in the dose of from gr. x to 538, three times a day in any appropriate vehicle against dropsies, hepatic obstructions, and the like.

ACETAS AMMONIÆ. Aceta of ammonia. A salt composed of ammonia and acetic acid. It is so deliquescent, that it is alway kept in the fluid state. See Liquor ammonice acetatis.

ACETAS PLUMBI. Acetate of lead. A metallic salt composed of lead and acetic

acid. See Liquor plumbi acetatis.

ACETAS ZINCI. A metallic salt composed of zinc and acetic acid. It is used by some as an astringent against inflammation of the eyes, urethra, and vagina, diluted in the same proportion as the sulphate of zinc.

Acetated vegetable Alkali. See Acetas po-

tassæ

Acetated volatile Alkali. See Liquor acetatis ammoniæ.

Acetic Acid. See Acetum.

ACETIFICATION. A term used by some chymists to denote the action or operation by which vinegar is made.

Acetat of Potash See Acetas potassæ. Acetat of Ammonia. See Liquor ammoniæ

acetatis

Acetat of Zinc. See Acetas Zinci.

ACETOSA. (From acesco, to be sour.) Sorrel. A genus of plants in some systems of botany.

Acerosa vulgaris. Acetosa pratensis. Acetosa arvensis. Sorrel; sour-dock.

Rumex acetosus of Linnæus:—foliis oblongis sagittatis, floribus diaceis. Class, Hexandria. Order, Tryginia. The leaves of this plant are sour, but not the root, which is bitter. It grows in the meadows and common fields.

Acetosa Romana. Acetosa rotundifolia hortensis. Roman or garden sorrel.

Rumex scutatus or helveti rus:—foliis cordato hastatis, ramis divergentibus, floribus hermaphroditis, of Linnxus. It is common in our gardens and in many places is known by the culinary name of Green-sauce.

ACETOSELLA. (From acetosa, sorrel; from the acidity of its leaves.) Lujula.

Alleluja. Wood-sorrel.

Oxalis acetocella, of Linnaus:-foliis ternatis, scapo unifloro, flore albo, capsulis pentagonis elasticis, radice squamoso-articulata. Class, Decandria. Order, Pentagynia .-This plant grows wild in the woods, and flowers in April and May. The leaves are shaped like a heart, standing three together on one stalk. The acetocella is totally inodorous, but has a grateful acid taste, on which account it is used in sallads. Its taste is more agreeable than the common sorrel, and approaches nearly to that of the juice of lemons, or the acid of tartar, with which it corresponds in a great measure in its medical effects, being esteemed refrigerant, antiscorbutic, and diuretic. It is recommended by Bergius; in inflammatory, bilious, and putrid fevers. The principal use however of the acetosella is to allay inordinate heat and to quench thirst; for this purpose, a pleasant whey may be formed by boiling the plant in milk, which under certain circumstances may be preferable to the conserve directed by the London College, though an extremely grateful and useful medicine. Many have employed

the root of Lujula, probably on account of its beautiful red colour rather than for its superior efficacy. An essential salt is prepared from this plant, known by the name of essential salt of lemons, and commonly used for taking ink-stains out of linen. What is sold under the name of essential salt of lemons in this country, is said by some to consist of cream of tartar, with the addition of a small quantity of suphuric acid. The leaves of sorrel when employed externally in the form of poultices, are powerful suppurants, particularly in indolent scrofulous humours.

Acetons Acid. Distilled vinegar. See

Acetum.

Acetous fermentation. See Fermentation. ACETUM. (From acer, sour.) Vinegar. A sour liquor obtained from many vegetable substances dissolved in boiling water, and from fermented and spiritous liquors, by exposing them to heat and contact with air; under which circumstances they undergo the acid fermentation, (see Fermentation,) and afford the liquor called vinegar.

Wine vinegar .—Let any quantity of vinous liquor be mixed with the acid and austere stalks of the vegetable from which wine was prepared. The whole must be frequently stirred and either exposed to the sun, or deposited in a warm place: after standing a few days it will ferment, become sour and in a fortnight it will be converted into vinegar.

Cyder vinegar, may be made by fermenting new cyder with the must of apples, in a warm room, or in the open air, where it should be exposed to the sun, and in the course of a week or nine days it will be fit

for use.

Another method of preparing vinegar is that published by M. Heber: it consists in exposing a mixture of 72 parts of water, and 4 of rectified malt spirit in a temperature of from 70 to 80° of Farenheit, for about two months, at the expiration of which the acetous process will be effected.

Tarragon vinegar is manufactured by infusing one pound of the leaves of that vegetable (which has been gathered a short time before it flowers) in one gallon of the best vinegar, for the space of 14 days; when it should be strained through a flannel bag; and a drachm of isingless dissolved in cyder must then be added, the whole be carefully mixed and decanted into bottles for a month. Thus the liquor will acquire a most exquisite flavour; it will become remarkably fine and almost colourless.

The utility of vinegar as a condiment for preserving and seasoning both animal and vegetable substances in various articles of food, is very generally known. It affords an agreeable beaerage, when combined with water in the proportion of a table-spoonful of the former to half pint of the

latter. It is often employed as a medicine in inflammatory and putrid diseases, when more active remedies cannot be procured. Relief has likewise been obtained in hypochondrical and hysteric affections, in vomiting, fainting, and hiccough, by the application of vinegar to the mouth. If this fluid be poured into vessels and placed over the gentle heat of a lamp in the apartments of the sick, it greatly contributes to disperse foul or mephitic vapours, and conse-

quently to purify the air. Also as an external application, vinegar proves highly efficacious when joined with farinaceons substances, and applied as a cataplasm to sprained joints; it also forms an eligible lotion for inflammations of the surface, when mixed with ricohol and water in about equal proportions. Applied to burns, and scalds, vinegar is said to be highly serviceable whether there is a loss of substance or not, and to quicken the exfoliation of carious bone (Gloucester In firmary.) Mixed with an infusion of sage, or with water, it forms a popular and excellent gargie for an inflamed throat, also for an injection to inciderate the fluor albus. Applied cold to the nose in cases of hamorrhage, also to the loins and abdomen in meterrhagia, particularly the profluvia after parturition, it is said to be very serviceable. An imprudent use of vinegar internally is not without considerable inconvemences. Large and frequent doses injure the stomach, coagulate the chyle, and produce not only leanness, but an atrophy. When taken to excess by females, to reduce a corpulent habit, tubercles in the lungs and a consumption have been the conse-

Common vinegar consists of acetic acid combined with a large portion of water, and with this are in solution portions of gluten, mucilage, sugar, and attractive matter from which it derives its colour, and frequently some of the vegetable acids, particularly the malic and the tartaric.

Distilled with a gentle fire, in glass vessels, so long as the drops fall free from empyreuma, it affords the

ACIDUM ACETICUM.

Take of vincgar, a gallon.

Distil the acetic acid in a sand bath, from a glass retort into a receiver also of glass, and kept cold; throw away the first pint, and keep for use the six succeeding pints, which are distilled over.

In this distillation, the liquor should be kept moderately boiling, and the heat should not be urged too far, otherwise the dis illed acid will have an empyreumatic smell and taste, which it ought not to possess. If the acid be prepared correctly, it will be colourless, and of a grateful, pungent, peculiar acid taste. One fluid-ounce ought to dissolve at least ten grains of carbonate of lime (white marble.) This liquor is the aceium distillarum; the acidum acetosum of the Landon P armacopæra of 1787, and the acidum aceticum of the last (1809.)

When the acid of vinegar is greatly con centrated, that 15, deprived of its water, it becomes the rad cat vinegar, or

CONCENTRATED ACID OF VINEGAR.

Distilled vinegar may be concentrated by freezing: the congelation takes place at a temperature below 28 degrees, more or less, according to its strength; and the congealed part is merely ice, leaving, of course, a stronger acid. If it be exposed to a very intense cold, equal to 38 degrees, it shoots into crystals; when the fluid part is withdrawn, the crystals liquefy, when the temperature rises, and the liquid is limpid as water, extremely strong, and has a highly pungent acctous odour. This is the pure pungent acctous odour. acid of the viregar, any foreign matter remaining in the uncongealed liquid.

Other methods are likewise employed to obtain the pure and concentrated acid. The process of Westendorf, which has been often tollowed, is to saturate soda with distilled vinegar, obtain the accuate by crystalization; and pour upon it, in a retort, half its weight of sulphuric acid. By applying heat, the acetic acid is distilled over; and, should there be any reason to suspect the presence of any sulphuric acid, it may be distilled a second time, from a little acctate of soda. According to Lowitz, the best way of obtaining this pure, is to mex three parts of the acetate of soda with eight of supersulphate of potass; both salts being perfectly dry, and in fine powder, and to distil from this mixture in a retort, with gentle heat.

It may also be obtained by distilling the verdigris of commerce, with a gentle heat. The concentrated acid procured by these processes, was supposed to differ materially from the acetous acid obtained by distilling vinegar; the two acids were regarded as differing in their degree of oxygenizement, and were afterwards distinguished by the names of acetous and acetic acids. The acid disulled from verdigris was supposed to derive a quantity of oxygen from the oxide of copper, from which it was expelled. The experiments of Adet have, however, proved the two acids to be identical; the acetous acid, therefore, only differs from the acetic acid in containing more water, rendering it a weaker acid, and of a less active nature.

There exists, therefore, only one acid of vinegar, which is the acetic; and its compounds must be termed acetates; and the salts called acetites have no existence.

Acetic acid, when concentrated, has a fragrant and, at the same time, very penetrating smell, irritating the nostrils strongly. It is also so caustic, as to inflame the skin. Its acid taste is strong, even when

diluted with water; it is colourless, and has a specific gr.vity of 1,0626. The acid is capable of congelation; when it forms foliated arborescent crystals it is very volatile; its odour is diffused through the atmosphere, and, when exposed to it, gradually becomes weaker. By a moderate heat, it is converted into vapour; this vapour adily catches fire on the approach of a lighted taper. It combines with water in every proportion; and it combines readily with earthy, metallic, and alkaline bases, forming salts, which are acetates.

The compounds of the acid of vinegar, directed to be used by the new London Pharmacopoia, are acetum colchici, acetum scilla, ceratum plumbi superacetatis, liquor ammonia acetatis, liquor plumbi acetatis dilutus, oxymel, oxymel scillae, potassa acetas, and the liquor ammo-

niæ acetatis.

ACETUM AROMATICUM. Aromatic vinegar. A preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopæia, thought to be an improvement of what has been named thieves vinegar.

"Take of the dried tops of rosemary;
The dried leaves of sage, of each four

ounces.

Dried lavender flowers, two ounces.

Cloves, two dracams;

Distilled vinegar, eight pounds.

Macerate for seven days, and strain the expressed juice through paper." Its virtues are antiseptic, and it is a useful composition to smell at in crowded courts of justice, hospitals, &c. where the air is offensive.

ACETUM DISTILATUM. See acetum.

ACETUM SCILLE. Lond. Pharm. Vinegar of squills. B. Squills recently dried, one pound; vinegar, six pints; proof spirit, half a pint. Macerate the squills with the vinegar in a glass vessel, with a gentle heat for twenty-four hours; then express the liquor and set it aside until the faces subside. To the decanted siquor add the spirit. This preparation of squills is employed as an attenuant. expectorant, and diuretic, gutt. xv. to IX.

ACHEIR. Without hands.

Acutionum. By this word Cælius Aurelianus, Acut. lib. iii. cap. 17. expresses the fornix, tholus, or sudatorium of the ancient baths, which was a hot room where they used to sweat.

ACHILLÆA, (Αχιλληια, from Achilles, who is said to have made his tents with it, or to have cured Telaphus with it.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. Milfoil.

ACHILLE AGERATUM. Balsamita famina. Eupatorium Mesues. Maudlin of the shops, is described by Linnæus as Achillea foliis lanceolatis, obtusis, acutoser-

ratis. It is esteemed in some countries as anthelminthic and alterative, and is given in hepatic obstructions. It possesses the virtues of tansey.

Achillea foliis pinnatis. See Genipi verum.
ACHILLÆA MILLEFOLIUM. The systematic name of the milfoil. See Millefolium.

ACHILLEA PTARMICA. The systematic name of the successort. See Ptarmica.

ACHILLIS TENDO. (So called, because, as fable reports, Theus, the mother of Achilles, held him by that part when she dipped him in the river Styx, to make him invulnerable. Homer describes this tendon, and some writers suppose it was thus named by the ancients, from their custom of calling every thing Achillean, that had any ex raordinary strength or vir-Others say it was named from its action in conducing to swiftness of pace, the The strong term importing so much ) and powerful tendon which is formed by the junction of the gastrochemius and soleus muscles, and which extends along the posterior part of the tibia from the calf to the heel. When this tendon is unfortunately cut or ruptured, as it may be in consequence of a violent exertion, or spasm of the muscles, of which it is a continuation, takes place, the use of the leg is immediately lost, and unless the part be afterwards successfully united, the patient must remain a cripple for life. When the tendon has been cut, the division of the skin allows the accident to be seen. When the tendon has been ruptured, the patient hears a sound like that of the smack of a whip, at the moment of the occurrence. In whatever way the tendon has been divided, there is a sudden incapacity, or at least an extreme difficulty, either of standing or walking. Hence the patient falls down, and cannot get up again. Besides these symptoms there is a very palpable depression between the ends of the tendon: which depression is increased when the foot is bent and diminished, or even quite remove when the foot is extend-The patient can spontaneously bend his foot, none of the flexor muscles being interested. The power of extending the foot is still possible, as the peronei muscles, the tibialis posticus, and long flexors, remain perfect and may perform this motion. The indications are to bring the ends of the divided parts together, and to keep them so, until they have become firmly united. The first object is easily fulfilled by putting the foot into a state of complete extension; the second, namely, that of keeping the ends of the tendon in contact, is more difficult. It seems unnecessary to enumerate the various plans devised to accomplish these ends. The following is Desault's method: After the ends of the tendon had been brought into contact by moderate flexion of the knee,

and complete extension of the foot, he used to fill up the hollows on each side of the tendon with soft lint and compresses. The roller applied to the limb, made as much pressure on these compresses as on the tendon, and hence this part could not be depressed too much against the subjacent parts. Desault next took a compress about two inches broad, and long enough to reach from the toes to the middle of the thigh, and placed it under the foot, over the back of the leg and lower part of the thigh. He then began to apply a few circles of a roller round the end of the foot, so as to fix the lower extremity of the longitudinal compress: after covering the whole foot with the roller, he used to make the bandage describe the figure of 8, passing it under the foot and across the place where the tendon was ruptured, and the method was finished by encircling the limb upward with the roller as far as the upper end of the longitudinal compress.

Achlys. (Αχλυς) Dirkness, cloudiness. It is generally applied to a close, foggy air,

or a mist,

Hippocrates, De Morbis Mulicrum, lib. ii. signifies by this word condensed air in the womb.

Galen interprets it of those, who, during sickness, lose that usual lustre and loveliness observed about the pupil of the eye, during health.

Others express it by an ulcer on the pupil of the eye, or the scar left there by an

ulcer.

It means also an opacity of the cornea; the same as the caligo cornea of Dr. Cullen.

ACHMADIUM. Antimony.

Acmella. Achamella. ACHMELLA. The herb and seeds of this plant, Spilanthus achmella of Linuxus, are employed in cases of calculus of the kindeys and urinary bladder. The plant is very glutinous and bitter, and is given in infusion.

Acune. Chaff, scum or froth of the sea. A white mucus in the fauces, thrown up from the lungs, like froth; also a whitish mucilage in the eyes of those who have fevers, according to Hippocrates. It signifies

also lint.

ACHOR. (αχως, qn. αχνως, from αχνη bran; according to Blanchard it is derived from a, priv. and xugos space, as occupying but a small compass.) Lactumen: abas: acores: cerion: favus. Crusta lactea of authors. The scald-head; so called from the branny scales thrown off it. A disease which attacks the hairy scalp of the head, for the most part of young children, forming soft and scaly eruptions. Dr. Willan, in his description of different kinds of pustules, defines the achor, a pustule of intermediate size between the phly zacium and psydacium which contains a straw-coloured fluid, having the appearance of and nearly the con-

sistence of strained honey. It appears most frequently about the head, and is succeeded by a dull white or yellowish scab. Pustules of this kind, when so large as nearly to equal the size of phlyzacia, are termed ceria or favi, being succeeded by a yellow, semi-transparent, and sometimes, cellular scab, like a honey comb. The achor differs from the favus and tinea only in the degree, of virulence. It is called favns when the perforations are large; and tinca when they are like those which are made by moths in cloth: but generally by tinea is understood a dry scab on the hairy scalp of children, with thick scales and an offen-sive smell. When this di-order affects the face, it is called crusta lactea or milk scab. Mr. Bell, in his treatise on Ulcers, reduces the tinea capitis and crusta lactca to the same species of herpes, viz. the herpes pustulosus, differing only in situation.
Acnoristos. Inseparable. It is under-

stood of accidents, symptoms, or signs, which are inseparable from the particular. things. Thus, a pungent pain in the side is an inseparable symptom of the pleurisy.

ACHREION Useless. It is applied by Hippocrates to the limbs which, through weakness, are become useless.

ACHROIA, A paleness.
ACHYLUS. Deficient in bile.

Action, (axugov.) This properly significs bran or chaff, or straw.

Hippocrates, de Morbis Mulierum, most probably means by this word, bran. A. chyron also signifies a straw, hair, or any thing that sticks upon a wall.

Acia, (From axa, a point.) A needle with thread in it for chirurgical operations.

Aciers. It signifies weak, infirm, or faint, and in this sense it is used by Hippocrates, De Morb. lib. iv.

ACID. That which impresses upon the organs of taste a sharp or sour sensation. Acids are defined by modern chymists to be salts of a sour taste, changing the blue colour of various vegetable pigments to a red. The word sour, which is usually employed to denote the simple impression, or lively and sharp sensation produced on the tongue by certain bodies, may be regarded as synonymous to the word atid. The only difference which can be established between them is, that the one denotes a weak sensation, whereas the other comprehends all the degrees of force from the least perceptible to the greatest degree of causticity: thus we say that verjuice, gooseberries, or lemons, are sour; but we use the word acid to express the impression which the nitric, sulphuric, or muriatic acids make upon the tongue. The vegetable pigments usually employed to ascertain the presence of acids are tincture of turnsole or limus, and syrup of violets. Acids readily combine with alkalis, earths, and metals, and form neutral salts. The characteristics, therefore, of an acid. are.

1. A peculiar taste termed acid.

2. Its changing blue vegetable juices

3. Combining with alkalis, earths, and metals.

Acids, according to the kingdom of nature in which they are found, are divided into mineral, vegetable, and animal.

The mineral acids as yet known, are the sulphuric or vitriolic, the nitric, muriatic, carbonic, boracic, fluoric, succinic, arsenic, molybdic, tungstic, and chromic.

The vegetable acids are, the acetic, oxalic, tartareous, pyrotartareous, gallic, citric, mallic, benzoic, pyroligneous, the succinic, pyromucous, camphric, and cor-

Of the animal acids there are eight, viz. the phosphoric, lactic, saccholactic, fornic, sebacic, prussic, bombic, and lithic, or

Experiment proves that every acid consists of a peculiar body combined with the basis of oxygen gas: hence the origin of the word oxygen, which signifies the generation of acid, it being regarded as the acidifying basis or principle of acidity. The bodies which form the other constituents of acids, are regarded as the ucidifiable basis; thus the principles of phosphoric acid are phosphorus and oxygen; those of carbonic acid, radical carbon and

If an acid basis be perfectly saturated with oxygen, the acid, thus produced, is said to be perfect; but if the basis predominare, the acid is considered as imperfect. Modern chymists distinguish the former in Latin by the syllables ICUM, in English IC, and the latter in Latin by osum, and in English by ous: thus the perfect acid of nitre is called accidum nitricum, or nitric acid; the imperfect acid of nitre, acidum nitrosum, or nitrous acid. There are some cases where an acid is capable of combining with an excess or oxygen, in which case it is said to be oxygenated; and sometime: super-oxygenated. If the acidifiable basis be comb ned with oxygen, yet without showing any of the properties of an acid, the produce is then called an oxyd or oxyde: thus iron exposed to the air or water attracts the oxygen, and an oxyd of iron, the rust, is formed. The various acids employed medicinally are, the acetic, benzoic, tartarie, carbonie, citric, muriatic, oxygenated muriatic, nitric, nitrous, sulphuric and phosphoric.

Acid aerial. See Carbonic acid. Acid acetic.

See Acetum.

For the other Acids look to the word

Acidifable base. See Acid.

Acidifying base. See Acid.
ACIDIFICATION. The formation of an acid; also the impregnating of any thing with acid properties.

ACIDITY. Aciditas. Sourness.

Acros, ANIMAL. Those which are obtained from animals. See Acid.

Acros Dulcified. These are now called See Æther.

ACIDS IMPERFECT. Those acids are so called in the chymical nomenclature, which are not fully saturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by osum, and in English by ous : e. g. acidum nitrosum, or nitrous acid.

ACIDS, MINERAL. Those acids which are found to exist in minerals, as the sulphu-

ric, the nitric, &c. See Acid.

Acins, perfect. An acid is termed perfect in the chymical nomenclature, when it is completely saturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by icum, and in English by ic: e. g. acidum nitricum, or nitric acid.

ACIDS, VEGETABLE. Those which are found in the vegetable kingdom, as the citric, mallic, acetic, &c. See Acid.

ACIDULOUS WATER. Mineral waters, which contain so great a quantity of carbonic acid gas, as to render them acidulous, or gently tart to the taste. See Mineral waters.

ACIDUM ACETICUM. See Acetum.

ACIDUM ACETOSUM. See Acetum.

ACIDUM ETHEREUM. The sulphuric acid. ACIDUM ALUMINOSUM. The sulphuric acid.

ACIDUM ARSENICUM. See Arsenic.

ACIDUM BENZOICUM. See Benzoes.

ACIDUM BORACICUM. See Boracic acid. ACIDUM CARBONICUM. See Carbonic acid. ACIDUM CATHOLICON. The acid of sulphur.

ACIDUM CITRICUM. See Citric acid. ACIDUM MURIATCUM. See Muriatic acid.

ACIDUM NITRICUM. See Nitric acid.

ACIDUM NITROSUM. Spiritus nitri fu-mans, of the shops. The nitrous acid possesses the same properties as the nitric, but in a much inferior degree.

ACIDUM NITROSUM DILUTUM. This is the common aqua fortis. Diluted nitrous acid possesses the same properties as the nitric acid, but in an inferior degree.

ACIDUM PHOSPHORICUM. See Phosphoric acid.

ACIDUM PRIMOGENIUM. The sulphuric acid. ACIDUM SUCCINICUM. See Succinic acid.

ACIDUM SULPHUREUM. The acid of sul-

ACIDUM SULPHURICUM. See Sulphuric

ACIDUM SULPHURICUM DILUTUM. dum vitriolicum dinutum. Spiritus vitrioli tenuis.

ACIDUM TERTARICUM. See Tartaric acid.

ACIDUM VITRIOLICUM. See Sulphuric acid.

Acidum vitriolicum dilutum. See Acidum sulphuricum dilutum.

Take of sulphuric acid, a fluidounce and half.

Distilled water, fourteen fluidonness and half. Add the water to the acid gradually, and mix.

ACIES. Steel

Acini bilios. (Acinus, a grape-stone; so called from their supposed resemblance.)
The small glandsform bodies of the liver, which separate the bile from the blood were formerly so called; they are now.

which separate the bile from the blood were formerly so called: they are now, however, more properly termed penicilli. See Liver.

Activition Tunie, Tunica acinosa. The

cost of the eye called the wrea, because the ancients, who dissected brutes, observed that, in them, it was usually of the colour of an unipe grape.

ACINUS. (A grape.) The glands which grow together in clusters are called by some

acini glandulosi.

Acmasticos. A species of synochus, wherein the febrile heat continues of the same tenour to the end. Actuarius.

Acme. (From ακμη a point.) The height or crisis of a disease. A term applied by physicians to that period or state of a disease in which it is at height. The ancients distinguished diseases into four stages:

1. the arche, the beginning or first attack.

2. Anabasis, he growth.

3. The acme, the height.

4. Paracme, or the decline of the disease.

ACMELLA. See Achmella.

Acne. Acna, arvn. A small pimple, or hard tubercle on the face. Fæsius says, that it is a small pustule or pimple, which arrises usually about the time that the body is in full vigour.

Ackertis. (From a, priv. and wraw, to scratch.) That part of the spine of the back, which reaches from the metaphrenon, which is the part betwirt the shoulder-blades, to the loins. This part seems to have been originally called so in quadrupeds only, because they cannot reach it to scratch.

ACOE. (AROV) The sense of hearing ACOELIOS. (From a priv. and RODACS, the belly.) Without belly. It is applied to those who are so wasted, as to appear as if they had no belly. Galen.

Acourus. (Axourus) An epithet for lioney, mentioned by Pliny: because it has

no sediment, which is called xourn.

Aconion. (Annua) A particular form of medicine among the ancient physicians, made of powders levigated, and probably like collyria for the disorders of the eyes.

ACONIUM. A little mortar.

ACONI I UM. (Of this plant various derivations are given by etymologists; as, axonn a whetstone or rock, because it is usually found in barren and rocky places: a, neg. and xons, dust; because it grows without earth or on barren situations: axonza, to sharpen; because it was used in medicines intended to quicken the sight; axan, a dart; because they poison darts therewith: or. axonfonza, to accelerate; for it hastens death.) Acontte. WoiPsbane. Monk's-hood.

1. A genus or plants in the Linnxan sys-

tem. Class, Polyandria, Trigynia.

2. The pharmacopetal name of the common, or blue, wolr's-bate. Monk's-hood. Aconite. Camarum. Canicida. Cynococtanum.

Aconitum napellus of Linnæus:-foliorum laciniis linearibus supernè latioribus, linea

exaratis.

The aconite is cultivated in our gardens as an ornament, but is spontaneously produced in Germany, and some other northern parts of Europe. Every part of the plant is strongly poisonous, but the root is unquestionably the most powerful; and when first cnewed, imparts a slight sensation of acrimony, but afterwards, an insensibility or stupor at the, apex of the tongue and a pungent heat of the lips, gums, palate, and fauces are perceived, followed with a general tremor and sensation of chilliness. The juice applied to a wound, seemed to affect the whose nervous system; even by keeping it long in the hand, or on the bo-som, we are told, unpleasant symptoms have been produced. The fatal symptoms brought on by this poison are, convulsions, giddiness, insanity, violent purgings, both upwards and downwards, faintings, cold sweats, and death itself. Dr Stoerk ap-pears to be the first who gave the wolf'sbane internally, as a medicine; and since his experiments were published, 1762, it has been generally and successfully employed in Germany and the northern parts of Europe, particularly as a remedy for obstinate rheumatisms; and many cases are related where this disease was of several years duration, and had withstood the efficacy of other powerful medicines, as mercury, opium, antimony, cicuta, &c. yet, in a short time, were entirely cured by the aconitum. Instances are also given us of its good effects in gout, scrophulous swellings, venereal nodes, amaurosis, intermittent fevers, paralysis, ulceration, and scirrhus. This plant has been generally prepared as an extract or inspissated juice, after the manner directed in the Edinburgh and many of the foreign pharmacopæias: its efficacy is much diminished on being long kept. Like all virulent medicines, it should first be administered in

small doses. Stoerk recommends two grains of the extract to be rubbed into a powder, with two drams of sugar, and to begin with ten grains of this powder, two or three times a day. We find, however, that the extract is often given from one grain to ten for a dose; and Stoll, Scherekbecker, and others, increased this quantity considerably. Instead of the extract, a tincture has been made of the dried leaves, maccrated in six times their weight of spirits of wine, and forty drops given for a Some writers say that the napellus is not poisonous in Sweden, Poland, &c. but it should be noted that the napellus which is not poisonous, is the Aconitum lycoctonum of Linnaus.

Acoron. (From α, priv. and κοπου, weariness.) It signifies originally whatever is a remedy against weariness, and is used in this sense by Hippocrates. Apl. viii. lib. ii. But in time, the word was applied to

certain ointments.

Acora. According to Galen and Paulus Ægineta, the Acopa Pharmaca are remedies for indispositions of body which are caused by long or vehement motion. So are medicines against lassitudes.

Acor. Acidity. It is sometimes used to express that sourness in the stomach contracted by indigestion, and from whence flatulencies and acid belching arise.

ACORDINA. An obsolete term for Indian

tutty.

Aconta. (From a, priv. and rogew to satiate.) Insatiability. In Hippocrates, it means a good appetite and digestion.

Acorites vinum. (From acopou, galangal.) A wine mentioned by Dioscorides, made with galangal, liquorice, &c. infused

ACORN. The fruit of the oak. Acorns were the food of the first ages; but when corn was cultivated, acorns were neglected. They are of little use with us, except for fattening hogs and other cattle and poultry. Among the Spaniards, the acorn, or glans iberica, is said to have long remained a delicacy, and to have been served up in the form of a dessert. In dearths, acorns have been sometimes dried, ground into meal, and baked as bread. Bartholin relates that they are used in Norway for this purpose. The inhabitants of Chio held out a long siege without any other food; and in a time of scarcity in France, A. D. 1709, they recurred to this food. But they are said to be hard of digestion, and to occasion headaches, flatulency, and colics In Smoland, however, many instances occur, in which they have supplied a salutary and nutritious food. With this view they are previously boiled in water and separated from their husks, and then dried and ground; and the powder is

mixed with about one half, or one third of corn flour. A decoction of acorns is reputed good against dysenteries and colics; and a pessary of them is said to be useful in immoderate fluxes of the menses. Some have recommended the powder of acorns in intermitent fever; and in Brunswick, they mix it with warm ale, and administer it for producing a sweat in cases of erysipelas. Acorns roasted and bruised have restrained a violent diarrbæa. For other medical uses to which they have been applied, see Murray's Appar. Medic. vol. i.

page 100.

From some late reports of the Academy of Sciences, at Petersburgh, we learn that acoms are the best substitute to coffee that has been hitherto known. To communicate to them the oily properties of coffee, the following process is recommended. When the acoms have been toasted brown, add fresh butter in small pieces to them, while hot in the ladle, and stir them with care, or cover the ladle and shake it, that the whole may be well mixed. The acoms of the Holm oak are formed at Venice into cups about one inch and an half in diameter, and somewhat less in depth. They are used for dressing leather and instead of galls for dyeing woollen cloth black.

Acortinus. A lopin.

ACORUS. (Anopop, from nopn, the pupil; because it was esteemed good for disorders of the eyes.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Digynia. Sweet-flag. Sweet-rush.

Aconus calamus. The systematic name for the calamus aromaticus. See Calamus aromaticus.

· Aconus palustris. See Iris palustris. Aconus venus. See Calamus aromaticus.

Acorus vulgaris. See Iris palustris.
Acos. (From amount, to heal.) A remedy or cure.

Acosmia. (From a, neg. and noopnos, beautiful.) Baldness; ill health; irregularity, particularly of the critical days of fevers.

Acoste. (From axorn, barley.) An ancient food made of barley.

ACOUSTICA. (Acoustica, sc. medicamenta; axoughx from axough to hear.) Remedies which are employed with a view to restore the sense of hearing, when wanting or diminished. No internal remedies of this kind are known to produce any uniform effect.

Acoustic nerves. See Auditory nerves.

Acoustic duct. The external pussage of the ear.

ACOUSTICS. That branch of general science which treats on the origin, propagation, and perception of sound.

Acna. (Arab.) Acrai nymphomania. Ex.

cessive venercal appetite. The time of incustruation.

Acraela. (From a, priv. and apares, strength.) Acrasia. Acratua, Debility, or impotence, from relaxation or lost tone of the parts. Hippocrates.

ACRAIPALA. (From a, neg. and apairtakna, surfeit.) Acrapalos. Remedies for the ef-

fects of a debauch.

ACRATISMA. (From angalov, unmixed wine.) A breakfast among the old Greeks, consisting of a morsel of bread, soaked in pure unmixed wine. The derivation of this word is the same as Acrasia, because the wine used on this occasion was not mixed with water.

ACHATOMELI. (From expelor, pure wine; and ushi, honcy.) Mulsum, or wine mixed with honey.

ACRE. (From angos, extreme.) The ex-

tremity of the nose

Achea. (From angos, extreme.) Acroteria. The extremities, i. e. the legs, arms, nose, and cars.

ACREPALOS. See Acraipala.

ACREBEIA. (From axpiens, accurate.) An exact and accurate description and diag nosis, or distinction of diseases.

ACRID (Acris.) A term employed in medicine to express a taste, the characteristic of which is pungency joined with heat.

ACRIMONY. (Acrimonia, from acris, acrid.) This term is used to express a quality in substances by which they irritate, corrode, or dissolve others. It has been supposed until very lately, there were acid and alkaline acrimonics in the blood, which produced certain diseases; and although the humoral pathology is nearly exploded, the term venereal acrimony and some others are still and must be retained.

Acris. Any fractured extremity.

Acrisia. (From a, priv. and a zwa, to judge or separate.) A turbulent state of a disease, which will scarcely suffer any judgment to be formed thereof.

ACRITUS. (From a, neg. and xewa, to judge.) Disease without regular crisis, the event of which is hazardons to judge.

ACROBYSTIA. (From akgos, extreme, and Gra, to cover.) The extremity of the

prepuce.

Acrochetria. (From angos, extreme, and xug a hand.) An exercise among the an-Probably a species of wrestling, where they only held by the hands.

Acrochetresis. (From augos, extreme, and xug, a hand.) Gorræus says, it signifies the arm from the elbow to the ends of the fingers; xug signifying the arm, from

the scapula to the fingers' end.

Acrochondon. (From axeos, extreme, and xogon, a string.) Galen describes it as a round excrescence on the skin, with a slender base; and that it hath its name because of its situation on the surface of the skin. The Greeks call that excrescence an achrochordon, where something hard concretes under the skin, which is rather rough, of the same colour as the skin, slender at the base, and broader above. Their size rarely exceeds that of a bean.

Acrocolia. (From augos, extreme, and xanov, a limb.) These are the extremities of animals, which are used in food, as the feet of calves, swine, sheep, oxen, or lambs, and of the broths of which, jellies are frequently made. Castellus from Budæus adds, that the internal parts of animals are also called by this name; in English giblets.

AcunoLenion. Castellus says it is the same as Olicranon

ACROMANIA. (From angos, extreme, and Total or incurable madmadness.) ness.

Acromion. (From angor, extremity, and apos, the shoulder.) A process of the scapula or shoulder-blade. See Scapula.

ACROMPHALIUM. (Angompanor, from angos, extreme, and ομφαλος, the navel.) Acromphaton. The tip of the navel.

ACROMPHALON. See Acromphalium.

Acronia. (From argor, the extremity.) The amputation of any extremity, as a finger or toe.

Acropathos. (From angos, extreme, and audos, a disease.) Acropathus. It signifies literally a disease at the top or superior part. Hippocrates in his treatise D. Superfectatione applies it to the internal orifice of the uterus; and in Prædict. lib. ii. to cancers, which appear on the surface of the body.

ACROPATHUS See Acropathos.

Acrops .. (Fr in angov, the extremity, and of, the voice.) Imperfect articulation, from a fault in the torque.

ACROPOSTRIA (From angos, extreme, and woodn, the prepuce.) The extremity of the prepuce; or that part which is cut off in circumcision.

Acropsiton. (From exgos, extreme, and twos, naked.) The extremity of the de-

nuded glans penis.

Acrospelos (From augo, the extremity, and assoc, black) Acrospelus. The bromus Dioscoridis, or wild oat grass; so called because its ears, or tops, are often of a blackish colour.

Achospelus. See Acrospelos.

ACROTERIA. (From angos, extreme.) The extreme parts of the body, as the hands, feet, nose, &c.

(From angwingia, ex-Acroteriasmus. tremities, and this from axgos, summus.)

The amputation of an extremity.

ACROTHEMION. (From angos, extreme, and Dopos, thyme.) Acrothymia. Acrothy. mium. A sort of wart, described by Celsus, as hard, rough, with a narrow basis, and broad top; the top is of the colour of

thyme; it easily splits and bleeds. This tumour is also called Thymus.

ACTEA. (From aya, to break.) Acte. The elder-tree, so called from its being ea-

sily broken. See Sambucus.
ACTINE. The herb Bunias or Napus.

ACTINOBOLISMUS (From andia, a ray, and βαλλω, to cast out.) Irradiation. It is applied to the spirits, conveying the inclinations of the mind to the body: it is also called Diradiatio.

ACTION (From ago, to act.) Any fa-culty, power, or function of the body, which, by physiologists are usually divided into vital, animal, or natural. The vital into vital, animal, or natural. functions, or actions, are those which are absolutely necessary to life, and without which animals cannot exist; as the action of the heart, lungs, and arteries. The natural functions are those which are instrumental in repairing the several losses which the body sustains: digestion, and the formation of chyle, &c fall under this head. The animal actions are those which we perform at will, as muscular motion, and all the voluntary motions of the body. Each part of the body is also said to have an action peculiar to itself.

A purging water ACTON WATER. procured from Acton, a village near London, where is a well that affords it. This don, where is a weil that affords it. is one of the strongest purging waters near London: and has been drank in the quantity of from one to three pints in a morning, against scorbutic and cutaneous affections. This medical spring is no longer resorted

to by the public.

ACTUAL. This word is applied to any thing endued with a property or virtue which acts by an immediate power inherent in it: it is the reverse of potential; thus, a red-hot iron or fire is called an actual cautery, in contradistinction from caustics, which are called potential cauteries. Boiling water is actually hot; brandy, producing heat in the body, is potentially hot, though of itself cold.

Actuation. (From ago, to act.) That change wrought on a medicine, or any thing taken into the body, by the vital heat, which is necessary, in order to make it act and have its effect, is called its actua-

tion.

Acuitas. Acrimony.

Acurrio. (From acuo, to sharpen.) The sharpening an acid medicine by an addition of something more acid; or in general, the increasing the force of any medicine, by an addition of something that hath the same sort of operation in a greater de-

(From α, neg. and κυλοω, to Aculon. roll round: so called because its fruit is not involved in a cup, or sheath, like others.) Acules The fruit or acorn of the ilex, or

scarlet oak.

Aculos. See Aculon.

Acumen. A point. The extremity of a

ACUPUNCTURA. (From acus, a needle, and punctura, a prick.) Acupuncture; bleeding performed by making many small punctures.

Plumbum, or lead. ACUREB.

Acuron. (From a, neg. and xuga, to happen.) A name of the Ausma: so called because it produces no effect if taken internally.

Acuspastoris. A name of the Scandix anthriscus, the shepherd's needle, or Ve-

nus's comb. See Scandix.

A disease Morbus acutus. ACUTE. which is attended with violent symptoms, terminates in a few days, and is attended with danger. It is opposed to a chronic disease, which is slow in its progress, and not so generally dangerous.

Acutenaculum, (From acus, a needle, and tenaculum, a handle.) Heister calls the portaiguille by this name. It is the handle for a needle, to make it penetrate

easily when st ching a wound.

Acrisis. (From a, neg. and xva, to conceive.) In Vogel's nosology it signifies a defect of conception, or barrenness in women.

Acreus. (From a, priv and augos, authority; so named from its little note in medicine.) The Arnica montana, or German

leopard's-bane See Arnica.

ADEMONIA. (From a, priv. and Saspar, a genius or fortune.) The restlessness and anxiety felt in acute tevers.

ADAIGES. Sal-animoniac, or muriate of ammonia. See Murias ammoniæ.

ADAMAS. (From a, neg. and Sauaw, to conquer; as not being easily broken.) The adamant or diamond, the most precious of all stones, and which was formerly supposed to contain extraordinary cordial vir-

Adamitum. ADAMITTA. A hard stone in the bladder.

Adam's Apple. See Pomun Adami.

ADAM'S NEEDLE. Yucca gloriosa of Lin-næus. The roots of this plant are thick and tuberous, and are used by the Indians instead of bread; being first reduced into a coarse meal. This, however, is only in times of scarcity.

ADARCES. (From a, neg. and Segne, to see.) A saltish concretion found about the reeds and grass in marshy grounds in Galatia, and so called because it hides them. It is used to clear the skin with, in leprosies, tetters, &c. Dr. Plott gives an account of this production in his Natural History of Oxfordshire. It was formerly in repute for cleansing the skin from freckles.

ADARIGES. An ammoniacal salt.

Adarneck. Auripigmentum, or orpi-

Adarticulation See Arthrodia.

ADDEPHAGIA. (From αδων, abundantly, and φαγων, to eat.) Insatiability. A voracious appetite. See Bulimia.

A term formerly employed as synonymous with epiphysis, but now only applied to two portions of sutures of the skull. See

Lambdoidal and Squamous Sutures.

ADDITAMENTUM COLL. See Appendicu-

la caci vermiformis.

ADDUCTOR. (From ad, and duco, to draw.) A drawer or contractor. A name given to several muscles, whose office is to bring forwards or draw together those parts of the body to which they are annexed.

ADDUCTOR BREVIS FEMORIS. Adductor femoris secundus of Douglas. Triceles secundus of Winslow. A muscle, which, with the adductor longus and magnus femoris forms the triceles adductor femoris. It is situated on the posterior part of the thigh, arising tendinous from the os pubis near its joining with the opposite os pubis near its

Anduetor femoris primus. See Adductor longus femoris.

Adductor Femoris Secundus. See Adductor brevis femoris.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS TERTIUS. See Adductor magnus femoris.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS QUARTUS. See Ad-

ductor magnus femoris.

ADDUCTOR INDICIS PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the forc-toe, which arises, tendinous and fleshy, by two origins, from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe, from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, and from the os cune-iforme internum. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the fore-toe. Its use is to pull the fore-toe inwards from the rest of the small toes.

ADDUCTOR LONGUS FEMORIS. Adductor femoris primus of Douglas. Triceps minus of Winslow. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the thigh, which, with the adductor brevis, and magnus femoris, forms the triceps adductor femoris. It arises by a pretty strong roundish tendon, from the upper and interior part of the os pubis, and ligament of its synchondrosis, on the inner side of the pectineus, and is inserted along the middle part of the linea aspera. See Triceps adductor femoris.

ADDUCTOR MAGNUS FEMORIS.
Adductor femoris tertus et quartns of Douglas. Triceps magnus of Winslow. A muscle which, with the adductor brevis femoris, and the adductor longus femoris, forms the Triceps adductor femoris. It arises from the symphysis pubis, and all along the flat edge of the thyroid foramen, from whence it goes to be inserted into the linea aspera throughout its whole length. See Triceps adductor femoris.

Triceps adductor femoris.

ADDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS.
An internal interosseous muscle of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the little-toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the little-toe. Its use is to pull the little-toe inwards.

ADDUCTOR OCULI. See Rectus internus oculi.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS. See Adductor polli-

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS MANUS. Adductor pollicis. Adductor ad minimum digitum. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, which arises, fleshy, from almost the whole length of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle finger; from thence its fibres are collected together. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inner part of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to pull the thumb towards the fingers.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. Antithenar of Winslow. A muscle of the great toe, situated on the foot: it arises, by along thin tendon, from the os ealeis, from the os cuboides, from the os cuboides, from the root of the metatarsal bone of the second toe. It is inserted into the external os sesamoideum, and root of the metatarsal bone of the great toe. Its use is to bring this toe nearer to the rest.

ADDUCTOR PROSTATE. A name given by Sanctorini to a muscle which he also calls Levater prostatie, and which Winslow calls Prostaticus superior. Albinus, from its office, had very properly called it compressor prosetatie. See Compressor prostatie.

ADDUCTOR TERTH DIGITI PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the foot that arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the roots of the metatarsal bones of the third and little toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the outside of the root of the first joint of the third toe. Its use is to pull the third toe outward.

ADEC. Sour milk, or butter-milk.

ADECIA. See . Idectos.

Anecros. Adecia. (From α, priv. and δακτω, to bite.) An epithet of those medicanes which relieve from pain, by removing the uneasy situation caused by the stimulus of acrimonious medicines.

ADELPHIA, ('Aδελφια, a relation.) Hippoerates calls diseases by this name that

resemble each other.

ADEMONIA. (From a, priv. and Saucar, a genus or divinity or fortune.) Hippocrates uses this word for uneasiness, restlessness,

or anxiety felt in acute diseases, and some hysteric fits.

ADEN. (Ad nv, a gland.) A gland.

bubo. See Gland.

ADENIFORM. (Adeniformis; from as nv, a gland, and forma, resemblance.) Glandiform, or resembling a gland. A term sometimes applied to the prostate gland.

ADENDENTIS. An epithet applied to ulcers which eat and destroy the glands.

ADENOGRAPHY (From adni, a gland, and reapw, to write.) A treatise on the glands. See Gland.

ADENOIDES. Glandiform: resembling a An epithet applied also to the

prostate gland.

ADENOLOGY. (From as nv, a gland, and xoyos, a treatise.) The doctrine of the glands. See Gland.

ADENOUS ABSCESS. (Abscessus adenosus : from as m, a gland.) A hard glandular ab-

scess, which suppurates slowly.

ADEPHAGIA. (From adny, abundantly, and payer, to eat.) Insatiate appetite. See Bulimia.

ADEPS. Fat. An oily secretion from the blood into the cells of the cellular membrane. See Fat.

ADEPS ANSERINUS. Goose-grease.

ADEPS SUILLÆ. Hog's-lard.

ADEPTA MEDICINA. So Paracelsus calls that which treats of the diseases that are contracted by celestial operations, or communicated from heaven.

ADEPTA PHILOSOPHIA. Adept philosophy. It is that philosophy, whose end is the transmutation of minerals, and a uni-

versal remedy.

ADEPTS. (From adipiscor, to obtain.) Skilful alchymists. Such are called so as pretend to some extraordinary skill in chymistry; but these have too often proved either enthusiasts or impostors. The professors of the Adepta Philosophia are also called Adepts.

A blast: a kind of erysipe-ADFLATUS.

ADHATODA, The Malabar nut-tree, which is a species of Justicia. It is used in India for expelling the dead fætus in an abortion, which it is said is the meaning of the word in the Zeylandic language.

ADHÆSION. (From adhæreo, to stick to.) The growing together of parts.

ADHÆSIVE INFLAMMATION. term lately introduced into Surgery, to express that species of inflammation which terminates by an adhæsion of the inflamed surfaces.

ADDAESIVE PLASTER. A plaster made of common litharge plaster and resin, is so called because it is used for its adhesive properties. See Emplastrum resinæ.

ADIACHYTOS. (From a, neg. and Suzzum, to diffuse, scatter, or be profuse.) Decent in point of dress. Hippocrates thinks the dress of a fop derogatory from the physician; though thereby he hides his ignorance, and obtains the good opinion of his patients.

(as iavior, ADIANTHUM. Adiantum. from a, neg. and Javo, to grow wet; so called because its leaves are not easily made wet.) Maidenhair. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order, Filices.

ADIANTHUM CAPILLUS VENERIS. Maiden-hair. The leaves of this plant are somewhat sweet and austere to the palate. and possess mucifagmous qualities. rop, the syrop de capillaire is prepared from them, which is much esteemed in Orange-flower water and a pro-France. portion of honey, it is said, are usually added. It acts chiefly as a demulcent, sheathing the inflamed sides of the glottis.

ADIANTHUM AUREUM. The Polytrichum commune of Linnæus. It possesses, in an inferior degree, astringent virtues : and was formerly given in diseases of the lungs, and

calculous complaints.

A term which implies ADIAPHOROUS. the same with neutral; and is particularly used of some spirits and salts, which are neither of an acid nor alkaline

ADIALNEUSTIA. (From the privative particle a, and διαπνεω, perspiro. minution or obstruction of natural perspiration, and that in which the ancients chiefly placed the cause of fevers.

ADIARRHŒA. (From a, priv. and Siappea, to flow out or through.) A total suppression of all the necessary evacuations from

the bowels.

ADIATHOROSUS. A spirit distilled from tartar.

ADIBAT. Mercury.

ADICE. (Adian.) A nettle. ADIPOCIRE. (From adeps, fat, and cera, wax.) A substance that resembles soap, formed by a conversion of animal matter, placed under certain circumstances. Whole bodies have been found converted into this substance.

ADIPOSE MEMBRANE. (Membrana adiposa, from adeps, fat.) The fat collected in the cells of the cellular membrane.

So the Greeks called medi-ADIPSAN. cines, &c. which abate thirst. Hippocrates

applied this word to oxymel.

(From a, neg. and Sita, ADIPSIA. thirst.) A want of thirst. A genns of disease in the class locales, and oader dysorexia of Cullen's Nosology. It is mostly symptomatic of some disease of the brain.

Appross. So the Greeks called the Egyptian palm-tree, whose fruit is said to be the The tree is called adipsos, Myrobalans. because its fruit quencheth thirst. Theophrastus calls this tree Balanos. is also a name for liquorice.

ADIRIVE. Ammoniacal salt.

ADJUTORIUM. (From ad and juvo, to help.) A name of the humerus, from its usefulness in lifting up the fore-arm.

ADJUVANTIA. Whatever assists in obvi-

ating disease.

ADNATA TUNICA. (Adnata, from adnascor, to grow to.) Albuginea oculi. Tunica albuginea oculi. This membrane is mostly confounded with the conjunctiva. It is, however, thus formed: five of the muscles which move the eye, take their origin from the bottom of the orbit, and the sixth arises from the edge of it; they are all inserted, by a tendinous expansion, into the anterior part of the tunica sclerotica; which expansion gives the whiteness peculiar to the fore-part of the eye. It lies betwixt the sclerotica and conjunctiva.

ADOC. Milk.

ADONION. (From Adams the youth from whose blood it was feigned to have sprung.)

. Idonium. Southernwood.

ADOPTER. Tubus intermedius. A chymical instrument used to combine retorts to the cucurbits or matrasses in distillation, with retorts instead of receivers.

Apon. A sort of corn, called also spelta. Avos. Water in which red hot iron is ex-

tinguished.

An pondus omnium. The weight of the whole. These words are inserted in pharmaceutical preparations, or prescriptions, when the last ingredient ought to weigh as much as all the others put together.

ADRA RHIZA. Blaucard says the root of

the Aristolochia is thus named.

ADRACHNE. The strawberry bay-tree. A species of Arbutus.

ADRAM. Fossil salt.

ADRARAGI. (Indian.) Garden-saffron. Adroboton. (From aδgos large, and βωλος, a globe, bole, or mass.) Indian bdel-

lium, which is coarser than the Arabian.

Adstriction. Costiveness.

ADSTRINGENTS. See Astringents.

Augstion. An inflammation about the brain, and its membrane, with a hollowness of the eyes, a pale colour, and a dry

In Surgery, adustion signifies the same as cauterization, and means the application of any substance to the animal body, which acts like fire. The ancient surgcons, especially the Arabians, were remarkably fond of having recourse to adustion in local diseases: but the use of actual heat is very rarely admitted by the moderns.

ADVENTITIOUS. Any thing that accidentally, and not in the common course of natural causes, happens to make a part of another; as the glands in strumous cases are said to be adventitions glands, in distinction from those which are naturally produced. It is also used in opposition to hereditary; thus gout and scrofula are sometimes hereditary, and very often adventitious, they having never before been known in the

family.

Abanga. The palm of the island Any. Abanga. The palm of the island of St. Thomas, from which is prepared Thernel's restorative.

ADYNAMIA. (Aδυναμια: from a, priv. and Sovapus, power.) A defect of vital power.
ADYNAMIE. The second order of the

class neuroses of Cullen's Nosology; it comprehends snycope, dyspepsia, and hypochondriasis.

ADYNAMON (From a, neg. and Suvapis, strength.) Adynamum. Among ancient physicians, it signified a kind of weak factitious wine, prepared from must, boiled down with water; to be given to patients to whom pure or genuine wine might be hurtful.

Enoia. (From αιδως, modesty; or from a, neg. and es a, to see; as not being decent to the sight.) The pudenda, or parts

of generation.

EDOPSOPHIA. (From aid oix, pudenda, n ψοφεω, to break wind.) A term used by Sauvages and Sagar, to signify a flatus from the bladder, or from the womb, making its escape through the vagina.

ÆGAGROPILUS. (From arangos, a wild

goat, and pila, a ball.) Ægagrophila.

1. A ball found in the stomach of deer, goats, hogs, horned cattle, as cows, &c. It consists of hairs which they have swallowed from licking themselves. They are of different degrees of hardness, but have no medicinal virtues. Some rank these balls among the Bezoars. Hieronymus Velschius wrote a treatise on the virtues of this.

2. A species of conferva found in Wallenfenmoor, from its resembling these concre-

tions, is also so named.

ÆGIAS. A white speck on the pupil of the eye, which occasions a dimness of sight.

Ægines, Aglia. A disorder of the eyes mentioned by Hippocrates. Fæsius thinks the disease consists of small cicatrices in the eye, caused by an afflux of corrosive humours upon the part. But in one passage of Hippocrates, Fœsius says it signifies small white concretions of humours which stick upon the pupil, and obscure the

Ægipion. A collyrium or ointment for inflammations and defluxions of the eyes.

ÆGILOPS. Wild fescue grass. This plant is called agilops from its supposed virtue in curing the disorder named Ægylops. It is a species of Bromus in the Linnaan sys-

ÆGINETIA. Malabrian broom rape. A species of Orobanche.

Ægis. Achlys. A film on the eye.

ÆGOCERAS. (From aig, a goat, and Regas, a horn: so called, because the pods were supposed to resemble the horns of a goat.) Fænugreek. See Trigonella Fænum-græcum, and Bouceras.

ÆGOLETHRON. (From αιξ, a goat, and ολεβρος, destruction; so named from the opinion of its being poisonous to goats.) Tournefort says it is the Chanarododendron; now the Azelea pontica of Linnaus.

ÆGONYCHON. (From  $at\xi$ , a goat, and  $avv\xi$ , a hoof; because of the hardness of the seed.) Cromwell. See *Lithospermum*.

ÆGOPODIUM. (From  $a\xi$ , a goat, and  $x^{\xi}$ , a foot; from its supposed resemblance to a goat's foot.) Goatweed. A genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Pen-

tandria Order, Digynia.

ÆGOPODIUM. PODAGRAHIA. (Podagraria, from its use in curing the podagra, or gout.) Goatweed. This plant is sedative, and was formerly applied to mitigate pains of gout, and to relieve piles, but not now employed. In its earlier state it is tender and esculent.

Ægoprosofon. (From αιξ, a goat, and περοσωπον, a face; so called because goats are subject to defects in the eyes, or from having in it some ingredients named after the goat.) A name of a lotion for the eyes, when inflamed.

ÆGYLOPS. From α<sub>i</sub>ξ, a goat, and αψ, an eye.) A disease so named from the supposition that goats were very subject to it.

The term means a sore just under the inner angle of the eye. The best modern surgeons seem to consider the ægylops only as a stage of the fistula lachrymalis. Paulus Ægineta calls it anchylops, before it bursts, and ægilops after. When the skin covering the lachrymal sac has been for some time inflamed, or subject to frequent returning inflamed, or subject to frequent returning inflammations, it most commonly happens that the puncta lachrymalia are affected by it; and the fluid, not having an opportunity of passing off by them, distends the inflamed skin, so that at last it becomes sloughy, and bursts externally. This is that state of the disease which is called perfect aigylops, or ægylops.

ÆGYPTIA MUSCATA. See Hibiscus abel-

moscnus.

ÆGYPTIACUM. A name given to different unguents of the detergent or corrosive kind. We meet with a black, a red, a white, a simple, a compound, and a magistral Ægyptiacum. The simple Ægyptiacum, which is that usually found in our shops, is a composition of verdigris, vinegar, and honey, boiled to a consistence. It is usually supposed to take its name from its dark colour, wherein it resembles that of the natives of Egypt. It is improperly called an unguent, as there is no oil, or rather fat, in it.

EGYPTIUM PHARMACUM AD AURES. Ætius speaks of this as excellent for deterging fætid ulcers of the ears, which he says it cures, though the patient were born with a

tnem.

Æigluces. (From αει, always and γλυκυς, sweet.) Λ sweetish wine, or must.

ÆIPATHEIA. (From αυ, always, and σπαθυς, a disease.) Any disease of long duration.

ÆNEA. (From as, brass, so called because it was formerly made of brass.) A catheter.

Æon. The spinal marrow.

ÆONESIS. Fermentation. Sprinkling of the whole body.

Æonion. The sedum majus, or common house-leek

ÆORA. (From αιωρεω, to lift up, to suspend on high.) Exercise without muscular action; as swinging. A species of exercise used by the aucients, and of which Aëtius gives the following account. Gestation, while it exercises the body, the body seems to be at rest. Of the motion there are several kinds. First, swinging in a hammock, which, at the decline of a fever, is beneficial. Secondly, being carried in a litter, in which the patient either sits, or lies along. It is useful when the gout, stone, or such other disorder, attends, as does not admit of violent motions. Thirdly, riding in a chariot, which is of service in most chronical disorders; especially before the more violent exercises can be admitted. Fourthly, sailing in a ship, or boat. This produces various effects, according to the different agitation of the waters, and, in many tedious chronical disorders, is efficacious beyond what is observed from the most skilful administration of drugs. These are instances of a passive exercise.

Æque. Equally. The same as ana. AER. The fluid which surrounds the

globe. See Air and Atmosphere.

ÆPOS An excrescence, or protuberance.

Æra. Darnel, or lolium.

ÆRITIS The Anagallis, or pimpernell. AEROLOGIA. (Απρολογια: from ang, the air, and λογος, a discourse.) Aerologice. Aerology. That part of medicine which treats of the nature and properties of air.

AEHOLOGICE. See Aerologia.

Aeromeli Honey, dew; also a name for manna.

Aerophobi. (From ang, air, and φεως, fear) According to Calius Aurelianus, some phrenetic patients are afraid of a lucid and others of an obscure air: and these he calls aerophobi.

AEROPHOBIA. Fear of air, or wind. A symptom of the phrenitis; also a name

of Hydrophobia.

AEROSIS. The aerial vital spirit of the ancients.

ÆROSSUS LAPIS. So Pliny calls the Lapis Calaminaris, upon the supposition that it was a copper ore.

Enuca. Verdigris.

ÆRUGO. (From æs, copper.) Azagor.

1. The rust of any metal, particularly of copper.

2. Verdigrise. See Verdigrise.

ERUGO PREPARATA. See Subacetas cupri

ÆSCHROMYTHESIS. The obscene lan-

guage of the delirions.

ASCULUS. (Esculus, from esca, food.)
Horse-chestnut. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaun system. Class, Heptandria. Order, Monogynia.

The sys-ÆSCULUS HIPPOCASTANUM. tem tic name for the hippocastanum. See

Hippocastanum.

ÆSECAVUM. Auricalcum, or briss.

ÆSTATES. Freckles in the face; sunburnings.

ESTPHARA. Incineration, or burning of the flesh, or any other part of the body.

ESTUARIUM. A stove for conveying heat to all parts of the body at once. kind of vapour bath. A vapour bath Ambrose Parey calls an instrument thus, which he describes for conveying heat to any particular part. Palmarius, de morbis, contagiosis, gives a contrivance under this name, for sweating the whole body.

ÆSTUATIO. The boiling up, or rather the fermenting of liquors when mixed.

ÆSTUS VOLATICUS. (From astus, heat, and volo, to fly.) According to Vogel, synonymous with phlogosis. Sudden heat, or scorching, which soon goes off, but which for a time reddens the face.

(Aithing, a supposed fine subtile ÆTHER. Liquor athereus. Ether. Æther sulphuricus, nitrosus, muriaticus, according to the acid from which it is formed combined with alcohol. A volatile liquor, obtained, by distillation, form a mixture of al-

cohol and a concentrated acid.

The medical properties of ather, when taken internally, are antispasmodic, cordial, and stimulant. Against nervous and ty-phoid fevers, all nervous diseases, but especially tetanic affections, soporose diseases from debility, asthma, palsy, spasmodic colic, hysteria, &c. it always enjoys some share of reputation. Regular practitioners seldom give so much as empirics, who sometimes venture upon large quantities, with incredible benefit. Applied externally, it is of service in the headach, toothach, and other painful affections. Thus employed, it is capable of producing two very opposite effects, according to its management; for, if it be prevented from evaporating, by covering the place to which it is applied closely with the hand, it proves a powerful stimulant and rubefacient, and excites a sensation of burning heat, as is the case with solutions of camphor in alcohol, or turpentine. In this way it is frequently used for removing pains in the head or teeth. On the contrary, if it be dropped on any part of the body, exposed freely to the air, its rapid evaporation produces an intense degree of cold; and as this is attended with a proportional diminution of bulk in the part

applied, in this way it has frequently contributed to the reduction of the intestine, in cases of strangulated hernia.

ÆTHEREA HERBA. The Eryngium was

so called.

ÆTHEREAL OIL. An animal or vegetable oil, highly rectified, partaking, as it were, of the nature of ather.

ÆTHER SULPHURICUS. Naptha vitri-Æther Vitriolicus. Sulphuric ether.

Take of rectified spirit,

Sulphuric acid, of each, by weight, a pound and a half.

Pour the spirit into a glass retort, then gradually add to it the acid, shaking it after each addition, and taking care that their temperature, during the mixture, may not exceed 120 degrees. Immerse the retort very cautionsly to a sand bath, previously heated to 200 degrees, so that the liquor may boil as speedily as possible, and let the ather pass over into a tubulated receiver. to the tubulure of which another receiver is applied, and kept coid by immersion in ice. or water. Distil the liquor until a heavier part also begins to pass over, and appear under the ather in the bottom of the re-To the liquor which remains in the retort, pour on twelve fluidounces more of alcohol, and repeat the distillation in the same manner.

It is mostly employed as an excitant, nervine, antispasmodic, and dirretic, in cases of spasms, cardialgia, enteralgia, fevers, liysteria, cephalagia, and spasmodic asthma. The dose is from gt. xx to Zij. Externally it cures toothach, and violent pains in the

head. See Ether.

ÆTHER RECTIFICATUS. Æther vitriolicus.

Take of sulphuric ather, fourteen fluid-

Fused potash, half an ounce,

Distilled water, two fluidonnces.

Dissolve the potash in the water, and add thereto the æther, shaking them well together, until they are mixed. Lastly, by means of a temperature about 200 degrees, distil over twelve onnces of rectified ather, from a large retort into a cooled receiver.

Sulphuric ather is impregnated with some sulphuric acid, as is evident in the smell, and with some ætherial oil: and these require a second process to separate them. Potash unites to the acid, and requires to be added in a state of solution, and in sufficient quantities, for the purpose of neutralizing it; and it also forms a soap with the oil. It is advantageous also to use a less quantity of water than exists in the ordinary solution of potash: and therefore the above directions are adopted in the last London Pharmacopæia. For its virtues, see Æther.

ETHOPS. A term applied formerly to several preparations, because the powder becomes of a black colour, like the skin of an Æthiopian.

ÆTHIOPS ANTIMONAILIS. A preparation of antimony and mercury, once in high repute, and still employed by some practi-tioners in cutaneous diseases. A few grains are to be given at first, and the quantity increased as the stomach can bear it.

ÆTHIOPS MARTIALIS. A preparation of iron, formerly in repute, but now neglected.

ÆTHIOPS MINERAL. The substance heretofore known by this name, is called, by the London College, Hydrargyrus cum sulphure; by the Edinburgh, Sulphuretum Hydrargyri nigrum; and by that of Dublin, Hydrargyrum sulphuratum nigrum.

Athmoid artery. See Ethmoid artery.

Athmoid bone. See Ethmoid bone.

ÆTHNA. A chymical furnace.

ÆTHOCES. Ætholices. Superficial pustules in the skin, raised by heat, as boils, fiery pustules.

(From aidsoa, beggarly.) ÆTHUSA. The name of a genus of plants of the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

ÆTHUSA MEUM. The systematic name of the meum of the Pharmacopæias. Meum Athamanticum.

ÆTHYA. A mortar.

Eagle veins. ÆTIOI PHLEBES. veins which pass through the temples to the head, were so called formerly by Rufus Ephesius.

ÆΤΙΟLOGY. (Αιτιολογια: from ailia, a cause, and λογος, a discourse.) The doctrine of the causes of diseases.

ÆTOCION. Ætolium. The granume nidium.

ÆTONYCHIUM. See Lithospermum.

AFFECTION. (This is expressed in Greek by walos: hence pathema, passio.) This term indicates any existing disorder of the whole body, or a part of it, as hysterics, colic, leprosy. Thus by adding a descriptive epithet to the term affection, most distempers may be expressed. We say febrile affection, cutaneous affection, &c. using the word affection synonymously with disease.

AFFINITY. (Affinitas, a proximity of relationship.) The term affinity is used indifferently with attraction. See Attrac-

Affinity of Aggregation. See Attraction of Aggregation.

Affinity of Composition. See Attraction,

chymical.

Affinity, compound. When three or more bodies, on account of their mutual affinity, unite and form one homogeneous body, then the affinity is termed compound affinity or attraction: thus, if to a solution of sugar and water be added spirits of wine, these three bodies will form a homogeneous liquid by compound affinity. See Attraction.

. Affinity, double. Double elective attraction. When two bodies, each consisting of

two elementary parts, come into contact, and are decomposed, so that their elements become reciprocally united, and produce two new compound bodies, the decomposition is then termed, decomposition by double affinity: thus, if we add common salt, which consists of muriatic acid and soda, to nitrate of silver, which is composed of nitric acid and silver, these two bodies will be decompounded; for the nitric acid unites with the soda, and the silver with the muriatic acid, and thus may be obtained two new bodies. The common salt and nitrate of silver therefore mutually decompose each other by what is called double affinity. See Attraction.

Affinity, intermediate. Appropriate affinity. Affinity of an intermedium-is, when two substances of different kinds, that show to one another no component affinity, do, by the assistance of a third, combine, and unite into a homogeneous whole: thus, oil and water are substances of different kinds, which, by means of alkali, combine and unite into an homogeneous substance: hence the theory of lixiviums, of washing, &c.

See Attraction.

Affinity, quiescent. Mr. Kirwan employs the term Quiescent affinity to mark that, by virtue of which, the principle of each compound of two bodies, decomposed by double affinity, adhere to each other; and Divellert affinity, to distinguish that by which the principles of one body unite and change order with those of the other: thus sulphate of potash or vitriolated tartar is not completely decomposed by the nitric acid or by lime, when either of these principles is separately presented; but if the nitric acid be combined with lime, this nitrate of lime will decompose the sulphate of potash. In this last case the affinity of the sulphuric acid with the alkali is weakened by its affinity to the lime. This acid, therefore, is subject to two affinities, the one which retains it to the alkali, called quiescent, and the other which attracts it towards the lime, called divellent affinity.

Affinity, divellent. See Affinity quiescent. Affinity reciprocal. When a compound of two bodies is decomposed by a third; the separated principle being in its turn capable of decomposing the new combina-

tion.

Affinity, simple. Single elective Attraction. If a body consisting of two component parts, be decomposed on the approach of a third, which has a greater affinity with one of those component parts than with the other, then the decomposition is termed decomposition by simple affinity; for instance, if pure potash be added to a combination of mitric acid and lime, the union which existed between these two bodies will cease, because the potash combines with the nitric acid, and the lime being

disengaged is precipitated. The reason is, that the nitric acid has a greater affinity for the pure potash than for the lime, therefore it deserts the lime, to combine with the potash. When two bodies only enter into chymical union, the affinity, which was the cause of it, is also termed simple or single elective attraction; thus the solution of sugar and water is produced by simple affinity, because there are but two bodies. See Attraction.

Affion. Affium. An Arabic name for opium.

Afflatus. (From ad and flare, to blow.) A vapour or blast. A species of erysipelas, which attacks people suddenly, so named upon the erroneous supposition that it was produced by some unwholesome wind blowing on the part.

Affusio. Pouring a liquor upon something; but sometimes it means the same as

suffusio, a cataract.

After-birth. See Placenta.

AFFLIUM. An Arabic name for opium.

AGA CHETENSIUM. The small Spanish milk-thistle.

AGALACTATIO. See Agalactia.

AGALACTIA. (Ayananlia: from a, priv. and yana, milk.) Agalaxis, Agalactic. Agaluctatio. A defect of milk in childbirth.

AGALACTOS. (From α, priv. and γαλα, milk.) An epithet given to women who have no milk when they lie in.

AGALACTOS. See Agaluctia. AGALAXIS. See Agalactia.

AGALLOCHI VERI LIGNUM. See Lignum

AGALLUGE. Agallugum. A name of the agallochum or aromatic aloe.

Agaric. See Agaricus.

AGARACOIDES. A species of agaricus or fungus.

AGARICUS. (Ayaginos: from Agaria, a town in Asia; or from Agarus, a river in Sarmatia, now Malowouda.) Agaric. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order, Fungi.

AGARICUS CHINURGORUM. Agaricus quer-Fungus igniarius. Boletus igniarius. Agaric of the oak. Touchwood boletus. Female agaric. This fungus Boletus igniarius of Linnæus :- acaulis pulvinatus levis, poris tennissimus, has been much used by surgeons as an external styptic. Though still employed on the Continent, the surgeons in this country have not much confidence in it.

AGARICUS ALBUS. The plant known by this name in the pharmacopæias, is the Boletus laricis of Linnæus; so called from its being met with on old larch trees, in different parts of Europe. Several preparations, as troches, an extract, and pills, are ordered to be made with it in foreign pliarmacopæias, which are administered against phthisical complaints.

AGAILUGUM. See Agallugi.

AGARICUS CAMPESTRIS. See Mushroom.

AGARICUS CHATARELLUS. A species of fungus, esteemed a delicacy by the French. Broiled with salt and pepper, it has much the flavour of a roasted cockle.

AGARICUS CINNAMOMEUS. Brown Mushroom. A species of agaricus, of a pleasant When broiled, it gives a good

flavour.

AGARICUS DELICIOSUS. This fungus well seasoned and then broiled has the exact flavour of a roasted muscle. It is in season

in September.

AGARICUS MUSCARIUS. Bug Agaric, so called from its known virtue in destroying bugs. This reddish fungus is the Agaricus muscarius of Linnæns :- stipitatus, lamellis dimidiatis solitariis, stipite volvato, apice di-latato, basi ovato. The use of this vegeta-ble is not much known in this country. Haller relates that six persons of Lithuania perished at one time, by eating this kind of mushroom, and that in others it has caused delirium. It is employed externally to strumous, phagedenic, and fistulous ulcers, as an escharotic.

Agaricus piperatus. The plant thus named by Linnæus, is the pepper musliroom, also called pepper agaric. It is the Fungus piperatus albus, lacteo-succo turgens of Ray. Fungus albus acris. When freely taken, fatal consequences are related by several writers to have been the result. When this vegetable has even lost its acrid juice by drying, its caustic quality still

AGARICUS PRATENSIS. The Champignion of Hudson's Flora Anglica. This plant has but little smell, and is rather dry, yet when broiled and stewed, communicates a good flavour.

AGARICUS VIOLACEUS. Violet mushroom. This fungus requires much broiling, but when sufficiently done and seasoned, it is as delicious as an oyster. Hudson's bul-

bosus is only a variety of this.

AGE. The ancients reckoned six stages of life: pueritia, childhood, which is to the fifth year of our age ;-adolescentia, youth, reckoned to the eighteenth, and youth properly so called, to the twenty-fifth year;juventus, reckoned from the twenty-fifth to the thirty-fifth year ;-virilis atas, manhood, from the thirty-fifth to the fiftieth year;senectus, old age, from fifty to sixty ;-crepita ætus, decrepid age, which ends in death.

AGENESIA. (Azumora: from a, neg. and respect, to beget.) Impotency in man. A term employed by Vogel. It is synonymous with anaphrodisia and dyspermatismus.

Agen. The common earth or soil.

Ager NATURE. The wonib.

AGENATUS LAPIS. (Ageratus common.) A stone used by cobblers. It is ridiculously said to be discutient and gently astringent

If it possess any such virtues, it probably contains iron; a supposition countenanced by its being used in dyeing.

AGENATUM. (Apsgalov: from a, priv. and pages, senectus; never old, ever green; because its flowers preserve their beauty a long time) See Achillea agenatum.

long time) See Achillea ageratum.

AGES. (From αγms, wicked; so called because it is generally the instrument of wicked acts.) The palm or hollow of the hand.

AGEUSTIA. (From 2, neg. and γευμοαι, gusto, to taste.) Agheustia, Apoguestia,

Apogeusis.

A defect or loss of taste. Cullen ranks this as a genus of disease in the class locales and order dysesthesiae. The causes are fever or palsy, whence he forms two species: the latter he calls organic, arising from some affection in the membrane of the tongue, by which relishing things, or those which have some taste, are prevented from coming into contact with the nerves: the other atonic, arising without any affection of the tongue.

AGGLUTINANTIA. Adhesive medicines which heal by causing the parts to stick

together

AGGLUTINATIO. Agglutination. The adhesive union or sticking together of substances.

AGGLUTITIO. Obstruction in the œsophagus, or a difficulty in swallowing.

AGGREGATE GLANDS. (From aggrego, to assemble together.) An assemblage of glands, as those of the intestines.

Aggregation, affinity of. See Attraction.

AGHEUSTIA. See Ageustia.

Agis. The thigh or femur.

AGITATORIA.' Convulsive diseases, or those called clonic.

AGLACTATIO. Defect of milk.

AGLAXIS. See Ægides.

AGLIA. Aglium. A slining tubercle or pustule on the face. White specks on the eye.

AGMA. Agme. A fracture.

AGNACAL. A tree, which, according to Ray, grows about the isthmus of Darien, and resembles a pear-tree, whose fruit is a great provocative to venery.

AGNATA. See Adnata tunica.

AGNINA MEMBRANA. (From appros, a lamb, and membrana, a membrane.) Actius calls one of the membranes which involve the fætus by this name, which he derives from its tenderness. See Amnios.

AGNOIA. (From α, priv and γινωσκα, to know.) Forgetfulness; a symptomatic af-

fection in fevers.

AGNUS CASTUS. (From aprior, a lamb; so called from the down upon its surface, which resembles that upon a lamb's skin; and castus, because the chaste matrons, at the feasts of Ceres, strewed them upon their beds, and lay upon them.) The plant bear-

ing this name in the pharmacopæias is the Vitex agnus castus of Linnæus:—foliis digitatis, serratis, spicis verticillatis. The seeds are the medicinal part, which have, when fresh, a fragrant smell and an acrid aromatic taste. Formerly they were celebrated as antaphrodisiacs; but experience does not discover in them any degree of such virtue, and some have ascribed to them an opposite one. They are now fallen into distuse.

Agoge. The deduction or reasoning

AGGGE. The deduction or reasoning upon diseases from their symptoms and appearances. The order, state, or tenour

of a disease or body.

AGONE. (Apoin: from a, neg. and points, offspring.) Hyoscyanius or Henbane; so called because it was supposed to cause barrenness.

AGONIA. Sterility, impotence, agony. AGONISTICUM. (Aywighton, from ay white, to struggle.) A term used by ancient physicians to signify water extremely cold, which was directed to be given in large quantities, in acute crysipelatous fevers, with a view of overpowering or struggling with the febrile heat of the blood.

Agonos. (From a, priv. and 2000s, or 2000, an offspring; barren.) Hippocrates calls those women so who have not children, though they might have if the impe-

diment were removed.

Agostos. (From  $\alpha_7 \alpha$ , to bring, or lead.) That part of the arm from the elbow to the fingers; also the palm or holfow of the hand.

Agreeta. ( $A_7 \rho a_7$ , wild.) Verjuice,

which is made from the wild apple. The

immature fruit of the vine.

AGRESTEA. A name for the common tartar.

AGRESTIS. In the works of some old writers it expresses an ungovernable malignity in a disease.

AGRIA. Holly. A malignant pustule, of which, the ancient surgeons describe two sorts; one which has been so called, is small, and casts a roughness or redness over the skin, slightly corroding it, smooth about its centre, spreads slowly, and is of a round figure; this sort is cured by rubbing it with the fasting spittle. The second ulcerates, with a violent redness and corrosion, so as to make the hair fall off; it is of an unequal form, and turns leprous; it is cured, by the application of pellitory of the wall in the manner of a poultice.

AGRIAMPELOS. (From αγριος, wild, and αμπελος, a vine.) The wild vine, or white

bryony. See Bryonia.

AGRIFLEA. (From agrees, wild, and exact, the olive-tree.)
The oleaster, or wild olive.
AGRIFOLIUM. (From aug, a prickle, and

φυλλον, a leaf.) Aquifolium, or holly tree. It should rather be called acifolium from its prickly leaves.

AGRIMONIA. (A) pipuwin: from a) pos, a

field, and mover, alone: so named from its being the chief of all wild herbs.) Agri-

1. The name of a genus of plants in the

Linnæan system.

2. The pharmacopæial name of a plant; the common agrimony. . Agrimonia Eupatoria of Linnaus :- foliis caulinis pinnatis, foliolis undique serratis, omnibus minutis in-

terstinctis, fructibus hispidis.

This plant is common in fields about hedges and shady places, flowering in June and July. It has been principally regarded in the character of a mild astringent and corroborant, and many authors recommend it as a deobstruent, especially in hepatic and other visceral obstructions. Chomel relates two instances of its successful use in cases where the liver was much enlarged and indurated. It has been used with advantage in hæmorrhagic affections, and to give tone to a lax and weak state of the solids. In cutaneous disorders, particularly in scabies, we have been told that it manifests great efficacy; for this purpose it was given infused with liquorice in the form of tea; but according to Alston it should be always exhibited in the state of powder. It is best used while fresh, and the tops, before the flowers are formed, possess the most virtue. Cullen observes that the agrimony has some astringent powers, but they are feeble; and pays little attention to what has been said in its favour.

AGRIMONIA EUPATORIA. (Called Eupatorai; from Eupator, its inventor; or quasi hepatorium, ηπατορίον; from ηπας, the liver; because it is uscful in disease of the liver.) The systematic name for the Agrimonia of the pharmacopoias. See Agrimonia.
Agrimony, hemp. The Bidens tripartia

of Linnæus.

AGRIOCARDAMUM. (From appros, wild, and καρδαμον, the nasturtium.)

cresses, or wild garden cress.

AGRIOCASTANUM. (From ayeus, wild, and was avov, the chesnut.) Earth-nut or pig-nut. AGRICCINARA (From appies, wild, and

ніуара, articlioke.) See Cinara.

AGRICCOCCIMELA.

(From ayeros, wild, нонкос, a berry, and милья, an apple-tree.) The prunus sylvestris.

AGRIOMELA. The crab apple.

Agriophyllon. The peucedanum silaus, or hog's fennel, or sulphur wort. AGRIOPHYLLON. See Agrion.

AGRIOPASTINACA. (From applos, wild, and pastinaca, a carrot.) Wild carrot, or

AGRIORIGANUM. (From appros, wild, and. operavor, marjorom.) Wild marjoram. See Origanum.

AGRIOSELINUM. (From appros, wild, and σελίνον, parsley.) Wild-parsley. See Η:ρφο-

salinum.

AGRIOSTARI. (From appros, wild, and sais, wild wheat.) A species of field corn called Triticum creticum.

AGRIPALMA. (From appros, wild, and тания, a palm tree.) Agripalma gallis. The herb mother-wort, or wild palm.

AGRIPALMA GALLIS. See Agripalma.

Those children which are born with their feet foremost, are so called, because that was said to be the case with Agrippa the Roman, who was named ab agro partu, from his difficult birth. These births, though reckoned preter-natural, are often more safe and easy than the natural.

AGRIUM. An impure sort of natron, or soda. The purer sort was called halmyrhaga.

AGROM. A disease of the tongue peculiar to the Indians, in which it becomes extremely rough and chopped.

AGRUMINA. Leeks, wild onions.

AGRYPVIA. (From a, priv. and unvos, sleep.) Warchfulness: want of sleep.

AGRYPNOCOMA. (From 2) purves, without sleep, and xoua, a lethargy.) A lethargio kind of watchf itness, in which the patient is stupidly drowsy, and yet cannot alcep. A species of coma

Ague. See Febris Intermittens.

AGUE CAKE. The popular name for a hard tumour on the left side of the belly, lower than the false ribs in the region of the spleen, said to be the effect of intermittent fevers. However frequent it might have been formerly, it is now very rare, and although then said to be owing to the use of bark, it is now less frequent since the bark has been generally employed.

AGUE DROPS. This is a medicine sold

for the cure of agues, composed of arseniate

of potash in solution in water.

AGUE-FREE. A name given by some to sassafras on account of its supposed febrifuge virtue.

AGUE TREE. See Laurus.

Aguia. (From a, priv. and your, a member.) Paralytic debility. Where the use of the members is defective or lost.

Agul. (Arab.) Alhagi. The thorn. The leaves are purgative. The Syrian

AGUSTINE. A new earth discovered in the Saxon Beryl, or Beryl, of Georgien Stadt, a stone greatly resembling the Beryl of Siberia, by professor Tromsdorff of Erfurth in Germany, to which he has given the name of agustine on account of the property of forming salts which are nearly destitute of taste.

This earth is white and insipid; when moistened with water, it is somewhat ductile, but is not soluble in that fluid. Exposed to a violent heat, it becomes extremely hard, but acquires no taste. It combines with acids, forming salts, which have little or no taste. It does not combine r in the humid or dry way with alkalies,

\* E

or with their carbonates. It retains carbonic acid but feebly. It dissolves in acids equally well after having been hardened, by exposure to heat, as when newly precipitated. With sulphuric acid it forms a salt which is insipid, and scarcely soluble, but an excess of acid renders it soluble, and capable of crystallizing in stars. With an excess of phosphoric acid it forms a very soluble salt. With nitrous acid it forms a salt scarcely soluble.

AGUTIGUEPOOBI BRAZILIENSIS. (An Indian term.) Arrow-root: dartwort. Esculent and vulnerary, and used by the Indians to cure wounds made by arrows.

AGYION. See Aguia.

AGYRTE (From ayuguv a crowd of people or a mob; or from ayugu, to gather together.) It formerly expressed certain strollers who pretended to strange things from supernatual assistances; but of late it is applied to all quack and illiterate dabblers in medicine.

Ahalotu. The Hebrew name of lignum aloes.

AHAMELLA. See Johnella.

Ahovai Theveticlush. A chesnut-like fruit of Brazil of a poisonous nature.

AHUSAL. Orpiment.

AJURAZAT. Lead.

AILMAD. An Arabian name for anti-

AIMATEIA. A black bilious and bloody discharge from the bowels.

AIMORRHOIS. See Hamorrhois. AIMORRHOEA. See Hamorrhagia.

AIFATHEIA. (From au always, and σαθος, a disease.) A disease of long continuance.

AIFI. Aipima coxera. Aipipoca. Indian words for Cassada. A poisonous root of India

AIR. Common air. Atmospherical air. The word air seems to have been used at first to have denoted the atmosphere in general; but philosophers afterwards restricted it to the elastic fluid, which constitutes the greatest and the most important part of the atmosphere, excluding the water and the other foreign bodies which are occasionally found mixed with it. See Atmosphere.

Air is an elastic fluid, invisible indeed, but easily recognised by its properties. Its specific gravity, according to the experiments of Sir George Shuckburgh, when the barometer is at 30 inches, and the thermometer between 50 and 60 deg. is 0 0012, or 816 times lighter than water. One hundred cubic inches of air weigh 31 grains troy. But as air is an elastic fluid, and compressed at the surface of the earth by the whole weight of the incumbent atmosphere, its destiny diminishes according to its height above the surface of the earth. From the experiments of Paschal, Deluc,

General Roy, &c. is has been ascertained that the density diminishes in the ratio of the compression. Consequently the density decreases in a geometrical progression, while the heights increase in an arithmetical progression. Bouguer had suspected, from his observations made on the Andes, that at considerable heights the density of the air is no longer proportional to the compressing force; but the experiments of Saussure junior, made upon Mount Rose, have demonstrated the contrary.

Air is dilated by heat. From the experiments of General Roy and Sir George Shuckburgh, compared with those of Trembley, &c. it appears, that at the temperature of 60 deg. every degree of temperature increases the bulk of air about 1-82d

part.

The specific caloric of air, according to the experiments of Dr. Crawford, is 1.79.

Although the sky is well known to have a blue colour, yet it cannot be doubted that air itself is altogether colourless and invi-The blue colour of the sky is occasioned by the vapours which are always mixed with the air, and which have the property of reflecting the blue rays more copiously than any other. This has been proved by the experiments which Saussure made with his cyanometer at different heights above the surface of the earth. This consisted of a circular band of paper, divided into 51 parts, each of which were painted with a different shade of blue; beginning with the deepest mixed with black, to the lightest mixed with white. found that the colour of the sky always corresponds with a deeper shade of blue, the higher the observer is placed above the surface; consequently, at a certain height, the blue will disappear altogether, and the sky appear black; that is to say, will reflect no light at all. The colour becomes always lighter in proportion to the vapours mixed with the air. Hence it is evidently owing to them.

The property which the air has of supporting combustion, and the necessity of it for respiration, are too well known to re-

quire any description.

For many ages, air was considered as an element, or simple substance. For the knowledge of its component parts, we are indebted to the labours of those philosophers in whose hands chymistry advanced with such rapidity during the last forty years of the eighteenth century.

Air is a compound of oxygen and nitrogen; but it becomes a question of considerable consequence to determine the proportion of these two ingredients, and to ascertain whether that proportion is in every case the same. Since nitrogen gas,

one of the component parts of that fluid, cannot be separated by any substance with which chymists are acquainted, the analysis of air can only be attempted by exposing it to the action of those bodies which have the property of absorbing its oxygen. By these bodies the oxygen gas is separated, and nitrogen gas is left behind, and the proportion of oxygen may be ascertained by the diminution of bulk; which, once known, it is easy to ascertain the proportion of nitrogen gas, and thus to determine the exact relative quantity of the component parts.

After the composition of the atmosphere was known to philosophers, it was taken for granted that the proportion of its oxygen varies in different times and in different places; and that upon this variation the purity or noxious qualities of air depended. Hence it became an object of the greatest importance to be in possession of a method of determining readily the quantity of oxygen in a given portion of air. Accordingly various methods were proposed, all of them depending upon the property which a variety of bodies possesses of absorbing the oxygen of the air, without acting upon its azot. These bodies were mixed with a certain known quantity of atmospheric air, in graduated glass vessels inverted over water, and the proportion of oxygen was determined by the diminution of bulk. These instruments received the name of eudiometers, because they were considered as measures of the purity of air. See Eudiometer.

It is considered as established by experiment, that air is composed of 0.22 of oxygen gas, and 0.78 of nitrogen gas by bulk. But as the weight of these two gases is not exactly the same, the proportion of the component parts by weight will differ a little: for as the specific gravity of oxygen gas is to that of nitrogen gas as 135: 115, it follows that 100 parts of air are composed by weight of about 74 nitrogen gas

26 oxygen gas.

## 100

Having thus ascertained the nature and the proportion of the component parts of air, it remains only to inquire in what manner these component parts are united. Are they merely mixed together mechanically, or are they combined chymically? Is air a mechanical mixture, or a chymical compound? Philosophers seem at first to have adopted the former of these opinions, if we except Scheele, who always considered air as a chymical compound. But the supposition that air is a mechanical mixture, by no means agrees with the phenomena which it exhibits. If the two gases were only mixed together, as their specific gravity is different, it is scarcely possible that they would be uniformly mixed in every part of the atmosphere. Even Mr. Dalton's ingenous supposition, that they neither at-

tract nor repel each other, would not account for this equal distribution; for undoubtedly, on that supposition, they would arrange themselves according to their specific gravity. Since, therefore, air is in all places composed of the same ingredients, exactly in the same proportions, it follows that its component parts are not only mixed, but actually combined. When substances differing in specific gravity combine together, the specific gravity of the compound is usually greater than the mean. This holds also with respect to air. specific gravity, by calculation, amounts only to 0.00119, whereas it actually is 0.0012; a difference by no means inconsiderable. But perhaps the specific gravity of nitrogen and oxygen gas can scarcely be considered as known with such precision as to entitle us to draw any consequence from this difference.

The difference between air and a mere mixture of its two component parts, has been demonstrated by the experiments of Morozzo and Humbolt. The artificial mixture is much more diminished by nitrous gas than air, even when the mixture contains less oxygen. It supports flame better and longer, and animals do not live in it the same time that they do in an equal portion

of air, but longer.

The air is, therefore, to be considered as a chymical compound. Hence the reason that it is in all cases the same, notwithstanding the numerous decomposing processes to which it is subjected. The breathing of animals, combustion, and a thousand other operations, are constantly abstracting its oxygen, and decomposing it. The air thus decomposed or vitiated no doubt ascends in the atmosphere, and is again, by some unknown process or other, reconverted into atmospherical air. But the nature of these changes is at present concealed under an impenetrable veil. Thompson.

Air, atmospherical. See Air.
Air, azotic. See Nitrogen gus.
Air, fixed. See Carbonic acid gas.
Air, fluoric. See Fluoric acid gas.
Air, hepatic. See Sulphuretted hydrogen

Air, alkaline. See Ammonia.

as.
Air, inflammable. See Hydrogen gas.
Air, marine. See Muniatic acid gas.

Air, marine. See Muviatic acid gas.
Air, nitrous See Nitrous Oxyds.
Air, phlogisticated. See Nitrogen gas.
Air, phosphoric. See Phosphoric acid gas.
Air, sulphureous. See Sulphuretted hydro-

gen gas.
Air, vital. See Oxygen gas.

AISTHETERIUM. (From aiobaroma, to perceive.) The sensorium commune, or common sensory, or seat, or origin of sensation. Cartesius and others say, it is the pineal gland; Willis says it is where the nerves of the external senses are terminated, which is about the beginning of the medulla ob-

longata, (or top of the spinal marrow,) in the corpus striatum.

Antimony. AITMAD.

AIX LA CHAPELLE. Called Aken by the Germans. Thermæ Aquis-granensis. A town in the south of France, where there is a sulphureous water, the most striking feature of which, and which is almost peculiar to it, is the unusual quantity of sulphur it contains; the whole, however, is so far united to a gascous basis, as to be entirely volatilized by heat; so that none is left in the residuum after evaporation. In colour it is pellucid, in smell sulphurcous, and in taste saline, bitterish, and rather alkaline. The temperature of these waters varies considerably, according to the distance from the source and the spring itself. In the well of the hottest bath, it is according to Lucas 1360, Monet 146°; at the fountain where it is drank, it is 112°. This thermal water is much resorted to on the Continent, for a variety of complaints. It is found essentially serviceable in the numerous symptoms of disorders in the stomach and biliary organs, that follow a life of high indulgence in the luxuries of the table; in nephritic cases, which produce pain in the loins, and thick mucous urine with difficult micturition. As the heating qualities of this water are as decided as in any of the mineral springs, it should be avoided in cases of a general inflammatory tendency, in hectic fever and ulceration of the lungs: and in a disposition to active hamorrhagy. As a hot bath, this water is even more valuable and more extensively employed than as an internal remedy. The baths of Aix la Chapelle may be said to be more particularly medicated than any other that we are acquainted with. They possess both temperature of any degree that can be borne, and a strong impregnation with sulphur in its most active forms, and a quantity of alkali which is sufficient to give it a very soft soapy feel, and to render it more detergent than common water. From these circumstances these baths will be found of particular service in stiffness and rigidity of the joints and ligaments, which is left by the inflammation of gout and rheumatism, and in the debility of palsy, where the highest degree of heat which the skin can bear is required. The sulphureous ingredient renders it highly active in almost every cutaneous eruption, and in general in every foulness of the skin; and here the internal use of the water should attend that of the bath. These waters are also much employed in the distressing debility which follows a long course of mercury and excessive salivation. Aken water is one of the few natural springs, that are hot enough to be employed as a vapour bath, without the addition of artificial heat. It is employed both in cases in which the hot bath is used, and is found to be a remarkably powerful auxiliary in curing some of the worst

species of cutaneous disorders. With regard to the dose of this water to be begun with, or the degree of heat to bathe in, it is in all cases best to begin with small quantities and low degrees of heat, and gradually increase them, agreeably to the effects and constitution of the patient. The usual time of the year for drinking these waters, is from the beginning of May to the middle of June, or from the middle of August to the latter end of September.

AIZOON. (From as always, and Zue to live.) Arzoum. An evergreen aquatic plant, like the aloe said to posess antiscorbutic

AJAVA. (Indian.) A said used in the East

Indies as a remedy for the cholic.

AL. The Arabian article which signifies the; it is applied to a word by way of eminence, as the Greek ois. The Easterns express the supe lative by adding God thereto, as the mountain of God, for the highest mountain; and it is probable that Al relates to the word Alla, God: so alchemy may he the chymistry of God, or the most exalted perfection of chymical science. .

ALA. A wing. The arm pit, so called because it answers to the pit under the wing

of a bird.

ALABARI. Lead.

ALEFORMIS. Any thing like a wing ALE AURIS. The upper part of the external ear.

ALE NASI. Two cartilages of the nose which form the nostrils.

That part of ALM VESPERTILIONUM. the ligaments of the womb, which lies between the tubes and the ovaria; so called from its resemblance to the wing of

ALE IXTERNÆ MINORES. See Num. phæ.

ALAFI. Alafor. Alafort. Alkaline.

ALLA PHTHISIS. (From anaios, blind, and φθισις, a wasting.) A consumption from a flux of humours from the head.

ALAMAD. Alamed. Antimony.

ALAMBIC. Mercury.

ALANDAHLA. (Arab. bitter.) The bit-

ter apple, or colocynth.

ALANFUTA. (Arab.) A vein between the chin and lower lip, which was formerly opened to prevent fæted breath.

Alapouti. See Bilimbi.

ALARE EXTERNUM. A name of the external pterygoid muscle; so called because it takes its rise from the wing-like process of the sphænoid bone.

ALARIA OSSA. The wing-like processes

of the sphænoid bone.

ALARIS VENA. The innermost of the three veins in the bend of the arm.

ALASALET Alaset. Ammoniacum. ALASI. Alafor. An alkaline salt, ALASTROB. Lead.

ALATAN. Litharge.

ALATERNUS. A species of rhamnus.

ALATI. Those who have prominent scapulæ like the wings of birds.

ALAURAT. Nitre.

ALBADAL. An Arabic name for the sesamoid bone of the first joint of the great

ALBAGENZI. Albagiazi. An Arabic name

for the os sacrum.

ALBAGRAS NIGRA. So Avicenna names the lepra ichthyoeis. Others call it lepra Græcorum.

ALBAMENTUM. (From albus, white.) The

white of an egg.

Urinous salt. ALBANUM.

ALBARA. (Chald.) The white leprosy. ALBARAS. Arsenic. A white pustulc.

ALBATIO. (From albea, to whiten.) Al-The calcination or whitening of metals.

ALBERAS. (Arab.) White pustules on the face: also staphisagria, because its juice was said to remove these pustules.

ALBESTORE. Quick lime.

ALHETAD. Galbanum.

ALIII SUBLIMATI. Muriated mercury.

ALBICANTIA CORPORA. (From albeo, to grow white.) The glands of a white colour which are usually called Willis's glands in the brain.

ALBIMENT. Orpiment. See Auripigmen-

11/11.

ALBINUM. See Gnaphalium.

ALBOR. Urinc.

Albora. A sort of itch; or rather of leprosy. Paracelsus says, it is a complication of the morphew, serpigo, and leprosy. When cicatrices appear in the face like the scrpigo, and then turn to small blisters of the nature of the morphew, it is the albora. It terminates without ulceration, but by fetid evacuations in the mouth and nostrils; it is also seated in the root of the tongue.

ALBOREA. Quicksilver.

ALBOT. A crucible.

Turpentine. ALBOTAL.

Turpentine. ALHOTAR.

White lead. ALBOTAT.

Turpentine. ALHOTIM.

A cutaneous phlegmon or ALBOTIS.

ALBUGINEA OCULI. (From albue, white.) See Adnata tunica.

ALBUGINEA TESTIS. (Albuginea; from albus, white; so called on account of its white colour.) Tumica albuginea testis. The innermost coat of the testicle. It is a strong, white, and dense membrane, immediately covering the body or substance of the testicle. On its outer surface it is smooth, but rough and uneven on the inner.

ALBUGINOUS HUMOUR. The aqueous hu-

mour of the cye.

ALBUGO OCULORUM. A white opacity of the cornea of the eyes The Greeks named it leucoma; the Latins, albugo, nebula and nubecula; some ancient writers have called it pterugium, janua oculi, onyx, unguis, and

agides. It is a variety of Cullen's Caligo Cornea.

ALHUHAR. White lead.

ALBUM BALSAMUM. The balsam of copaivi. The white dung of ALBUM GRÆCUM. dogs. It was formerly applied as a discutient, to the inside of the throat, in quinsies, being first mixed with honey; medicines of this kind have long since justly sunk into disuse.

ALBUM OLUS. Lamb's lettuce, or cornsalad. The Valeriana locusta of Linnæus.

ALBUMEN. Albumena Albuminous matter. Coagulable lymph. Albumen is very abundant in the animal kingdom. It is the principal constituent part of the scrum of the blood, and the lymphatic fluid. forms the cheese in milk, and makes up the greater part of the white of eggs. It is composed of carbon, hydrogen, azot, oxygen, phosphorus, and somewhat of calcareous earth.

ALBUMEN OVI. Alougo ovi. Albumen. albor ovi, ovi albus liquor, ovi candidum, albamentum, clareta. The white of an egg.

ALCAHEST. An Arabic word to express an universal dissolvent, which was protended to by Paracelsus and Helmont. Some say that Paracelsus first used this word, and that it is derived from the German words al and geest, i. e. all spirit. Van Helmont borrowed the word, and applied it to his invention, which he called the universal dissolvent.

ALCAOL. The solvent for the preparation of the philosopher's stone.

ALCALI. (Arab.) See Alkali.

ALCALIZATION. The impregnating any spiritous fluid with an alkali.

ALCEA INDICA. See See Hibiscus abelmoschus. ALCEA ÆGYPTIACA VILLOSA. See Hibiscus abelmoschus.

ALCHA ROSEA. The systematic name for the malva arborea. See Malva.

ALCAA. (From ann, strength.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monadelphia. Order Polyandria. Hollyhock.

Sal almoniac, or muriat of ALLCAB. ammonia.

ALCANNA. (Indian word.) See Alkanna. ALCEBAR. See Agallochum.

ALCEBRIS VIVUM. See Sulphur vivum.

ALCHABRIC. Sulphur vivuin.

Rosemary. ALCHACHIL.

Alcharith. Quicksilver. ALCHIEN. This word occurs in the Theatrum Chemicum, and seems to signify that power in nature by which all corruption and

generation are effected.

ALCHEMILLA. (So called because it was celebrated by the old alchemists.) Ladies' mantle.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class Tetrandria. Order. Monogynia.

The parmacopæial name of a plant

called lady's mantle. Alchemilla vulgaris; foliis lobatis of Linnaus. It was formerly esteemed as a powerful adstringent in hæmorrhages, fluor albus, &c. given internally.

ALCHIMELEC. (Heb.) The Egyptian

melilot.

ALCHEMY. Alchemia. Alchimia. Alkima. That branch of chymistry which relates to the transmutation of metals into gold; the forming a panacea or universal remedy; an alkahest, or universal menstrum; a universal ferment; and many other absurdities.

ALCHIBRIC. See Alkibric.

Alchimilla. See Alchemilla.

Alchitron. Oil of juniper; also the name of a dentifrice of Messue.

ALCHUTE. See Morum.

ALCHEMY. Alchemy.
ALCHEMS. A speck on the pupil of the eye, somewhat obscuring vision.

ALCIMAD. Antimony.

ALCOB. Sal-ammoniac, or muriat of ammonia.

Alcocalum. (Perhaps Indian.) Artichoke, or cinara.

ALCOFOL. Antimony.

ALCOHOL. See Alkohol.

ALCOLA. (Heb.) The aphthæ, or thrush. Paracelsus gives this name to tartar, or excrement of urine, whether it appears as

sand, mucilage, &c.
ALCOLITA. Urine. ACLONE. Brass. Æs ustum.

ALCTE. It is the name of a plant mentioned by Hippocrates. Fæsius thinks it is the elder.

ALCUBRITH. Sulphur.

ALCYONIUM. Bastard sponge, spongy plant-like substance, which is met with on the sea shore: it is of different shapes end colours. It is difficult to say what the Greeks called by this name. Dioscorides They are calcispeaks of five sorts of it. ned with a litle salt, as dentifrice, and are used to remove spots on the skin.

Alder-tree. See Alnus and Frangula . Alderbery bearing. See Praugula.

ALDER WINE. When well fermented, and having a proper addition of raisins in it, in its composition is frequently a rich and strong liquor; it keeps better than many of the other made wines, for a number of years, and was formerly supposed to possess many medical virtues; but these, experience does not seem to sanction: and the virtues of the alder, like those of many other simples formerly prized, have sunk into oblivion.

ALE. Cerevisia. Liquor cereris. Vinum hordeaceum. Barley wine. A fermented liquor made from malt and hops, and chiefly distinguished from beer, made from the same ingredients, by the quantity of hops used therein; which is greater in beer, and therefore renders the liquor more bitter, and fitter for keeping. Ale, when well ferment-

ed, is a wholesome beverage, and seems only to disagree with those subject to asthma, or any disorder of the respiration or irregularity in the digestive organs. The old dispensatories enumerate several medicated ales, such as cerevisia oxydorica, for the eyes; cerexisia antiarthritica, against the gout; cephalica, epileptica, &c.

ALEARA. A cucurbit.

ALEBRIA. (Fsom alo, to nourish.) Nouishing foods, or medicines.

ALEC. Alech. Vitriol. ALECHARITH. Mercury.

ALEIMA. (From areifus to anoint.) ointment.

ALEION. ('AAROV, copious.) Hippocrates uses this word as an epithet for water.

to anoint.)

(From αλειφα, ALEIPHH. Any medicated oil.

ALELION. (From anc, salt, and enator. oil.) Oil beat up with salt, to apply to tumours. Galen frequently used it.

ALEMA. (From a priv. and Aluos, hunger. Meat, food, or any thing that satisfies

the appetite.

(Some derive it from the ALEMBIC. Arabian particle al, and aucie, from aucano to ascend. Avicenna declares it to be Arab.) Moorshead. A chymical utensil made of glass, metal, or earthen-ware, and adapted to receive volatile products from retorts. It consists of a body, to which is fitted a conical head, and out of this head descends laterally a beak to be inserted into the receiver.

ALEMBROTH. A chaldee word, importing the key of art. Some explained it by sal mercurii, or sal philosophorum and artis; others say it is named alembrot and sal fusionis, or sal fixionis. Alembroth desiccatum is said to be the sal tartari; hence this word seems to sifinify alkaline salt, which opens the bodies of metals by destroying their sulphurs, and promoting their separation from the ores. From analogy, it is supposed to have the same effect in conquering obstructions and attenuating viscid fluids in the human body. A peculiar earth, probably containing a fixed alkali, found in the island of Cyprus, has also this appellation; and a solution of the corrosive sublimate, to which the muriat of ammonia has been added, is called sal alembroth.

ALENZADAR. Crude sal ammoniac, or

muriat of ammonia.

ALEMZADAT. Crude sal ammoniac, or muriat of ammonia.

ALEPENSIS A species of ash-tree which produces manna.

ALES. (From, ale, salt.) The name of a compound salt.

ALEURON. (From alew, to grind.) Meal, ALEXANDERS, COMMON. This plant, Smyrnium olustram of Linnæus, was formerly cultivated for sallads. It is now superseded by celery.

ALEXANDERS, ROUND LEAVED. um perfoliatum of Linnaus. The blanched stalks of this species are far preferable to those of common alexanders, and are esteemed as stomachic and nerving.

ALEXANDRIA. Alexandrina. The bay-

tree, or laurel, of Alexandria.

ALEXANDRIUM. Emplastrum viride. A plaster described by Celsus, made with wax, alum, &c.

ALEXICACA. (From αλέξω, to drive away, and κακον, evil. (Alexicacum. An antidote,

or amulet, to resist poison.

A LEXIPHARMICS. (Alexipharmica, sc. medicamenta, from angle, to expel, and pagnazer, a poison.) Intipharmica. Caco-alexiteria. Medicines supposed to preserve the body against the power of poisons, or to correct or expel those taken. The ancients attributed this property to some vegetables, and even waters distilled from them. The term, however, is now disused.

ALEXIPTRETICUM. (From αλέξω, to drive away, and συρθος, fever.) A febrifuge. A

remedy for fever.

ALEXIPPHETOS. Alexipyretum. The same as alexipyreticum.

ALEXIR. An elixir.

ALEXITERIA. Preservatives from con-

tagion.

ALEXITERIUM. (From ango, to expel, and tuges, to preserve.) A prescruative medicine against poison, or contagion.

ALFACTA. Distillation.

ALFATIDE. Muriat of ammonia.

Alfasara. Alphesara. Arabic terms for the vine.

ALFADAS. Alfides. Cerusse. ALFOL. Muriet of ammonia.

Alfusa. Tutty.

ALGALI. A catheter. Also nitre.

ALGARAH. See Anchilops.

ALGAROTH. (So called from Victorius Agaroth, a physician of Verone, end its inventor.) Algarot. Algarothi. Mercurius vita. Pulvis Algarothi. The antimonial part of the butter of antimony, separated from some of its acid by washing it in water. It is violently emctic in doses of two or three grains, and is preferred by many for making the emetic tartar.

Algeno. (From αλγος, pain.) A violent pain about the anus, perinæum, testes, urethra, and bladder, arising from the sudden stoppage of a virulent gonorrhæa. A

term very seldom used.

Algemates. (From algematodes. Uneasiness, pain

of any kind.

ALGERTH. Algirie. Lime. ALGEROTH. See Algaroth.

Alginic. Sulphur vivum.
Algon. A sudden chilness or rigor.
A term met with in Sauvage's and Sagar's
Nosology.

ALGOSAREL. The Arabian term for the

Daucus sylvestris, or carrot.

ALGUADA. A white leprous eruption.

ALHAGI. (Arab.) A species of *Hedysarum*. The leaves are hot and pungent, the flowers purgative.

ALHANDALA. An Arabian name for co-

locynth, or bitter apple.

ALHASER. (Arab.) Alhasaf. A sort of fætid pustule, called also Hydroa.

ALIA SQUILLA (From αλιος, belonging to the sea, and σκιλλα, a shrimp.) A prawn.

ALICA. (From alo, to nourish.) In general signification, a grain, a sort of food, admired by the ancients; it is not certain whether it is a grain or a preparation of some kind thereof.

ALICES. (From aniza, to sprinkle.) Little red spots in the skin, which precede the eruption of pustules in the small pox.

ALIENATIO MENTIS. (From alieno, to estrange.) Delirium. Estrangement of the

mind.

Altrormes Musculi. Muscles so called from their supposed resemblance to wings.

See Pterygoidans.

ALIMENTARY CANAL. Alimentary duct. A name given to the whole of those passages which the food passes through from the mouth to the anus. This duct may be said to be the true characteristic of an animal; there being no animal without it, and whatever has it, being properly ranged under the class of animals. Plants receive their nourishment by the numerous fibres of their roots, but have no common receptacle for digesting the food received, or for carrying off the excrements. But in all, even the lowest degree of animal life, we may observe a stomach and intestines, even where we cannot perceive the least formation of any organs of the senses, unless that common one of feeling, as in oysters.

ALIMENTARY DUCT. The alimentary

ALIMENTARY DUCT. The alimentary canal. The thoracic duct is sometimes so

called.

ALIMOS. Common liquorice.

ALIMUM. Ser Arum.

ALINDESIS. ('Αλυδησις, from αλυδεμι, to be turned about.) A bodily exercise, which seems to be rolling on the ground, or rather in the dust, after being annointed with oil. Hippocrates says it hath nearly the same effect as wrestling.

ALIPENOS. (From a, neg. and Mirara, to be fat.) Alipanum. Alipantos. An external remedy, without fat or moisture.

ALIPASMA. (From αλωςα, to annoint.) An ointment rubbed upon the body, to prevent sweating.

ALIPE. Remedies for wounds in the

cheek, to prevent inflammation.

ALIPOW. A species of tureth, found near Mount Ceti, in Languedoc. It is a powerful purgative, used instead of senna, but much more active.

ALIPTE. (From αλειφα, to annoint.) Servants who anointed the persons after bath-

ing.

Alisanders. See Smyrnium.

ALISMA. (From als, the sea.) Water plantain. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Polygynia.

ALISTELIS. (From axe, the sea.) MII-

riat of ammonia.

ALITT. Alith. Asafætida.

ALKAFIAL. Antimony.
ALKAHEST. An imaginary universal menstruum, or solvent.

ALKAHEST GLAUBERI. Alkaline salts. See

ALKALIAT GLAUBERI. An alkali.

ALKALI. Alkali, in Arabic, signifies burnt; or from al and kali, i. e. the essence, or the whole of kali, the plant from which it was originally prepared, though now derived from plants of every kind.) Alcali, alafi, alafor, alafort, calcadis. A term given to substances which possess the following properties: They are incombustible, and soluble in water; they possession aerid, nrinous taste. When mixed with silieeous substances, and exposed to an intense heat, they form a more or less perfect glass. They unite with another class of bodies called acids, and form new compounds, in which both the acid and alkaline properties are more or less lost. They render oils misci-ble with water. They change various blue vegetable pigments to green; red to violet, or blue, and yellow to brown. Blue pigments, that have been turned red with acids, are again restored by alkalies to their primitive colours. They emit light on the affusion of the dense acids when freed from water. They attract water and carbonic acid from the atmosphere. They unite to sulphur by fusion, and by means of water. They exert a great solvent power on the cellular membrane and animal fibre. They also corrode woollen cloth, and, if sufficiently concentrated, convert it into a sort of jelly.

They are only three kinds of alkalis at

present known:

1. The mineral, called soda, in the new chymical nomenclature. See Soda.

2. The vegetable, called potassa, in the new chymical nomenclature. See Potassa.

3. Ammonia, or the caustic volatile alkali,

is the third. See Ammonia.

To these, some clymists add barytes, and

some other earths.

Alkalis are either fixed, that is, they are not reduced to the state of gas, by the most intense heat; or they are volatile, i. e. the common temperature is almost sufficient to change their state of aggregation; potash and soda are of the former kind; and, of the latter, ammonia is the only one known.

ALKALESCENT. Slightly alkaline.

ALKALI, CAUSTIC. An alkali is so called when deprived of the carbonic acid it

contains for it then becomes more caustic and more violent in its action.

Those alkalis are so ALKALI FIXUM. called that emit no characteristic smell, and cannot be volatilized, but with the greatest difficulty. Two kinds of fixed alkalis have only hitherto been known, namely, potash and soda. See Potash and Soda. Alkali, fossile. See Soda.

Alkali, mineral. (So called because it forms the basis of marine salts.) See Soda.

Alkali, vegetable. (So called because it abounds in many vegetables.) See Pot-

Alkali, volatile. (So called because it is volatile in opposition to the other alkalis,

which are fixed ) See xmmonia. ALKALINA. A class of substances de-

scribed by Cullen as comprehending the substances otherwise termed antacida. They consist of alkalis, and also of substances, into which they enter in combination. The principal alkalines in use, are the carbonates and subcarbonates of soda, potash, and ammonia.

(Alcalizatio, onis, f.) ALKALIZATION. Alkalization. The impregnating any thing with an alkaline salt, as spirit of wine, &c.

ALKANET. (Alkanah, a reed.

Radix anchusæ.

ALKANNA. See Anchusa.

ALKANNA VERA. Alkauna Orientalis. An Oriental plant; the Lawsonia inermis, ramis inermibus, of Linnæus; principally employed in its native place, as a dye. The root is the officinal part; which, however, is rarely met with in the shops. It possesses adstringent properties, and may be used as a substitute for the anchusa.

ALKASA. Alksoal. A crucible.

ALCANTHUM. Arsenic. ALKANT ... Quicksilver.

ALKEKENGI. (Alkekengi, Arab.) Halicabaidro. Winter cherry. This plant, Physalis alkekengi of Linnæus:-foliis geminis integris acutis, caule herbaceo, infernè subramoso, is cultivated in our gar-The berries are recommended as a diuretic, from six to twelve for a dose, in dropsicial and calculous diseases.

ALKERMES. A term borrowed from the Arabs, denoting a celebrated remedy, of the form and consistence of a confection, whereof the kermes is the basis.

Kermes.

ALKERVA. (Arab.) Castor oil.

ALKOHOL. (An Arabian word, which signifies antimony: so called from the usage of the Eastern ladies to paint their eyebrows with antimony, reduced to a most subtile powder; which at last came to signify any thing exalted to its highest perfection.) Alcohol. Alkol. Spiritus vinosus rectificatns. Spiritus vini rectsficatus. Spiritus vini concentratus, Spiritus vini rectificatissi-

Alcohol is highly rectified spirit of mus. wine, freed from all those aqueous particles which are not essential to it by duly performing rect.fication. In its purest state, it is quite colourless, and clear, of a strong and penetrating smell and taste; capable of being set on fire without a wick, and burning with a flame, without leaving a residue, and without smoke and soot. Alcohol is miscible with water in all proportions. It does not freeze in any degree of coldness. It is the direct menstruum or solvent of resins. It dissolves, also, the natural balsams. The resinous and various other parts of plants are also soluble in alcohol, hence it is made use of for extracting those parts, and for making the preparations called elixirs, tinctures, essences, &c. In England, alcohol is pro-cured by distillation from molasses; in Scotland and Ireland, from an infusion of This last, before its rectification, is termed whiskey. In the East-Indies, arrack is distilled from rice; in the West-Indies, rum from the sugar cane; and in France and Spain, brandy from wine; all these afford alcohol by distillation. On the human solids, alcohol acts as a most violent corrugator and stimulus.

Alkoson. Camphire.

ALKI PLUMBI. Supposed to be acetat

ALKYMIA. Powder of basilisk.

ALLABOR. Lead.

ALLANTOIDES MEMBRANA. (Allantoides; from annos, a hog's pudding, and usos, likeness; because, in some brute animals, it is long and thick.) A membrane of the fœtus, peculiar to brutes, which contains the urine discharged from the bladder.

ALLELUIA. (Heb. Praise the Lord.) The acetosa, or wood-sorrel; so named from

its many virtues. See Acetocella.
ALL-GOOD. English mercury. The vulgar name for the Chenopodium bonus Henricus of Linnæus; a plant which may be boiled for spinach, and which is in no degree inferior to it.

.All-heal. See Heraclium and Stachys.

ALLIARIA. (From allium, garlick; from its smell resembling garlick.) Jack of the hedge. Sauce-alone, or stinking hedge-mustard. The plant to which this name is given, in the Pharmacopæias, is the Erysis mum alliaria ; foliis cordatis of Linnæus; it is sometimes exhibited in humid asthma and dyspnæa, with success. Its virtues are powerfully diaphoretic, diuretic, and antiscorbutic.

ALLICAR. Vinegar.

ALLICOA. Petroleum.

ALLIGATURA. A ligature, or bandage. ALLIOTICUM. (From anxiow, to alter, or vary.) An alterative medicine, consisting of various antiscorbutics. Gulen.

ALLIUM. (From oleo, to smell, because it stinks; or from axen, to avoid, as being unpleasant to most people ) Garlick.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Hexandria. Order,

Monogynia. Garlick. 2. The Pharmacopæial name of garlick. Theriaca rusticorum. Allium sativum of Linnæus:—caule planifolio bulbifero, bulbo composito, staminibus tricuspidatis. This species of garlick, according to Linnæus, grows spontaneously in Sicily; but, as it is much employed for culinary and medicinal purposes, it has been long very generally cultivated in gardens. Every part of the plant, but more especially the root, has a pungent acrimonious taste, and a peculiarly offensive strong smell. This odour is extremely penetrating and diffusive; for, on the root being taken into the stomach, the alliaceous scent impregnates the whole system, and is discoverable in the various excretions, as in the urine, perspiration, milk, &c. Garlick is generally allied to the onion, from which it seems only to differ in being more powerful in its effects, and in its active matter, being in a more fixed state. By stimulating the stomach they both far your digestion, and, as a stimulus, are readily diffused over the system. They may, therefore, be considered as useful condiments with the food of phlegmatic people, or those whose circulation is languid and secretions interrupted; but with those subject to inflammatory complaints, or where great irritability prevails, these roots, in their acrid state, may prove very hurtful. The medicinal uses of garlick are various; it has been long in estimation as an expectorant in petuitous asthmas, and other pulmonary affections, unattended with inflammation. In hot bilious constitutions, therefore, garlick is improper: for it frequently produces flatulence, head-ach, thirst, heat, and other inflammatory symptoms. A free use of it is said to promote the piles in habits disposed to this complaint. Its utillity as a diuretic in dropsies is attested by unquestionable authorities; and its febrifuge power has not only been experienced in preventing the paroxysms of intermittents, (Bergius says quartans have been cured by it; and he begins by giving one bulb, or clove, morning and evening, adding every day one more, till four or five cloves be taken at a dose: if the fever then vanishes, the dose is to be diminished, and it will be sufficient to take one, or even two cloves, twice a day, for some weeks;) but even in subduing the plague. Another virtue of garlick is that of an anthelminthic. It has likewise been found of great advantage in scorbutic cases, and in calculous disorders, acting in these, not only as a diuretic, but, in several instances, mainfesting a lithrontriptic power. the juice of alliaceous plants in general, has considerable effects upon human calculi, is to be inferred by the experiments of Lobb; and we are abundantly warranted in as-

serting, that a decoction of the beards of

leeks, taken liberally, and its use persevered in for a length of time, has been found remarkably successful in calculous and gravelly complaints." The penetrating and diffusive acrimony of garlick, renders its external application useful in many disorders, as a rubefacient, and more especially as applied to the soles of the feet, to cause a revulsion from the head or breast, as was successfully practised and recommended by Sydenham. As soon as an inflammation appears, the garlick cataplasm should be removed, and one of bread and milk be applied, to obviate excessive pain. Garlick has also been variously employed externally, to tumours and cutaneous diseases; and, in certain cases of deafness, a clove, or small bulb of this root, wrapt in gauze or muslin, and introduced into the meatus auditorius, has been found an efficacious remedy. Garlick may be administered in different forms; swallowing the clove entire, after being dipped in oil, is recommended as the most effectual, or, where this cannot be done, by cutting it into pieces without bruising it, may be found to answer equally well, producing thereby no uneasiness in the fauces. On being beaten up, and formed into pills, the active parts of this medicine soon evaporate; this Dr. Woodville, in his Medical Botany, notices, on the authority of Cullen, who thinks that Lewis has fallen into a gross error, in supposing dried garlick more active than fresh. The syrup and oxymel of garlick, which formerly had a place in the British Pharmacopæias, are now expunged. It may be necessary to notice that, by some, the cloves of garlick are bruised and applied to the wrists, to cure agues, and to the bend of the arm, to cure the tooth-ache: when held in the hand, they are said to relieve hiccough; when beat with common oil into a poultice, they resolve sluggish humours; and, if laid on the navels of children, they are supposed to destroy

worms in the intestines. ALLIUM CEPA. The systematic name for the Cepa of the shops. See Cepa.

ALLIUM PORRUM. The systematic name for the Porrum of the pharmacopæias. See Porrum.

ALLIUM SATIVUM. The systematic name

for Allium. See Allium.

ALLIUM VICTORIALIS. The systematic name for the Victoralis longa of the pharmacopœias. See Victoralis longa.

Allochoos. (From αλλος, another, and ληω, to speak.) Hippocrates uses this word

to mean delirious.

Alloesis. (From annos, another.) teration in the state of a disease.

ALLOETICA. (From anaos, another.) Al-Medicines which change the appearance of the disease.

Allognosis (From αλλος, another, and γνοω, to know.) Delirium; perversion of the judgment; incapability of distinguishing persons.

ALLOPHASIS. (From and another, and φαω, to speak,) According to Hippocrates, a delirium, where the patient is not able to

distinguish one thing from another.

Allotriophagia. (From αλλοθείος, foreign, and φαγω, to eat.) A synonym of pica. See Pica. In Vogel's Nosology it signifies the greedily eating unusual things

for food.

ALLOYS. By this word, chymists and artificers commonly understand any portion of base metal, or metalic mixture, which is added to combine metals by fusion into one seemingly homogeneous mass.

Allspice. See Pimento.

ALMA. Water; and the first motion of a fætus to free itself from its confinement.

ALMABRI. A stone-like amber.

Almagra. Bolum cuprum.

1. Red earth, or other, used by the ancients as an astringent.

2. Rulandus says it is the same as Lotio. 3. In the Theatrum Chymicum it is a name for the white sulphur of the al-

chymists.

Almaranda. Almakis. Litharge.

Almanda cathartica. A plant growing on the shores of Cayenne and Surinam, used by the inhabitants as a remedy for the colic; supposed to be cathartic.

ALMARCAB. (Arab.) Litharge of silver. ALMACARIDA. Litharge of silver.

ALMARGEN. Almarago. Coral.

ALMARKASITA. Mercury. Almartak. Powder of litharge.

AMATATICA. Copper.

ALMECASITE. Almechasite. Copper.

ALMEAILETU. A word used by Avicenna, to express a preternatural heat less than that of fever, and which may continue after a fever.

Almene. Sal lucidum, or sal gemmæ. Almisa. Musk.

Almizabin. Verdigris, or muriat of ammonia.

Almizadar. Muriat of Ammonia. Almond, bitter. See Amygdala. Almond, common. See Amygdala. Almond, sweet. See Amygdala.

ALMONDS OF THE EARS. A popular name for the tonsils, which have been so called from their resemblance to an almond in shape. See Tonsils.

ALMONDS OF THE THROAT. name for the tonsils.

ALNABATI. In Avicenna and Scorpion, this word means the siliquadulcis, a gentle

ALNEC. Stannum, or tin.

ALNEIUC. Sulphur vivum.

ALNUS. (Alno, Ital.) The alder.

The pharmacopæial name of two plants, sometimes used in medicine, though rarely employed in the present practice.

Alnus rotundifolio; glutinosa; viridis; the common alder tree, called amendanus.

Alnus nigra, vel frangula; the rhamnus

frangula of Linnæus. The black alder, called also aunus,

All the parts of these trees are astringent and bitter. The bark is most astringent; a decoction of it has cured agues, and is often used to repel inflammatory tumours of the throat, by way of gargle. The inner yellow bark of the trunk, or root, given to 3ij., vomits, purges, and gripes; but, joined with aromatics, it operates more agreea-An infusion or decoction in water inspissated to an extract, act yet more mildly than these. The berries of alder are purgative. They are not in use under their own name, but are often substituted for buck-thorn berries; to discover which, it should be observed, that the berries of the black alder have a black skin, a blue juice, and two seeds in each of them; whereas the buckthorn berries have a green juice, and commonly four seeds. The substitution of one for the other is not of material consequence, as the plants belong to the same genus, and the berries do not differ greatly.

Dr. Murray, of Göttingen, recommends from his own experience, the leaves of alder chopped in small pieces, and heated over the fire, as the best remedy with which he is acquainted for dispersing milk in the breasts.

Aloe. See Aloes.

ALOEDARIA. (From αλοπ, the aloe.) Compound purging medicines so called from having aloes as the chief ingredient.

ALOEPHANGINA. Medicines formed by a combination of aloes and aromatics.

ALOES. (From ahlah, a Hebrew word, signifying growing near the sea.) The Aloe.

A genus of plants of the Linnaan system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Monogynia.
 The pharinacopaid name of the in-

spissated juice of some of the aloe plants. Fel nature, nature's gall; so named from its intense bitterness. Aloes are distinguished into three species, socotorine, hepatic, and cabaline; of which the two first are directed for officinal use in our pharmacopæias.

The 1st. Aloes Succotorina vel Zocotorina. Succotorine aloes, is obtained from the Aloe perfoliata of Linnæus:-foliis caulinis dentatis, amplexicanlibus vaginantibus, floribus corymbosis, cernuis, pedunculatis, subcylindricis: it is brought over wrapt in skins, and is of a bright surface and in some degree pellucid; in the lump, of a yellowish red colour, with a purplish cast; when reduced into powder, it is of a golden colour. It is hard and friable in very cold weather; but in summer it softens very easily betwixt the fingers. It is extremely bitter and also accompanied with an aromatic flavour, but not so much as to cover its disagrecable taste. Its scent, though bitter, is rather agreeable, being somewhat similar to that of myrrh.

2. Aloes hepatica, vel Barbadensis: the common or Barbadoes or hepatic aloes. Noe perfoliata of Linixus:—floribus pedun-

culatis, cernuis corymbosis, subcylindricis, foliis spinosis, confertis, dentatis, vaginantibus,
planis, maculatis. The best is brought from
Barbadoes in large gourd shells; an inferior
sort in pots, and the worst in casks. It is
darker coloured than the socotorine, and not
so bright; it is also drier and more compact, though sometimes the sort in casks is
soft and clammy. To the taste it is intensely
bitter and nauseous, being almost wholly
without that aroma which is observed in the
socotorine. To the smell it is strong and
disagreeable.

3. Aloes caballina vel Guineensis; Horsealoes. This is easily distinguished from both the foregoing by its strong rank smell; in other respects it agrees pretty much with the hepatic, and is now not unfrequently sold in its place. Sometimes it is prepared so pure and bright as scarcely to be distinguishable by the eye, even from the socotorine, but its offensive smell betrays it; and if this also should be dissipated by art, its wanting the aromatic flavour of the finer aloes will be a sufficient criterion. This aloe is not admitted into the materia medica, and is not employed chiefly by farriers.

The general nature of these three kinds is nearly the same. Their particular differences only consist in the different proportions of gum to their resin, and in their flavour. The smell and taste reside principally in the gum, as do the principal virtues of the aloes. Twelve ounces of Barbadoes aloes yields nearly 4 ounces of resin, and 8 of gummy extract. The same quantity of socotorine aloes yields 3 ounces of

resin and 9 of gummy extract.

Alocs is a well known stimulating purgative, a property which it possesses not only when taken internally, but also by external application. The cathartic quality of aloes does not reside in the resinous part of the drug, but in the gum, for the pure resin has little or no purgative power. Its medium dose is from 5 to 15 grains, nor does a larger quantity operate more effectually. Its operation is exerted on the large intestines, principally on the rectum. In small doses long continued, it often produces much heat, and irritation, particu-larly about the anus, from which it sometimes occasions a bloody discharge; therefore, to those who are subject to piles, or of an hæmorrhagic diathesis, or even in a state of pregnancy, its exhibition has been productive of considerable mischief; but on the contrary, by those of a phlegmatic constitution, or those suffering by uterine obstructions (for the stimulant action of aloes, it has been supposed, may be extended to the uterus,) and in some cases of dyspepsia, palsy, gout, and worms, aloes may be employed as a laxative with peculiar advantage. In all diseases of the bilious tribe, aloes is the strongest purge, and the best preparations for this purpose are the

pilula ex aloe cum myrrhâ, the tinctura aloes, or extractum colocynthidis compositum. Its efficacy in jaundice is very considerable, as it proves a succedaneum to the bile, which in that disease is defective either in quantity or quality. Aloes therefore may be considered as injurious where inflammation or irritation exist in the bowels or neighbouring parts, in pregnancy, or in habits disposed to piles, but highly serviceable in all hypochondriac affections, cachectic habits, and persons labouring under oppression of the stomach caused by irregularity: Aromatics correct the offensive qualities of aloes the most perfectly. The canella alba answers tolerably, and without any inconvenience; but some rather prefer the essential oils for this purpose. Dr. Cullen says, "If any medicine be entitled to the appellation of a stomach purge, it is certainly aloes. It is remarkable with regard to it, that it operates almost to as good a purpose in a small as in a large dose; that 5 grains will produce one considerable dejection, and 20 grains will do no more, except it be that in the last dose the operation will be attended with gripes, &c. Its chief use is to render the peristaltic motion regular, and it is one of the best cures in habitual costiveness. There is a difficulty we meet with in the exhibition of purgatives viz. that they will not act but in their full dose, and will not produce half their effect if given in half the dose. For this purpose we are chiefly confined to aloes. Neutral salts in half their dose will not have half their effect; although even from these, by large dilution, we may obtain this property; but besides them and our present medicine, I know no other which has any title to it except sulphur. Aloes sometimes cannot be employed. It has the effect of stimulating the rectum more than other purges, and with justice has been accused of exciting hæmorrhoidal swellings, so that we ought to abstain from it in such cases, except when we want to promote them. Aloes has the effect of rarefying the blood and disposing to hamorrhagy, and hence it is not recommended in uterine fluxes. Fætid gums are of the same nature in producing hamorrhagy, and perhaps this is the foundation of their emmenagogue power." Aloes is administered either simply in powders, which is too nauseous, or else in composition: -1. With purgatives, as soap, scammony, colocynth, or rhubarb. 2. With aromatics, as canella, ginger, or essential oils. 3. With bitters, as gentian. 4. With emmenagogues, as iron, myrrh, wine, &c. It may be exhibited in pills as the most convenient form, or else dissolved in wine, or diluted alcohol. The officinal preparations of aloes are the following-Pilula Aloes. Pilula Aloes cum Assafætidå. Pil. Al. cum Colocynth. Al. cum Myrrh. T. Aloes. T. Al. Æth. T. Al. cum Myrrh. Vin. Aloes Soc. Pil.

Aloes comp. Pulv. Aloes cum Canell. Pulv. Al. cum Guaiac. Pulv. Al. cum Ferro. Tinct. Aloes comp. Ext. Colocynth. comp. Tinct. Benzoes, comp. and some others.

ALOETICS. Medicines wherein aloes is

the chief or fundamental ingredient.

ALOGOTROPHIA. (From axeyes, dispraportionate, and τεεφω, to nourish.) Unequal nourishment, as in the rickets.

ALOHAB. (Arab.) Alohoc. Mercury. ALOES LIGNUM. See Lignum Aloes.

ALOMBA. (Arab.) Alooc. Plumbum, or

ALOPECES. (From αλαπηξ, the fox.) The psoa muscles are so called, by Fallopius and Vesalius, because in the fax they are particularly strong.

ALOPECIA. (from αλωπήξ, a fox; because the fox is subject to a distemper that resembles it: or, as some say, because the fox's urine will occasion baldness.) Athrix depilis. Phalacrotis. Baldness, or the falling off of the hair; when on the sinciput, calvities, calvitium.

Alosa. (From αλισκω, to take; because it is a ravenous fish.) The chad, Clupea alosa of Linnæus, whose flesh is by some commended as a restorative.

ALOSAT. Alosohoc. Quicksilver.

Alosantho. (From aλs, salt, and aνθος, a flower.) Alosanthum. Flowers of salt.

ALPHABETICUM CHYMICUM. Raymond Lully hath given the world this alphabet. but to what end is difficult to say:

A significat Deum. B — Mercurium C — Salis Petram. D - Vitriolum. E - Menstruale. F \_\_\_\_ Janam claram. G - Mercurium nostrum. H - Salem purum. 1 - Compositium Luna. K - Compositum Solis. L - Terran compositi Luna.

L — Terran compositi Lunæ.

M — Aquam compositi Lunæ.

N — Ærem compositi Lunæ.

O — Terram compositi Solis.

P — Aquam compositi Solis.

R — Ignem compositi Solis.

S — Lapidem Album

T — Medicinam corporis rubel.

U — Calorem fumi secreti.

X — Jenem sicrum cinario.

X - Ignem siccum cineris.

Y — Calorem balnei.

Z — Separationem liquorum. Z — Alembicum cum cucurbita. Alphanic. Alphenic. An Arabian

word (signifying tender) for barley-sugar, or sugar-candy.

Alphita. (Alphita, the plural of αλφίτον, the meal of barley in general.) By Hippocrates this term is applied to barley-meal either toasted or fried. Galen says that xeruva is coarse meal, axeopov is fine meal. and anoura is a middling sort. .

ALPHITIDON. Alphitidum. It is when a bone is broken into small fragments like

Alphita, i. e. bran.

ALPHONSIN. The name of an instrument for extracting balls. It is so called from the name of its inventor Alphonso Ferricr, a Neapolitan physician. It consists of three branches, which separate from each other by their clasticity, but are capable of being closed by means of a tube in which they are included.

ALPHUS. (αλφος, from αλφαινώ, to change; because it changes the colour of the skin.) Vitiligo alba. Morphea alba. Lepra maculosa alba. A species of leprosy, called by the ancients vitiligo, and which they divided into alphus, melas, and leuce. It is produced by a peculiar miasma, which is endemial to Arabia. See Lepra.

ALPINI BALSAMUM. Balm of Gilead.

ALRACHAS. Lead.

ALRATICA. A word used by Albueasis, to signify a partial or a total imperforation of the vagina. It is an Arabic word.

An Arabie name for the ALSAMACH.

great hole in the os petrosum.

ALSINE. (From alkos, a grove; so called because it grows in great abundance in woods and shady places.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Trigynia. Chiekweed.

ALSINE MEDIA. Morsus gallinæ cen-tunculus. The name for the plant, called chickweed, which, if boiled tender, may be caten like spinaeli, and forms also an excellent emollient poultice.

ALTAFOR. Campliire.

ALTERATIVES. (Alterantia, sc. medicamenta: from altero, to change.) Those remedies are so called, which are given with a view to re-establish the healthy functions of the animal oconomy, without producing any sensible evacuation.

ALTHÆA. (From αλθεω, to lieal; 50 called from its supposed qualities in heal-

ing.) Marsh-mallow.

1. The name of a genus of plants of the Linnæan system. Class, Monadelphia. Or-

der, Polyandria.

2. The pharmaeopæial name of the marsh-mallow. Althea officinalis of Linnæus:-foliis simplicibus tomentosis.

mon marsh-mallow.

The mucilaginous 'matter with which this plant abounds, is the medicinal part of the plant: it is commonly employed for its emollicat and demulcent qualities in tickling coughs, hoarseness, and catarrhs, in dysentery, and difficulty and heat of urine. It relaxes the passages in nephritic complaints, in which last ease a decoction is the Two or three ounces of best preparation. the fresh roots may be boiled in a sufficient quantity of water to a quart, to which one ouce of gum-arabic may be added. following is given where it is required that

large quantities should be used. An ounce of the dried roots is to be boiled in water enough to leave two or three pints to be poured off for use: if more of the root be used, the liquor will be disagreeably slimy. If swectened, by adding a little more of the root of liquorice, it will be very palatable. The root had formerly a place in many of the compounds in the pharmacopæias, but now it is only directed in the form of syrup.

ALTHEA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the marsh-mallow. See Althou, ALTHANACA. Althanacha. Orpiment.

ALTHEBEGIUM. An Arabian name for a sort of swelling, such as is observed in eachectic and leuco-phlegmatic habits.

(From albew, to cure, or ALTHEXIS. Hippocrates often uses this word to

signify the cure of a distemper.

So Avicenna ealls the Laser. ALTIHIT. pitium of the ancients.

ALUD. (Arab.) Alocs.

Alunels. Hollow spheres of stone, glass, or earthen-ware, with a short neek projecting at each end, by means of which one globe might be set upon the other. The uppermost has no opening at the top. They were used in former times for the sublimation of several substances.

Alum. See Alumen.

ALUMEN. (Alum. Arab.) Assos, azub, Sulphas elumina acidulus, aseb, elanula. cum potassâ. Super-sulphas aluminæ et po-

tassæ. Argilla vitriolata. Alum.

A neutral salt, formed by the combination of the carth called alumine, or pure clay, with sulphurie acid, and a little pot-

ash.

The alum of commerce, and that presented for medicinal purposes, is afforded by ores which are dug out of the earth for this purpose, and manufactured by first decomposing the ore, then lixiviating it, cvaporating the lixiviums, and then crystallizing the alum, which affects the form of tetrahedral pyramids, applied to each other base to base; sometimes the angles are truncated.

The following kinds of alum are met with

in the shops:

1. Ice or rock alum. Alumen commune: alumen crystallinum, rupeum, factitium. Common alum; fictitious alum: English alum. This is always in very large transparent masses, and derives its name from Roeca in Syria, now called Edessa, in which the earliest manufactory of this salt was established; or from the hardness and size the masses. This species is not very pure.

2. Roman alum. Alumen Romanum: alumen rubrum rutilum, rochi Gallis. Called rock alum by the French. This species, which is prepared in the territory of Civita-Vecelia, comes in lumps of the size of eggs, covered with a reddish efflorescence.

Alum, when first tasted, imparts a sweetness, but is soon felt to be strongly astringent; on account of which virtue it is of very extensive use in medicine and sur-

Internally it is used as a powerful astringent in cases of passive hamorrhages from the womb, intestines, nose, and sometimes lungs. In bleedings of an active nature, i. e. attended with fever, and a plethoric state of the system, it is highly improper. Percival recommends it in the colica pictonum and other chronic disorders of the bowels, attended with obstinate constipa-tion. See Percival's Essays. The dose advised in these cases, is from 5 to 20 grains, to be repeated every four, eight, or twelve hours. When duly persisted in, this remedy proves gently laxitive, and mitigates the

Alum is also powerfully tonic, and is given with this view in 10 grains of alum made into a bolus three times a day, in such cases as require powerful tonic and astringent remedies. Another mode of administering it, is in the form of whey made by boiling a drachm of powdered alum in a pint of milk, for a few minutes, and to be taken in the quantity of a tea-cup full three times a day. Dr. Cullen thinks it ought to be employed with other astringents in diarrhœas. In active hæmorrhagies, as was observed, it is not useful, though a powerful medicine in those which are passive. It should be given in small doses, and gradually increased. It has been tried in the diabetes without success; though, joined with nutmeg, it has been more successful in intermittents given in a large dose, an hour or a little longer, before the approach of the paroxysm. In gargles, in relaxation of the uvula, and other swellings of the mucous membrane of the fauces, divested of acute inflammation, it has been used with advantage; also in every state of the cynanche tonsillaris. Externally alum is much employed by surgeons as a lotion for the eyes, and is said to be preferable to white vitriol, or acetated ceruse in the ophthalmia membranarum. From two to five grains dissolved in an ounce of rose water, forms a proper collyrium. It is also applied as a styptic to bleeding vessels, and to ulcers, where there is too copious a secretion of pus. It has proved successful in inflammation of the eyes, in the form of cataplasm, which is made by stirring or shaking a lump of alum in the whites of two eggs, till they form a coagulum, which is applied to the eye between two pieces of thin linen rag. This substance is also employed in the form of injection in cases of gleet or fluor albus.

When deprived of its humidity by exposure to the fire, by placing it in an earthen pan over a gentle fire, till it ceases to bubble, it is termed burnt alum, alumen ustrum, and is sometimes employed by surgeons to destroy fungous flesh, and is a principle ingredient in most styptic powders. is also applied to many purposes of life; in

this country, bakers mix a quantity with the bread, to render it white; this mixture makes the bread better adapted for weak and relaxed bowels; but in opposite states of the alimentary canal, this practice is highly pernicious. The officinal preparations of alum are: Alumen purificatum. Lond. Sulphas aluminis exsiccata. Soluti sulphat. cupri ammon. Eding. Aq. alum. comp. Lond. ALUMEN CATINUM. A name of potash.

ALMEN USTRUM. See Alumen. Earth of alum, ALUMINE. Alumina.

Pure clay.

Aluminous earth derives its name from alum, of which it forms the base. It constitutes the lower strata of mountains and plains. It arrests the waters, and causes them to rise in springs to the surface of the earth. It enters into the natural composition of the schistus, and all these stones and earths called argillaceous, such as potter's-clay, fuller's-earth, lepidolite, mica, corundum, &c. Hitherto it has not been found pure any where, except in the garden of the public schools at Halle in Germany.

Properties of pure Alumine.-Alumine is white, and soft to the touch. It is insipid, adheres to the tongue, and occasions a sense of dryness in the mouth. When moistened with a small quantity of water, it forms a tenacious, ductile, kneadable paste. When heated to redness, it shrinks considerably in bulk, and at last becomes so hard as to strike fire with flint. After being ignited, it is no longer capable of being kneaded with water into a ductile It recovers however this property by solution in an acid and precipitation. Alcalies dissolve it in the humid way, and form compounds decomposable by acids. It dissolves slowly in all acids. It possesses a powerful attraction for lime. most intense heat of our furnaces is not able to melt it, but it becomes fusible when lime is added. Lavoisier has proved that it is capable of entering into a kind of fusion like paste, by the action of oxygen gas; it then cuts glass and resists the file. It absorbs water and carbonic acid from the atmosphere. By its mixture with water and silex it acquires great solidity. It does not unite with any combustible substance, but it becomes fused into coloured frits with metallic oxyds. Its specific gravity is 2. It is employed in a multitude of arts.

Method of obtaining pure alumine. - Take any quantity of alum of commerce, dissolve it in six parts of boiling distilled water, and add to this solution, when cold, liquid ammonia, till no further precipitate ensues. Then heat the whole nearly to the boiling point for a few minutes, and transfer it on a filter. In proportion as the fluid passes off, pour more water over the precipitate, until it passes tasteless. Let the precipitate obtained, while yet in a pasty state,

be transferred into a glass or Wedgwood's bason, and add to it muriatic acid in small quantitities at a time, until the whole is dissolved. Then evaporate the solution, till a drop of it, when suffered to cool on a plate of glass, yields minute crystals: on letting it now cool, crystals of alum will be deposited. Remove these crystals by decanting the fluid, and renew the evaporation, until, on further cooling, no more crystals are formed. Nothing now but pure alumine remains in the solution; the fluid may therefore be decomposed by adding to it gradually liquid ammonia till no further precipitate ensues. The precipitate thus obtained, when well washed and dried, is pure alumine.

The process recommended in general by systematic writers for obtaining alumine, differs from this; it consists in decomposing a solution of alum of commerce by an excess of a carbonated alkali, washing the obtained precipitate, and exposing it to a sufficient heat to drive off the carbonic This method however is imperfect, for if the alumine thus obtained be heated with charcoal, and a diluted acid is added to the mixture, sulphurated hydrogen gas will be liberated. It adheres to the tongue, and emits a peculiar odour when breathed upon. Sure signs that it is not pure.

It must be obvious that alumine cannot he obtained absolutely pure in this manner. For alum is a triple compound, consisting of alumine, potash, and sulphuric acid in excess. When this excess of acid is saturated, by adding to the solution an alkali, or even pure alumine, a highly insoluble salt (sulphate of alumine) is produced, differing from alum only in the proportion of its base. When we therefore gradually add to a solution of alum, a carbonated alkali, the first effect of the alkali is, to saturate the excess of the sulphuric acid, and the precipitate consists principally of the salt which is insoluble in water. A further quantity of the alkali effects instantly a decomposition of part of the salt, which, in proportion as it takes place, becomes mixed with the alumine: and it is thus covered from the further action of the alkali. This being the case, it is obvious that no subsequent washing can do more than separate the sulphate of potash, and therefore the residuum, instead of being pure alumine, contains also a variable proportion of true sulphate of alumine; the sulphuric acid of which becoming decomposed on heating it in contact with charcoal, accounts for the sulphurated hidrog n gas produced by the affusion of an acid. With the seids it is known to form more than twenty species of neutral salts. Of these only one is used in medicine and surgery, called alum, or aluminous, sulphata. See Alumen.

ALUMINOUS WATERS. Waters impreg-

nated with particles of alum.

ALUSAR. Manua.

ALVEARIUM. (From alveare, a beehive.) That part of the meatus auditorius externus is so called, which contains the wax of the ear.

(From alveare, a bee-hive; ALVEOLI. from their resemblance to its cells.) trion, bothrion; frena, mortariolum. sockets of the teeth. There are usually sixteen of these alveoli, or sockets, in each jaw.

ALVEUS COMMUNIS. The common duct, or communication of the ampullæ of the membranaceous semicircular canals in the internal ear, is so termed by Scarpa.

ALVEUS AMPULEASCENS. Part of the duct conveying the chyle to the subclavian vein. ALVIDUCA. (From alvus, the belly, and

duco, to draw.) Purging medicines.

ALVIFLUXUS. (From alvns, and fluo, to

flow.) A diarrhea, or purging.

ALVUS. The belly, stomach and entrails.

Asyce. (From αλυω, to be anxious.) That anxiety which is attendant on low fevers.

Λεγρια. (From a, neg. and λυπη, pain.) A gentle purgation of the humours without

ALYPIAS. Alypum. A species of spurge, so called because it purges gently and with-

ALYSMUS. (From axva, to be restless.) Restlessness.

ALYSSUM. (From a, neg. and Ausoa, the bite of a mad dog: so called because it was foolishly thought to be a specific in the cure of the bite of a mad dog.) Mad-wort. The Marrnbium alysson of Linnaus, supposed by some to be diaphoretio.

ALYSSUM GALENI. The marrubium.

ALYSSUM PLINII. The mollugo. ALYSSUM VERTICILLATUM. The marrie-

bium verticillatum. ALZEMAFOR. Cinnabar.

ALZUM. Aldum. Aldrum. The name of the tree which produces gum bdellium according to some ancient authors,

AMA. Together. A word used in composition.

AMALGAM. (From aua, and yaues, to marry.) A substance produced by mixing mercury with a metal, the two being thereby incorporated.

(From aux, and ushex, an AMAMELIS. apple.) The bastard medlar of Hippo-

AMANITE. (From a, priv. and maria, madness; so called, because they are eatable and not poisonous, like some others.) A tribe of fungus productions, called mushrooms, truffles, and morells, and by the French, champignions.

AMARA (Amura, sc. medicamenta: from

amarus, bitter.) Bitters.

The principal bitters used medicinally are: the pure bitters, gentiana lutea; humulus lupulus; and quassia amara: stypic bitters, cinchona officinalis; croton cascarilla: quassia

simarouba: and aromatic bitters, artimesia absynthium; anthemis nobilis: hyssopus, &c.

AMARA DULCIS. See Dulcemara.

AMARACUS. (From a, neg. and paparow to decay; because it keeps its virtues a long time.) Marjoram.

AMARANTHUS. (From the same.) The

herb goldilocks.

AMARANTH ESCULENT. The leaves of the amaranthus oleraceous of Linnæus, and several other species, are eaten in Iudia the same as cabbage is here.

AMARANTHUS ÓLERACEUS. See Amaranth.

esculent.

AMATORIA FEBRIS. (From amo, to love.) See Chlorosis.

AMATORIA VENEFICA. (From amo, to love, and veneficium, witchcraft.) Philters. Love-powders.

(Amatorii, sc. musculi.) AMATORII. term given to the muscles of the eye, by which that organ is moved in ogling.

AMATZQUITL. (Indian.) Unedo papyracea. The arbutus unedo of Linnæus. decoction of the bark of the root of this

plant is commended in fevers.

AMAUROSIS. (Αμαυρωσις: from αμαυροω, to darken or obscure.) Gutta serena. Amblyopia. A total loss of sight without any visible injury to the eye, the pupil mostly dilated and immoveable. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysæsthesix of Cullen. It arises generally from compression of the optic nerves; amaurosis compressionis; from debility, amaurosis atonica; from spasm, amaurosis spasmodica; or from poisons, amaurosis venenata. also Gutta serena.

Amber seed. See Hibiscus abelmoschus.

AMBE. (Auch, the edge of a rock; from ausauw, to ascend.) An old chirurgical machine for reducing dislocations of the shoulder, and so called, because its extremity projects like the prominence of a rock. Its invention is imputed to Hippocrates. The ambe is the most ancient mechanical contrivance for the above purpose, but is not at present employed.

Ambela. (Arab) The cornered hazlenut, the bark of which is purgative.

AMBER. Succinum. A beautiful bituminous substance, of a yellow or brown colour, either transparent or opake, which takes a good polish, and, after a slight rubbing, becomes so electric, as to attract straws and small bodies; hence it was called electrum by the ancients, and hence the word electricity. When powdered, it emits an agreeable smell. It is dug out of the earth at various depths, and often contains insects in high preservation; a circumstance which proves that it has been liquid. Amber is also found floating on the shores of the Baltic, and is met with in Italy, Sicily, Poland, Sweden, &c. From its colour or opacity it has been variously distinguished; thus white, orange, golden,

cloudy amber, &c. An oil is obtained from it, which, as well as its other preparations, is occasionally used in medicine against spasmodic diseases.

AMBERGRIS. (Ambragrisea.) A concrete, bituminous substance, of a soft and tenacious consistence, marked with black and yellow spots, and of an agreeable and strong smell when heated or rubbed. It is found in very irregular masses, floating on the sea near the Molucca Islands, Madagascar, Sumatra, on the coast of Coromandel, Brazil, America, China, and Japan. ral American fishermen assured Dr. Schwediawer, that they often found this substance, either among the excrements of the Physeter macrocephalus, a species of whale, or in its stomach, or in a vessel near the sto-The medical qualities of ambergris are stomachic, cordial, and antispasmodic. It is very seldom used in this country.

Amblosis. (Αμέλωσις: from αμέλοω, to

cause abortion.) A miscarriage.

Amblotica, (Amblotica, sc. medicamenta, αμβλοτικα: from αμβλοω, to cause abortion.) Medicines which were supposed to occasion abortion.

AMBLYOPIA. (From augaus, dull, and ω, the eye.) Hippocrates means by this word, dimness, of sight to which old people are subject. Paulus Actuarius, and the best modern writers, seem to think that amblyopia means the same thing as the incomplete amaurosis. See Gutta serena and Amaurosis.

Amblyosmus. Amblytes. The same.

Ambo. (Indian.) The mango.

(From aucaira, to ascend.) Celsus uses this term to signify, the margin or tip of the sockets in which the heads of the large bones are lodged.

AMBONE. The same as ambe.

AMBRA. Amber. Also an aromatic gum. AMBILA CINRACEA. (From cineraceus, of the colour of ashes.) Ambergris and grey amber.

AMBRA GRISEA. Ambergris.

AMBRAM. Amber.

AMBRETTE. See Abelmoschus.

Ambulativa. (From ambulo, to walk.) A species of herpes; so called because it walks or creeps as it were about the body

Ambulo. (From αμβαλλω, to cast forth.) Flatus furiosus. A periodical flatulent disease, caused, according to Michalis, by vapours shooting through various parts of the body.

AMBUSTIO. (From amburo, to burn.) Ambustiem. A burn or scald.

AMELIA. The same as achmella.

AMENORRHŒA. (From a, priv. and μην, a month, and ρεω, to flow ) A partial or total obstruction of the menses in women from other causes than pregnancy and old age. That this excrementitious discharge should be regular as to quantity and quality, and that it should observe the monthly period, is essential to health. When it is obstructed, nature makes her efforts to obtain for it some other outlet. When these efforts of nature fail, the consequence may be pyrexia, pulmonic diaeases, spasmodic affections, hysteria, epilepsia, mana, apoplexia, chlorosis, according to the general habit and disposition of the patient. Dr. Cullen places this genus in the class locales, and order epischeses. His species are, 1. Eman-sio mencium: that is, when the meases do not appear so early as is usually expected. See Chlorosis. 2. Suppressio mensium, when, after the menses appearing and continuing as usual for some time, they coise without pregnancy, occuring. 3. Amenorrhaa dificilis, vel Menorrhagia difficilis, who no tins flux is too small in quantity, and attended with great pain, &c.

AMENTIA. (From a, priv. and mens, the mind.) Imbeculity of intellect, by which the relations of things are either not perceived, or not recollected. A disease in the class neurous, and order vesanize of Cullen. When it originates at birth, it is called amentia congenita, natural studistic; when from the infirmities of age, amentia senills, dotage or child liness; and when from some accidental cause, amentia ac-

quisita.

American Balsam. See Balsamum Peruvianum.

America tuberose root. The potato. An America tuberose root.

AMETRYSTA PHARMACA. (From α, neg. and μεθυ, wine) Medicines which were said either to prevent or remove the effects of wine. Galen.

AMETHYSTUS. (From α, neg. and μεθυσκω, to be inebriated.) The amethyst. A precious stone, so called, because in former times, according to Plutrach, it was thought to prevent drunkenness. Ruland in Lex.Chem.

AMICULUM. A little short cloak. It is the same as the amnios, but anciently meant a covering for the pubes of boys, when they exercised in the gymnasium. Rhodius.

Amm. (A $\mu\mu$ ): from a $\mu\mu$ os, sand; from its likeness to little gravel-stones.) The herb bishop's-weed, of which there are two sorts, the anumi verum and vulgare.

Anmi walus. The systematic name for the ammi vulgare of the shops. See Ammi

pulgare.

AMMI VERUM. The seeds of this plant, Sison ammi of Linneus;—foliis tripinnatis, radicalibus linearibus, canlinis setaceis, stipilaribus longitoribus, have a grateful smell, somewhat like that of origanum, and were formerly administered as a carminative.

Ammi VULGARE. The seeds of this

AMMI VULGAIR. The seeds of this plant, Ammi majus, of Lunaeus;—foliis inferioribus pinnatis, lanceolatis, serratis; superioribus multifidis, linearibus, are less powerful than those of the Sison ammi, but were exhibited with the same views.

AMIDUM. See Amylum.

AMINEUM. A wine produced in Ami-

næa, formerly a province of Italy; called also Salernum. Also a strong wine vinegr. Galen mentions Aminæum Neapoltanum, and Aminæum Siculum.

AMMION. Ammium. Cinnabar.

Ammochosia. (From αμμος, sand, and χεω, to pour.) A remedy for drying the body by sprankling it with hot sand. On-housing

AMMONIA ACETATA. See Liquor . Immonie ace'atia.

AMMONIA MURIATA. See Muriate of announia.

AMMONIA PREPARATA. See Curbonas ammonie.

AMMONIA. Ammonia-gas. The substance so called, is an aeriform or gaseous body.

Pure ammonia was long supposed to be a compound of hydrogen and nitrogen, rendered gaseous by the addition of caioric; but from the experiments of Mr. Davy on the alkalis, it appears to be a metallic oxyd.

Ammonia-gas has a strong and very pungent odour. It extinguishes flame, yet it increases the magnitude of the flame of a taper before extinction, producing a pule yellow colour round its edge. Animals cannot breathe it without death ensuing. It is lighter than atmospheric air, in the proportion of three to five. It tinges yellow vegetable colours brown, and blue ones green. It is rapidly absorbed by cold water; by ardent spirit, essential oils, ether, charcoal, sponge, bits of linen cloth, and all porous bodies.

When a piece of ice is brought in contact with this gas, it melts and absorbs the gas, while at the same time its temperature is diminished. It has no effect upon oxygen gas while cold; but when made to pass with it through an ignited tube, it detonates and becomes decomposed. The same is the case with common air. It is also decomposed by phosphorus at high temperatures.

It does not explode when mixed with hydrogen gas. Nitrogen gas has no effect upon it. Atmospheric air does not combine with it at common temperatures, but only mixes with and dilutes it. When made to pass through ignited charcoal, it forms with it a substance called prussic acid. If brought into contact with acid gases, both gases lose their gaseous form, and become It has no sensible action on concrete. earths, or on the salino-terrene substances. It combines readily with acids, and unites to sulphur, when both are in a state of vapour. It reduces oxyds of metals to their inetalic state, and is decomposed by them It is all o decomposed by electrization, and by oxygenated muriatic acid gas, &c .--When exposed to the temperature of 46 degrees, it crystallizes, and when suddenly cooled down to 68 degrees, it assumes a gelatinous appearance, and has scargely any odour.

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Methods of obtaining Ammonia.—1. Mix together equal quantities of muriate of ammonia and quick-lime, separately powdered; introduce them into a gas-bottle or retort, apply the heat of a lamp, and receive

the gas over mercury.

Explanation.—Muriate of ammonia consists of muriatic acid and ammonia; on adding lime to it, a decomposition takes place, the mariatic acid quits the ammonia and unites to the lame, in order to form muriate of lime, which remains in the retort, and the ammonia flies off in the state of gas.

Remark.—In order to obtain the gas in a state of purity, it is essentially necessary that a considerable quantity of the gas first disengaged, be suffered to escape, on account of the common air contained in the distilling vessel, and in the interstices of the

ingredients.

2. Ammonia may likewise be obtained by heating the liquid aumonia of the shops (liquor of pure ammonia, Pharm. Lond) in a retort placed in communication with the mercurial pneumotic trough.

In this process the ammonia contained in this Lquid combines with caloric, assumes the form of ammonia-gas, and parts with the

water to which it was united.

Remark.—The temperature of the fluid must not be carried so high as to cause the water to be converted into vapour, or, if this cannot well be avoided, a small vessel should be interposed between the retort and the receiver, which, when kept cool, may serve to condense the aqueous vapour which is formed, and cause the ammonia gas to pass in a very pure and dry state.

Ammonia is likewise produced during the spontaneous decomposition of animal and vegetable substances; in these cases it did not pre exist in them ready formed, but is generated by the union of the hydrogen and nitrogen contained in them.

In combination with water, this alkali forms a solution of, or liquid ammonia, which is called, in the London pharmacopeia,

LIQUOR AMMONIE.

Take of muriate of ammonia,

Lime newly prepared, of each two pounds.

Water, a pint and a half.

Reflect the number of ammonia and the line into powder separately; then nix them, and introduce them into a large glass retort, into which a pint of water has been previously poured. Having placed the retort in a sand bath, lute on a tubulated receiver, through which the ammonia may pass on into a third vessel containing half a pint of the water, and cooled. Then at first apply a gentle heat, and increase it by degrees, until the retort becomes red.

Great care and attention are necessary in every part of this process; the two salts are to be powdered separately, before they are mixed; for, if they be triturated toge-

ther, ammonia will be extricated, which should be prevened, until the means for its collection are adopted. The salts are to be shaken well together, rather than rubbed, and added to the water in the report cold produced by the solution of the salt, will counteract the heat produced by the slacking of the lime, and a charge so made will be manageable until the receiver is fitted on, and the heat of the sand-bath applied. This heat need not be greater than 300 degrees, and should be very cantion ly and slowly ra sed, to prevent the rapid ebullition and expansion during the exprication from gas of a charge of such density; and for the same reason, a large retort is di-The ammonia ri-es immediately rected. in the form of gas, and a portion of the water is therefore placed in a situation to condense it; in the subsequent stages, water will arise from the charge in the retort. The third vessel directed in the formula, may be either a common bottle, fitting moderately (for no great pressure is necessary,) to a straight tube ssning from the bottom of the receiver, and dipping below the surface of the water it contains; or Woulf-'s apparatus may be used; but, with moderate attention, the simpler means will answer better, perhaps, than the more complex. In either case, the receiving-bottle must be kept cold by wet cloths, or ice; for the lower the temperature of the water, the greater quantity of ammonia-gas it will condense, and the condensation is accompanied by an increase of its heat. If two bottles, each containing half the quantity of water directed, be used, they will be most manageable, as they may be changed alternately, so as to prevent either from being overheated, and the contents of both may be mixed together at last. This preparation is colourless and transparent, with a strong poculiar smell; it parts with the ammonia in the form of gas, if heated to 130 degrees, and requires to be kept, with a cautious exclusion of atmospherical air, with the carbonic acid of which it readily unites : on this latter account, the propriety of keeping it small bottles instead of a large one, has been suggested. Water saturated with ammonia gas, has a less specific gravity than common water.

This is the aqua ammonie pura of the shop, and the alkali volatile causicum.

The preparations of amm nia in use are, 1. The corbonate of ammonia. See Carbonas ammonia, and Liquor carbonatis ammonia.

2. The acetate of ammonia. See Liquor acetatis ammoniæ.

3. The muriate of ammonia. See Mu-

4. Ferrum ammoniatum.

5. Several tinctures and spirits, holding carbonate of ammonia in solution.

AMMONIACUM. (Approviance: so called

from Ammonia, whence it was brought.) Gum-ammoniac. A concrete gummy-resinous juice, composed of little lumps, or tears, of a strong and somewhat ungraveful smell, and nauscous taste, followed by a bitterness. There has intherto, been no information had concerning the plant which affords this dring. It is imported here from Turkey, and from the East-Indies. Gumammoniacum is priscipally employed as an expectorant, and is ir quently prescribed in asthma and chronic caterrh. Its dose is from 10 to 30 grams. It is given in the form of a pill, or diffused in water, and is frequently combined with squill, or tardite of antimony. In large doses, it proves purgative. Ex emally, it is applied as a discutient, under the form o plaster, to white swellings of the knee, and to indolent tu-mours. The official preparations are: Ammoniacum punficatum: En plastrum ex ammoniaco cum hydragyro: Mistura am-

AMMONIÆ CARBONAS. See Carbonas ammoniæ.

Ammonie Murias. See Muriate of am-

Ammoniov. (From appec, sand.) Ætius uses this term to denote a collyrium of great virtue in many diseases of the eye, which was said to remove sand or gravel from the eves.

AMMONIUM. The metal which with oxygen torms the alkali called ammonia, See Ammonia.

AMNESIA. (From a, priv. and punge, memory.) Amnestia. Forgetfulness; mostly a symptomatic affection.

AMNESTIA. See Amnesia.

AMNIOS. Amnion. (From apros, a lamb, or lamb's skin ) The soft internal membrane which surrounds the fœtus. It is very thin and pellucid in the early stage of pregnancy, but acquires considerable thickness and strength in the latter months. The amnios contains a thin watery fluid, in which the factus is suspended. In the abortion of the early months, we find the quantity of this fluid very great, in proportion to the whole ovum, and the amnios forms a delicate and almost gelatinous substance, and is a provisio for the regular presentation of the head of the child; for now, the fætns being suspended in the fluid, and hanging by the umbilious, and the head and upper part of the body greatly preponderating, it takes that position with the head presenting to the orifice of the womb, which is recessary to natural and safe labour, the for us being prevented from shifting, in he latter months, by the closer embracing of the child with the uterus.

AMNIOTIC ACID Vauquelin and

Bun va have discovere l'a peculiar acid in the liquor of the amnios of the cow, to which they have given the name of ammotic

It exists in the form of a white pulverulent powder. It is slightly acid, but sensibly reddens vegetable blues. It is difficultly soluble in cold, but readily soluble in boiling water, and in alcohol. When exposed to a strong heat, it exhales a odour of ammonia and of prussic acid. Ass sted by he .t, it decomposes carbonate of po ash, soda, and ammonia. It produces no change in the solutions of silver, lead, or mercury, in hitric acid. Exposed to heat, it yields, ammonia and prussic acid.

Amniotic acid may be obtained by evaporating the liquor of the amnios of the cow to a fourth part, and suffering it to cool; crystals of amuiotic acid will be ob-

tained in considerable quantity.

Whether this acid exists in the liquor of the amnios of other animals, is not vet

Anomom. (From an Arabian word, signifying a pigeon, whose foot it was thought to resemble.) The fenit of the amomum verum, True stone parsley. It is about the size of a grape, of a strong and grateful aromatic taste and penetrating smell. The seeds have been given as a carminative.

Amonum cardamonum The systematic name for the curdamomum minus. See

Cardamomum minus

AMOMUM GRANUM PARADISI. The systematic name of the plant which affords the grains of paradise. See Grana paradisi.

AMOMUM ZINGIBER. The systematic name of the plant which affords ginger. See Zingiber. Amonge. See Amurca.

Ampelosagria. (From αμπέλος, a vinc.) Sec Bryonia.

AMPHUMERINOS. (From auqi, about, nusga, a day.) Amphemerina. A quotidian

fever. A species of ague.

AMPHARTHROSIS. (Αμφιαεθεωσις: from appa, both and aggass, an articulation; so called from its partaking both of diarthrosis and synar hresis.) A mixed species of connexion of bones, which admits of an obscure motion, as is observed in the metacarpal and metatarsal bones, and the vertebræ.

Amphibious. (From apple, ambo, and βus, vita.) Animals are thus called, that live both on land and in the water. The amphibious animals, according to Linnaus, are a class whose heart is furnished with one ventricle and one auricle, in which respiration is in a considerable degree voluntary.

AMPHIRLESTROIDES. (From ampliansgor, a net, and woo, a resemblance.) The retina,

or net-like coat of the eye.

Americana (From augi, about, and Egy xia, the jaws ) The fauces or parts about the tonsils, according to Hippocrates and Fasius.

AMPHICAUSTIS. (From appl, about, and xoobes, pudendum muliebre.) A sort of wild barley growing about ditches. Enstachius uses it to express the private parts of a woman.

AMPHIDEON. (From  $\alpha\mu\phi^i$ , on both sides, and  $\delta_{\alpha\mu\rho}$ , to divided.) Amphibeum. Amphitium. The ostimest, or mouth of the womb, which opens both ways, was so called by the ancients.

AMPHIDIARTHROSIS. The same as am-

phiarthrosis.

AMPHIMERINA. (From αμφι, about, and ωμεζα, a day.) An intermitting fever of the quistidian kind.

AMPHIMETHION. (From αμφι, about, and μηζα, the womb) Amphimetrium. The parts about the womb. Hippocrates.

AMPHIPLEX. (From αμφι, about, and προμίο, to connect.) According to Rufus Ephesius, the part situated between the scrotum and anus, and which is connected with the thighs.

AMPHIFNEUMA. (From αμφι, about, and ωνωμα, breath.) A difficulty of breath-

ing. Dyspnæa. Hippocrates.

AMPHIPOLOS. (From app, about, and workers, to administer.) Amphipolus. One who attends the bed of a sick person, and administers to him. Hippocrates.

Amphismila. (From αμφι, on both sides, and σμιλη, an incision-knife.) A dissecting knife, with an edge on both sides.

Galen.

AMPULLA. (αμβολλα: from αναβαλλω,

to swell out.) A bottle.

1. All belified vessels are so called in clymistry, as bolt-heads, receivers, cucurbits, &c.

2. In anatomy this term is applied by Scarpa to the dilated portions of the membranaceous semicircular canals, just within the vestibulum of the ear.

AMPULLESCENS. (From ampulla, a bottle) The most turnid part of Pecquet's duct is called alveus ampullescens.

AMPUTATIO. (From amputo, to cut off Ectome. A surgical operation, which consists in the removal of a limb or viscins; thus we say a leg, a finger, the penis, &c. when cut off, are amputated; but when speaking of a tumour, or excrescence, it is said to be dissected out or removed.

AMULETUM. (From αμμα, a bond; because it was tied round the person's neck; or rather from αμμνα, to defend. An anulet, or charm; by wearing which the person was supposed to be defended from the admission of all evil; in particular, an antidote against the plague.

AMORCA. (From autgro, to press out) Amorge. A small herb, whose expressed juice is used in dying. Also the sediment of the olive, after the oil has been pressed from it; recommended by Hippocrates and

Galen as an application to ulcers.

AMUTICA. (From αμυτίω, to scratch.) Medicines that, by vellicating or scratching as it were, the bronchia, stimulate it to the discharge of whatever is to be thrown off the lungs.

ANYCHE. (From approx, to scratch.)
A superficial faceration of exulceration of the skin; a slight wound. Hippocrates.—
Scarification. Galen.

Am yerica. (From αμυσσω, to vellicate.) Medicines which stimulate and vellicate the skin, according to Cælius Aurehanus.

AMYGDALA. (Apursano, from apuora, to laucmate; so called, because after the green husk is removed from the fruit, there appear upon the shell certain fissures, as it were lacerations.) The almond.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Icosandria. Order,

Monogynia. The almond-tree.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common almond. Amygdalus communis of Linnaus:—folits servatis infimis glendulosis, floribus sessilibus geminis.

The almond is a native of Barbary. same tree produces either bitter or sweet. Sweet almonds are more in use as food than med cine; but they are said to be difficult of digestion, unless extremely well comminuted, Their medicinal qualities depend upon the oil which they contain in the farinaceous matter, and which they afford on expression, nearly in proportion of half their weight. It is very similar to olive oil; perhaps rather purer, and is used for the same purposes. The oil thus obtained is more agreeable to the pulate than most of the other expressed oils, and is therefore preferred for internal use, being generally employed with a view to obtund acrid juices, and to soften and relax the solids, in tickling coughs, hoarseness, costiveness, nephritic pains, &c. externally it is applied against tension and rigidity of particular parts, The milky solutions of almonds in watery liquors, usually called emulsions, possess, in a certain degree, the emollient qualities of the oil, and have this advantage over pure oil, that they may be given in acute or inflammatory disorders, without danger of the ill effects which the oil might sometimes produce by turning rancid. officinal preparations of almonds, are the expressed oil and the emulsion; to the latter, the addition of gum-arabic is sometimes directed, which renders it a still more useful demulcent in catarrhal affections, stranguries, &c.

Bitter almonds yield a large quantity of oil, perfectly similar to that obtained from sweet almonds; but the matter remaining after the expression of the oil, is more powerfully bitter than the almond in its entire state. Great part of the bitter matter dissolves by the assistance of heat, both in water and rectified spirit; and a part arises also with both menstrua in distillation. Bitter almonds have been long known to be poisonous to various britte animals; and some authors have alleged that they are also deleterious to the human species; but the facts recorded upon this point appear to

want further proof. However, as the noxious quality seems to reside in that matter which gives it the bitterness and flavour, it is very probable, that when this is separated by distillation, and taken in a sufficiently concentrated state, it may prove a poison to man, as is the case with the common laurel, to which it appears extremely analogous Bergius tells us, that bitter almonds, in the form of emulsion, cured obstinate intermittents, after the bark had A simple water is distilled from bitter almonds, after the oil is pressed out, which posesses the same qualities, and in the same degree, as that drawn from cherry-stones. These afforded, tormerly, the now exploded aqua cerasorum nigrorum, or black-cherry-water.

AMYGDALE. The almonds of the ears; from their supposed resemblance to al-

monds.

AMYGDALE AMARE. See Amygdala. AMYGDALUS COMMUNIS. The systematic

name of the plant which affords both sweet and bitter almonds. See Amygdala.

AMYGDALE DULCES. See Amygdala. AMEGDALUS PERSICA. The systematic name of the common plum-tree.

Persica.

AMYLA. (From amylum, starch.) Any sort of chynnical facula, or highly pulverized residium.

AMYLUM. (Αμυλον: from a priv. and (AUXIII), a mill; because it was formerly made from wheat without the assistance of a mill.) Starch. The facula of wheat, or starch of wheat. The white substance which subsides from the water that is mixed with wheaten flour. The starch-makers suffer it to remain in the water for a time after it has become acil, which makes it very white and soft to the touch, and scareely sensible to the taste. As starch forms the greatest part of flour, it cannot be doubted but that it is the principal alimentary substance contained in our bread. In a medical point of view, it is to be considered as a demulcent; and, accordingly, it forms the principal ingredient of an officinal lozenge in catarrhs, and a mucilage prepared from it, often produces excellent effects, both taken by the mouth and in the form of a clyster, in dysenteries and diarrhoa, from irritation of the intestines. Milk and starch, with the addition of suct finely shred and incorporated by boiling, was the soup employed by Sir John Pringle, in dysenteries, where the mucous membrane of the intestines had been abraded. Externally, surgeons apply it as an absorbent in erysi-

ANYRIS ELEMIFERA. (From a, intensive, and μυζον, ointment, or balm; so called from its use, or smell. The systematic name of the control of the systematic name tic name of the plant from which it is supposed we obtain the resin called gumelemi. See Elemi.

AMYRIS OPOBALSAMUM. The systematic. name of the plant from which he balsan of Mecca is obtained. See Bals mum Gi-

AMYUM. (From a, priv. and µva, muscie.) A limb so emaciated that the muscles scarcely appear.

ANA. ā, crāā. In medical prescriptions it means " of each." See A.

Anabasis. (From avalatva, to ascend.) An ascension, augmentation, or increase of . a disease, or paroxysm. It is usually meant of fevers. Galen. It also signifies equise-

ANABATICA. (From avabatvo, to ascend.) An epithet formerly applied to the synochus, or continual fever, when it increases in malignity.

ANABEXIS. (From avalination to cough: An expectoration of matter by up.)

coughing.

ANABLEPSIS. (From ava and Brette, to see again. The recovery of sight after it has been lost.

ANABLYSIS. (From ava and Baula, to gush out again ) Ebullition or effervescence.

Anabole. (From avabaddo, to cast up.) The discharge of any thing by vomit; also dilatation, or extension. Galen.

ANABROCHESIS. (From ava and Egoxeo, to resorb.) The reabsorption of matter.

ANABROCHISMOS. (From αναθεοχεο, to reabsorb.) Anabrochismus. The taking up and removing the hair on the eye-lids, when they become troublesome. Galen. Ægineta, and others.

ANABROSIS. (From analecow, to devour.) A corrosion of the solid parts, by sharp

and biting humours. Galen.

ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE. (From ava. without, and azedia, a heart; without heart because the puip of the fruit, instead of having the seed enclosed, as is usually the case, has the nut growing out of the end of it.) The cashew-nut. The oil of this nut is an active eaustic, and employed as such in its native country; but neither it, nor any part of the fruit, is used medicinally in this country.

ANACARBIUM ORIENTALE. Anacardum or Malacca bean. The fruit, or nut, so called in the pharmacopæias, is of a shining black colour, heart-shaped, compressed, and about the size of the thumb-nail. It is the produce of the Avicennia tomentosa; folis cordato ovatis, subtus tomentosis, of Linnæus. It is now deservedly forgot in this country.

Anaeathansis. (From ara, and madaigonal, to purge up.) An expectoration of pus. It properly denotes a purgation by spitting, in which sense it stands contradistinguished from catharsis, or evacuation downwards. In this sense the word is used by Hippocrates and Galen. Blancard denotes, by this word, medicines which operate upwards, as vaniting &c.

ANACATHARTICA. (From avanabaigomai, to purge upwards.) Thoracia, Medicines which promote expectoration, or vomits which act upwards.

ANACHRON. Mineral alkali.

ANACLASIS. (From avaname, to bend back) A reflexion or recurvature of any of the members, according to Happocrates.

Anaclisis. (From avandina, to recline.)

A couch, or sick-bed. Hippocrates.

ANACCELIASMUS. (From ava, and xoula, the bowels.) A gentle purge, which was sometimes used to relieve the lungs.

ANACOCHE, (From anaxoxea, to retard.) Delay in the administration of medicines; also slowness in the progress of a disease.

Hippocrates.

Anacollema. (From ara, and κολλαω, to glue together.) A collyrium made of agglutinant substances, and stuck on the forehead Galen.

ANACONCHYLISMOS. (From avany, you'çu, to sound as a shell) A gargarism so called, because the noise made in the throat is like the sound of a shell. Galen.

ANECTESIS. (From availize, to renew.) Restoration of strength; recovery from

sickness. Hippocrates

ANACUPHISMA. (From ανακυσμέω, to lift up.) A kind of exercise mentioned by Hippocrates, which consists in lifting the body up and down, like our weigh-jolt.

Anacreesis. (From avanual, to mix.) The commixture of substances, or medicines, by pouring one upon another.

Anacycleon. (From ανακυκλοω, to wander about.) Anacycleus. A mountebank

or wandering quack.

ANACYRIOSIS. (From 2022, and 20212, authority) By this word, Hipp-scrates means that gravity and authority which physicians should preserve among sick people and their attendants.

Anadiplosis. (From αναδιστώω, to reduplicate.) A reduplication or frequent return of a paroxysm, or disease. Galen.

Anadosis. (From ανα, upwards, and δ εδαμαι, to give. A vomit, or the distribution of aliment all over the body; or digestion.

ANADROME. (From ανα, upwards, and δρεμα, to run.) A pain which runs from the lower extremities to the upper parts of the holy. Hitheorytee

the body. Hippocrates.

Anedes. (From a, priv. and adac, shame.) Shameless. Hippocrates uses this word metaphorically for without restraint, copious; and applies it to water rushing into the aspera arteria.

ANÆSTHESIA. (Αναισθησία: from a, priv. and αισθανομαι, to feel) Loss of the sense of touch. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysesthesic of Cullen.

ANAGALLIS. (From avayeram, to laugh; because, by curing the spleen, it disposes persons to be cheerful.) This plant Anagallis arvensis: foliis indivisis, caule procumbente, of Linnaus, is small and delicately formed, and does not appear to possess any particular properties.

ANAGALLIS ARVENSIS. The systematic name for the anagallis of the shops. See Anagallis.

Anagargalictum. (From ava, and pagpageon, the throat.) A gargarism, or wash for the throat.

A NAGARGARISTUM. The same.

ANAGLYPHE. (From αναγλυφω, to engrave.) A part of the fourth ventricle of the brain was formerly thus called, from its resemblance to a pen, or style.

Anagnosis. (From αναγίνωσκα, to know.) The persuasion, or certainty, by which medical men judge of a disease from its

symptoms. Hippocrates.

ANAGRAPHE. (From αναγεαφω, to

write.) A prescription, or receip.

ANALERSIA. (From and, and nameare, to take again.). A species of epilepsy, which proceeds from a disorder of the stomach, and with which the patient is apt to be seized very often and suddenly.

ANALENTIA. A fictitious term used by

Paracelsus for epilepsy.

Analersis. (From avanaubava, to restore) A recovery of strength after sickness. Galen.

ANALEPTICA. (From avanaucave, to recruit, or recover.) Analeptics. Restorative medicines; medicines, or food, which recover the strength which has been lost by sickness.

Analosis. (From avalitum, to consume.)

A consumption, or wasting.

ANALYSIS. (Αναλυσις. from αναλυω, to resolve.) The resolution by chymistry, of any matter into its primary and constituent parts. The processes and experiments which chymists have recourse to, are extremely numerous and diversified, yet they may be reduced to two species, which comprehend the whole art of chymistry. The first is, analysis, or decomposition; the second, synthesis, or composition. In analysis, the parts of which bodies are composed, are separated from each other: thus, if we reduce cinnabar, which is composed of sulphur and mercury, and exhibit these two bodies in a separate state, we say we have decomposed, or analyzed cinnabar. But, if, on the contrary, several bodies be mixed together, and a new substance be produced, the process is then termed chymical composition, or synthesis: thus, if by fusion and sublimation, we combine mercury with sulphur, and produce cinnabar, the operation is termed chymical composition, or composition by synthesis.

ANAMNESIS. (From αναμμανισκώ to remember.) Remembrance, or recollection of what has been done. Galen

Anamnestica. (From the same.) Re

medies for bad memory.

ANANAS. Called by the Brazilians yayama. The egg-shaped pine-apple. The plant which affords this fruit, is the Bromelia ananas folis ciliato-spinosus, mucronatis, spica comosa of Linnæus. It is used

principally as a delicacy for the table, and is also given with advantage as a refrigerant in fevers.

(From avayuaço, to compel.) ANANCE. Necessity. It is applied to any desperate operation. Hippocrates.

(From avaquadavtos, AVAPHALANTIASIS bald ) A tiningess of the hair upon the eye-brows Gorraus.

ANAPHORA. (From avapego, to bring up.) A person who spits blood. Gorraus. ANAPHORYXIS. (From αναφοευσσω, to grind down.) The reducing of any thing

to dust, or a very fine powder.

ANAPHRODISIA. (From a, priv. and Appolioua, he feast of Venus.) Impotence. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysorexia of Cullen. It either arises from paralysis, anaphrodisia paralitica; or from gonorrhæa, anaphrodisia gonorrhoica.

ANAPHRONELI. (From a, neg. apeos, froth, and men, honey) Clarified honey.

ANAPLASIS. (From αναπλασσω, to restore again ) A restoration of flesh where it has been lost; also the reuniting a fractured bone. Hippocrates.

ANAPLEROSIS. (From αναπληροω, to fill again.) The restitution, or filling up of

wasted parts Galen.

ANAPLEROTICA. (From the same.) Medicues renewing flesh: incarnatives, or such medicines as fill up a wound so as to restore it to its original shape. Galen.

Anapleusis. (From αναπλευω, to float upon.) The rotting of a bone, so that it drops off, and lies upon the flesh; exfoliation, or separation of a bone. Hippocrates, Ægineta, &c.

Anapheusis. (From αναπνευω, to respire.)

Respiration,

Anaphoe. The same.
Anapposis. (From aratiola, to fall back.) A relapse.

ANAPTYSIS. The same as Anacatharsis. ANARRHEGNIMIA. (From ava, and payvous, to break again.) . Inarrhexis. A fracture; the fresh opening of a wound.

ANABRHEA. (From ara, upwards, and pew, to flow.) A flux of humours from below upwards. Schneider de Catarrho.

ANARRHOPIA. (From ava, upwards, and pera, 10 cr ep) The same. Hippocrates.

ANAS DOMESTICA. (From 1600, to swim.) The tame duck. The flesh of this bird is difficult of digestion, and requires that warm and stimulating condiments be taken with it to enable the stomach to digest it.

ANASARCA. (From ava, through, and σαρέ, flesh.) A species of dropsy from a serous humour, spread between the skin and flesh, or rather a general accumulation of lymph in the ce'lular system. Dr. Cullen ranks this genus of disease, in the class Cachesia, and the order Intumescentia. He enumerates the following species, viz. 1.

Anasarca serosa, as when the due discharge of scrum is suppressed. &c. 2. Anasarca oppilata, as when the blood-vessels are considerably pressed, which happens to many pregnant women, &c. 3. Anasarcha exanthematica, this happens after ulcers, various cruptive disorders, and particularly after the erysipelas. 4. .Anasarca anæmia, happens when the blood is rendered extremely poor from considerable losses of it. 5. Anasarca debilium, as when feebleness is indu-

ced by long itlness, &c. This species of dropsy shews itself at first with a swelling of the feet and ankles, toward the evening, which, for a time, disappears again in the morning. The tumefaction is soft and inelastic, and, when pressed upon by the finger, retains its mark for some time, the skin becoming much paler than usual. By degrees the swelling ascends upwards, and occupies the trunk of the body; and at last, even the face and eyelids appear full and bloated; the breathing then becomes difficult, the urine is small in quantity, high coloured, and deposits a reddish sed ment; the belly is costive, the perspiration much obstructed, the countenance yellow, and a considera-ble degree of thirst, with emaciation of the whole body, prevails. To these symptoms succeed torpor, heaviness, a troublesome cough, and a slow fever. In some cases, the water oozes out, through the pores of the cuticle; in others, being too gross to pass by these, it raises the cuticle in small blisters; and sometimes the skin, not allowing the water to escape through it, is compressed and hardened, and is, at the same time, so much distended as to give the tumour a considerable degree of firmness.

(From ava, and σατω, to ANASPASIS. draw together.) Hippocrates uses this word to signify a contraction of the stomach.

Anassyros. (From ava, upwards, and σευομαι, to agitate.) Anassytus Driven forcibly upwards. Hippocrates applies this epithet to air rushing violently upwards, as in hysteric fits.

ANASTALTICA. (From avasshaw, to contract.) Styptic or refrigerating medicines.

Anastasis. (From avasvui. to cause to rise.) A recovery from sickness; a restoration of health. It likewise signifies a migration of humours, when expelled from one place and obliged to remove to another. Hippocrates.

ANASTOMOSIS. (From ava, through, and souz, a mouth.) The communication

of vessels with one another.

ANASTOMOTICA. (From ava, through, and sour, the mouth.) Medicines which open the pores and mouths of the vessels, as cathartics, diuretics, deobstruments, and sudorifics.

ANATES. (From nates, the buttocks.) A disease of the anus. Festus, &c.

ANATOMY. (Aratomus, or aratoms: from ara, and to-mus, to cut up.) Amerotomy. The dissection of the human body, to expose the structure, situation, and uses of every part.

ANATOMY, COMPARATIVE. Zootomy. The dissection of brutes, fishes, polypi, plants, &c. to illustrate, or compare them with the structure and functions of the human

body.

ANATRESIS. (From ατα, and τίθεαω, to perforate.) A perforation like that which is made upon the skull by trepanning. Galen

ANATRIBE. (From avalgiou, to rub.)

Friction all over the body.

ANATRIPSIS. The same. Moschion de Morb. Mulieb. and Galen.

ANATRIS. Antaris. Mercury. Ruland. ANATRON. (Arab. A lake in Egypt, where it was produced.) Soda, or fixed mineral alkali.

ANATROPE. (From ανατχεπμα, to subvert. Anatrophe. Anatropha. A relaxation, or subversion of the stomach, with loss of appetite and nausea. Vomiting. Indigestion. Galen.

ANATRUM. Soda.

ANAUDIA. (From a, priv. and awa, the speech.) Dumbness; privation of voice; catalepsia. Hippocrates

ANAXYRIS. (From avagues, the sole.) The herb sorrel; so callen because its leaf

is shaped like the sole of the shoe.

Ancha. (Arab. to press upon, as being the support of the body) The thigh. Ari-

ceana, Forestius, &c.

Anchilors. (From ayxi, near, and a\psi, the eye.) A disease in the inward corner of the eye, called also Ægilops. An incipient fistula lachrymalis.

ANCHYLE. See Ancyle.

Anchoralis processus. (Anchoralis; from αγκων, the elbow.) See Coracoid process.

Anchovy Pear. This fruit, the produce of the *Grias cantifora* of Linnxus, is eaten by the inhabitan's of Jamaica, as a pleasant and ref igerant fruit.

ANCHUSA. (From apxin, to strangle; from its supposed constringent quality; or, as others say, because its trangles serpents.)

Alkanet.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system, Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.

2. The name in some pharmacopæias for the alkanet root. The plant from which it is obtained, is the anchusa tinetoria of Linnæus, which grows wild in France, but is cultivated in our gardens. The root is externally of a deep purple coloni. To oil, wax, turpentine, and alcohol, it imparts a beautiful deep red colour, for which purpose it is used. Its medicinal properties are scarcely perceptible.

ANCHUSA OFFICINALIS. The systematic

name for the buglossum of the shops. See Buglossum.

Anchusa Tinctoria. The systematic name for the anchusa or alkanna of the

pharmacopæias. See Anchusa.

Anchylomenisma. (From αγχυλομαι, to bend.) Sagar uses this term to express a concretion, or growing together of the soft parts.

ANCHYLOSIS. (From a) χυλομαι, to hend.)

A stiff joint.

Ancı. Those who have a distorted elbow.

ANCIROMELE. See Ancyromele.

ANCINAR. Borax.

Ancon. (From apaz comm, to embrace; ano to aparabat steps of en to offer: because the bones meeting, and there uniting, are folded one into another.) The elbow.

ANCONEUS. (Anconeus, sc. musculus; from apace, the elbow.) Anconeus minor of Winslow. Anconeus vel cubitalis Riolani of Douglas. A small triangular muscle, situated on the back part of the elbow. It arises from the ridge and from the external condyle of the humerus, by a thick, strong, and short tendon: from this it becomes fleshy, and, after running about three inches obliquely backwards, it is inserted by its oblique fleshy fibres into the back part or ridge of the ulna. Its use is to extend the fore-arm.

ANCONEUS EXTERNUS. See Triceps extensor cubiti.

Anconeus intennus. See Triceps extensor cubiti.

Anconeus major. See Triceps extensor cubiti.

Anconeus minor. See Anconeus.

ANCONOID PROCESS. Processus anconoideus. (From ayraw, the elbow.) A process of the cubit. See Ulna.

Ancter. (Apxiling, a bond, or button.) A fibula, or button, by which the lips of wounds are held together. Gorraus.

ANCTERIASMUS. (From apriling a button.) The operation of closing the lips of wounds together by loops, or buttons. Galen.

Ancubirus. A disease of the eyes with a sensation of sand. Joh. Anglic. Res.

Ang.

ANCYLE (From αγκυλος, crooked.) A species of contraction, called a stiff joint Galen.

ANCYLOBLEPHARON. (From αγκυλί, a hook, and βλεφαξον, an eye-lid.) A disease of the eye, by which the eye-lids are closed together. Ætius.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM. (From αγκυλη, a hook, and γλασσα, the tongue.) Ancylion of Ægmeta. A contraction of the frantlum of the tongue. Tongue-tied.

Anorlomele (From ayaulos, crooked, and mala, a probe.) A crooked probe, or a probe with a hook. Galen, &c.

ANCYLOSIS See Anchylosis.

ANCYLOTOMUS. (From ayuuhn, a hook,

and τεμενω, to cut.) A crooked chirurgical knife, or bistomy. A knife for loosening the tongue. This instrument is no longer in use. Egineta, &c.

Anema (Agnoga, an anchor.) A chirurgical hook. Epicharmus uses this word for the membrum virile, according to Gor-

ANCYHOIDES. (From nyxuga, an anchor, and edos, a likeness.) A process of the scapula was so called, from its likeness to the beak of an anchor. It is the coracoid process. See Scapula.

ANCYHOMELE. See .Incylomele.

ANDRIA. A tree of Brazil, the fruit of which is bitter and astringent, and used as

a vermifuge.

Andranatomia. Andranatome. (From aving, a man, and recuve, to cut ) The dissection of the human body, particularly of the male. M. Aur. Severinus, Zootome Democrit.

ANDRAPODOCAPHILUS. (From and gomedon, a slave, and namnaos, a dealer.) A crimp. Galen calls by this name the person whose office it was to anoint and slighty to wipe the body, to cleanse the skin from foulness.

Andria. (From arng, a man.) An her-

maphrodue. Bonnet.

ANDROCETESIS (From avne, a man, and noilew, to cohabit with.) The venereal act; or the infamous act of sodomy. Moschion, &c

ANDROGENUS. (From arme, a man, and youn, a woman.) An effemmate person.

Hipp. An hermaphrodite.

ANDRONION. Andronium. A kind of plaster used by Ægineta for carbuncles, invented by Andron.

ANDROTOMIA. Androtome. Human dis-

section, particularly of the male.

ANEBIUM. (From avabatro, to ascend.) The herb alkanet, so called from its quick

"ANEILESIS. (From aveilew, to roll up) Aneilema An involution of the guts, such as is c. used by flatulence and gripes. Hippocrates.

ANEMIA. (From arspos, wind.) Flatu-

ANEMONE. (From avenues, wind; so named because it does not open its flowers till blown upon by the wind.) The wind flower. The name of a genus of plants in the Lamaan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Polysima.

The systematic ANEMONE BEPATICA. name for the hepatica nobilis of the pitarmacepains. See Hepatica nobilis.

Anemone, meadow. See Pulsatilla nigri-

ANEMONE NEMOROSA. The systematic name o' the ranunculus albus of the pharmacopæias. See Ranunculus albus.

ANEMONE PRATENSIS. The systematic

name for the pulsatilla nigricans of the pharmacopæias. See Pulsatilla nigricane.

ANENCEPHALUS. (From α, priv and ερκεφαλος, the brain) A monster without branes. Foolish. Gulen de Hipp.

ANEOS. A loss of voice and reason. ANEPPTHYMIA. (From a, priv. and

επιθυμια, de-irc.) Liss of appetite.

ANERIC. Anerit. Sulphur vivum.

Anesis. (From armut, to relax.) A remission, or relaxation, of a disease, or symptom. Lius, &c.

ANESUM. See Anisum.

ANETHUM. (Arnbor: from areo, afar, and Jew, to run; so called because its roots run out a great way.) Fennel, di.l, anet.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Limaxan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der Digynia.

2. The pharm copeial name of the com-

mon dill, or anct.

Anethum graveolens of Linnaus -fructibus compresses. This plant is a native of Spain, but cultivated in several parts of England. The seeds of dill are directed for use by the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopæias: they have a moderately warm, pungent taste, and an aromatic, but sickly smell There is an essential oil, and a distilled water, prepared from them, which are given in flatulent colics and dyspepsia. They are also said to promote the secretion of milk.

ANETHUM FIRNICULUM. The systematic name for the faniculum of the shops. See Faniculum.

ANETHUM GRAVEOLENS. The systematic name for the Anethum of the shops. See Anethum.

ANETICA. (From avinui, to relax.) Paregories; medicines which assuage pain, according to Andr. Tiraquell.

ANEURISMA. (Arenguruz, from arenguru, to dilate) An angurum. A preternatural tumour formed by the dil: tation of an artery. A genus of disease ranked by Cullen in the class locales, and order tumores. There are three species of aneurism: 1. The true aneurism, aneurisma verum, which is known by the presence of a pulsating tumour. The artery e-ther seems only enlarged at a small part of its tract, and the tumour has a determinate border, or it seems dilated for a considerable length, in which circumstance the swelling is oblong, and looses itself so gradually in the surrounding parts, that its margin cannot be exactly ascertained. The first, which is the most common, is termed circumscribed true aneurism; the last, the diffused true anenrism. The symptoms of the circumscribed true aneurism, take place as follows: the first thing the patient perceives, is an extraordinary throbbing in some particular si uation, and, on paying a little more attention, he discovers there a small pulsating tumour, which entirely dis-

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appears when compressed, but returns again as soon as the pressure is removed. It is commonly unattended with pain or change in the colour of the skin. When once the tumour has originated, it continually grows larger, and at length attains a very considerable size. In proportion as it becomes larger, its pulsa ion becomes weaker, and, indeed, it is almost quite lost, when the disease has acquired much magnitude. diminution of the pulsation has been ascribe I to the coats of the artery loosing their dilatable and elastic quality, in proportion as they are distended and indurated; and, consequently, the aneuresmal sac being no longer capable of an alternate distore and systole from the action of the heart. fact is also impused to the congulated blood, deposited on the inner surface of the sac, particularly in large aneurisms, in which some of the blood is always interrupted in its motion. In true aneurisms, however, the blood does not coagulate so soon, nor so of en as in false one. Immediately such coagulated blood lodges in the sac, pressure can only produce a partial disappearance of the swelling. In proportion is the aneurismal sac grows larger, the communication into the artery beyond the tumour is lessened. Hence, in this state, the pulse below the swelling becomes weak and smill, and the limb frequently cold and ædematous. On dissection, the lower continuation of the artery is found preternaturally small, and contracted. The pressure of the tumour on the adj cent parts, also produces a variety of symptoms, dicerations, caries, &c Smetimes an accidental contusion, or concussion, may detach a piece of coagnlum from the inner surface of the cyst, and the circulation through the sac be obstructed by it. The coagulum may possibly be implied quite into the artery below, so as to induce important changes. The danger of an aneurism arrives when it son the point of bursting, by which occurrence the patient usually bleeds to death; and this is sometimes in a few seconds. The fatal event may generally be foresean, as the part about to give way, becomes particularly tense, elevated, thin, soft, and of a dark purple colour. 2 The false or spurious aneurism, aneurisma spurium, is always owing to an aperture in the artery, from winch the blood gushes into the cellular sub-tance. It may arise from on artery being lacerated in violent exertions; but the most common occasional cause is a wound. This is particularly apt to occur at the bend of the arm, where the artery is exposed to be injured in attempting to bleed. When this happens, as soon as the puncture has been made, the blood gush-s out with unusual force, and in a bright scarlet, is regular, interrupted current. It flows out, however, in an even and less ra-

pid stream when pressure is applied higher up than the wound. These last are the most decis ve marks of the artery being opened; for blood often flows from a vein with great rapidity, and in a broken current, when the vessel is very turgid and situated immediately over the artery, which imparts its motion to it The surgeon endeavours precipitately to stop the hæmor. rhage by pressure; and commonly occasions a diffused false aneurism The external wound in the kin is closed, so that the blood canno escape from it but insinuates itself into the celluar substance. The swelling thus produced is uneven, often knotty, and extends upwards and downwards, along the tract of the vessel. skin is also usually of a dark purple colour. Its size increases as long as the internal hæmor hage continues, and, if this should proceed above a cer air pitch, mortification of the limb east s. 3. The varicose aneurism, aneurisma varicosum; this was first described by Dr. W. Hunter. pens when the brachial artery is punctured in opening a vein; the blood then rushes into the vem, which becomes varicose. Aneurisms mæy happen in any part of the body, except the latter species, which can only take place where a vem runs over an artery.

AXEURISMA SPURIUM. See Aneurisma.

\* ANEURISMA VARICOSUM. S. e Aneurisma.
ANEURISMA VERUM. See Aneurisma.
ANEXIS. (From ανεχω, to project.) A

swelling, or protuberance.

ANGERLOLOGIA (From appears, a vessel, and ropes, a discourse) A dissertation, or reasoning, upon the vessels of the body.

ANGEIOTOMY. (From appears, a vessel, and recure to cut.) The dissection of the blood-vessels of an animal body; also the opening of a vein, or an artery.

ANGEIOTISMUS. (From appear, a vessel, and reare, to cut.) A skilful dissector of

the vessels.

ANGELICA. (So called from its supposed angelic virtues) Angelica. 1 The number of a genus of plants in the Linguin system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Diggnia

2. The pharmacopoial name of the garden-angelica.

Angelica archangelica of Linnæus:—foliorum impari lobato. A plant, a native of Lapland, but cultivated in our gardens. The roots of angelica have a fragrant agreeable smell, and a bitterish, pungent taste. The stalk, leaves, and seeds, which are also directed in the pharmacopeas, possess the same qualities, though in an inferior degree. Their virtues are aromatic and carmmative. A sweetmeat is made, by the confec ioners, of this root, which is extremely agreeable to the stomach, and is surpassed only by that of ginger.

ANG '

Angelica Anguangelica. The systematic name for the angelica of the shops. See Angelica.

Angelica, Garden. See Angelica.

ANGELICA SATIVA. See Angelica sylves-

ANGELICA SYLVE TRIS. Angelica sativa. Wild angelica. Angelica sylvestris of Lianaus:—foliis aqualibus ovato lanceolatis serratis. This species of angel ca possesses similar properties to the garden species, but in a much inferior degree. It is only used when the latter cannot be obtained. The seeds, powdered and put into the hair, kill lice.

Angelica, wild See Angelica sylvestris.

ANGELINE CORTEX. The tree from which this bark is procured it a native of Grenada. It has been recommended as an anthelmintic for children.

ANGELOCACOS. Myrobalans, or purging

Indian plums.

And From anger, anguish; because of their pain) Buboes in the groin. Fallopius de Morbo Gallico.

Angiglossus. (From αγκυλη, a hook, and γλασσα, the tongue.) A person who

stammers

ANGINA. (From αγχα, to strangle; because it is often attended with a sense of strangulation) A soar throat. See Cynanche.

Angina Maliona See Cynanche maligna.
Angina parotinea. See Cynanche parotidea.

ANGINA PECTORIS. An acute constrictory pain at the lower end of the sternum, inclining rather to the left side, and extending up into the left arm, accompanied with great anxiety. Violent palpitations of the heart, laborious breathings, and a sense of suffocation, are the characteristic sympoms of this disease.-It is found to attack men much more frequently than women, particularly those who have short necks, who are inclinable to corpulency, and who, at the same time, lead an inactive and scdentary life. though it is sometimes met with in persons under the age of twenty, still it more frequently occurs in those who are between forty and fifty. In slight cases, and in the first stage of the disorder, the fit comes on by going up hill, up-stairs, or by walking at a quick pace after a hearty meal; but as the disease advances, or becomes more violent, the paroxysms are apt to be excited by certain passions of the mind; by slow walking, by riding on horseback, or in a carriage, or by sneezing, congling, speaking, or straining at stool. It some cases, they attack the patient from two to four in the morning, or whilst sitting or standing, without any previous exertion or obvious cause. On a sudden, he is seized with an acute pain in the breast, or rather at the extremity of the sternum, inclining to the left side, and extending up

into the arm, as far as the insertion of the deloid muscle, accompanied by a sense of suffication, great anxiely, and an idea that its continuance, or mcrease, would certainly be fatal. In the first stage of the di-ease, the uneasy sensation at the crid of the sternum, with the other unpleasant sympioms, which seemed to threaten a suspension of life by a perseverance in exertion, usually go off upon the person's standing will, or turning from the wind; but, in a more advanced stage, they do not so readily recede, and the paroxysms are much more violent. During the fit, the pulse sinks in a greater degree, and becomes irregular; the face and extremities are pale, and bathed in a cold sweat, and, for a while, the patient is perhaps deprived of the powers of sense and voluntary mo-The disease having recurred more or less frequently during the space of some years, a violent attack at last puts a sudden period to his existence. Angina pectoris is attended with a consider ble degree of danger; and it usually happens that the person is carried off suddenly. mostly depends upon an ossification of the coronary arteries, and then we can never expect to effect a radical cure. During the paroxysms, considerable rehef is to be obtained from fomentations, and administering powerful antispasmodies, such as opium and ather combined together. The application of a blister to the bread is likewise attended sometimes with a good effect. As the painful sensation at the extremity of the sternum often admits of a temporary relief, from an evacuation of wind by the mouth, it may be proper to give frequent doses of carminatives, such as peppermint, carraway, or cinnamon water. Where these fail in the desired effect, a few drops of ol. anisi, on a little sugar, may be substituted.

With the view of preventing the recurrences of the disorder, the patient should carefully guard against passion, or other emotions of the mind: he should use a light, generous diet, avoiding every thing of a heating nature; and he should take care never to overload the stomach, or to use any kind of exercise immediately after eating. Besid's these precautions, he should endeavour to counteract obesity, which has been considered as a predisposing cause; and this is to be effected most safely by a vegetable diet, moderate exercise at proper times, early rising, and keeping the body perfectly open. It has been observed that angina pectoris is a disease always attended with considerable danger, and, in most instances, has proved fatal under every mode of treatment. We are given, h wever, to understand, by Dr. Macbride, that of late, several cases of it have been treated with great success, and the disease readily removed, by inserting

These, therea large issue in each thigh. fore, should never be neglected case, with a view of correcting, or draining off the rritating fluid, he order-d, instead of issues, a mixture of lime-water with a little of the spiritus junipera comp. and an alterative proportion of Huxham's antimonial wine, together with a plain, light, perspirable diet. From this course the patient was soon apparently mended; but it was not until after the in ertion of a large issue in each thigh, that he was restored to perfect health.

Cynanche ANGINA TONSILLARIS. See

tonsillaris.

See Cynanche TRACHEALIS. ANGINA

trachealis.

ANGIOLOGIA. (From appelor, a vessel, and Aoyos, a discourse.) The doctrine of the vessels of the human body.

ANGLICUS SUDOR (From England, and sudor, sweat.) The sweating

sickness. Sennertus.

A very tall tree of Malabar. ANGOLAM.

possessing vermifuge powers.

ANGONE. (From ayxo, to strangle.) nervous sort of quinsey, or hysteric, suffocation, where the fances are contracted and stopped up without inflammation.

Angon. Intense bodily pain. Galen. Angos. (Apacs. a vessel.) A vessel;

a collection of humours.

Cortex cus-ANGUSTURÆ CORTEX parie. A bark imported from Augustura, in South America. Its external appearances vary considerably. The best is not ances vary considerably. The best is not filtrous, but hard, compact, and of a vel-lowish brown colour, and externally of of a whitish hue. When reduced in-to powder, it resembles that of Indian rhubarb. It is very generally employed as a febrifuge, tonic, and adstrugent. While some deny its virtue in curping intermittents, by many it is prefain. ring intermittents, by many it is preferred to the Peruvian bark; and has been found useful in diarrhæa, dyspepsia, and scrofula. It was thought to be the bark of the Brucea antidysenterica, or ferruginca. Wildenow suspected it to be the Magnalia plumieri; but Humbolt and Bonpland, the celebrated travellers in South America, have ascertained it to belong to a tree not before known, and which they promise to describe by the name of cusparia febrifuga.

Anneliatio. (From anhelo, to breathe with difficulty.) Anhelitus. Shortness of

breathing.

ANICETON. (From &, priv. and wan, vicfory.) A name of a plaister invented by Crito, and so called because it was thought an infallable or invincible remedy for acho-It was composed of res, or scald-head. litharge, alum, and turpentine, and is described by Galen.

ANIMA. The thinking principle. ANIMA ALORS. Refined aloes.

ANIMA ARTICULORUM. Hermodactylus.

ANIMA HEPATIS. Sal ma. tis. The soul of the ANIMA PULMONUM.

lui gs. A name given to saffron on account of its use in asthmas.

ANIMA RHABARBARI, The best rhubarb, A preparation of ANIMA SATURNI.

A preparation of cop? ANIMA VENERIS.

ANIMAL. An organized body endow-

ed with ofe and voluntary motion. Animal actions. Actiones animales.

Those actions, or functions, are so termed which are performed through the means of the mind. To this class belong the external and internal senses, the voluntary action of muscies, voice, speech, watching, and sleep.

ANIMAL HEAT. Heat is essentially necessary to life. That of a man in health is from about 94 deg. to 100 deg. of Fahrenheit. It appears to depend upon the decomposition of the air in the lungs. See

Respiration.

Oleum animale. ANIMAL OIL. pyreumatic oil, obtained from the bones of animals, recommended as an anodyne and

antispasmodic.

The substance which ANIME GUMMI. bears this name in the shops is a resin, the produce of the Hymexa courbaril of Linnæus. It is seldom ordered in the practice of the present day, and is only to be met with in the collections of the curious.

ANIMI DELIQUIUM (From animus, the Fainting. mind, and delinguo, to leave.)

See Syncope.

ANIMUS. This word is to be distinguished from anima; the former expresses the faculty of reasoning, and the latter the being in which that faculty resides.

ANINGA. A root which grows in the Antilla islands, and is used by sugar-ba-

kers for refining their sugar.

ANISCALPTOR. (From anus, the breech, and scalpo, to scratch.) The latissimus dorsi is so called, because it is the muscle chiefly instrumental in performing this office. Bartholin.

(From arross, unequal; ANISOTACHYS. and raxus, quick.) A quick snd unequal

pulse. Gorræus.

(From a, neg. and soos, ANISUM. equal.) Anise. Anisum vulgare. Pimpinella anisa of Linnaus; -foliis radicalibus trifidis incisis. A native of Egypt. Aniseseeds have an aromatic smell, and a pleasant, warm, and sweetish taste. essential oil and distilled water are prepare red from them, which are employed in flatulences and gripes, to which children are more especially subject; also in weakness of the stomach, diarrhoas, and loss of tone in the primæ viæ.

ANISUN SINENSE. See Anisum stellatum. ANISUM STELLATUM. Anisum sinense. Semen badian. The plant which affords these seeds is the Illicium anisatum of Linnxus. They are used with the same views as those of the Pimpinella anisum. The same tree is supposed to furnish the aromatic bark cailed cortex anisi stellati. or cortex lavola.

ANISUM VULGARE. See Anisum.

Annuentes. (From annuo, to nod.) Some muscles of the head were formerly so called, because they perform the office of nodding, or bending the head downwards. Coroper, &c.

ANNULAR. (Annularis.) Like a ring;

thus, annular bone, &c.

ANNULAR BONE. Circulus osseus. ring like bone placed before the cavity of

the tympanum in the fœtus.

Annular cartillages. See Cricoid cartilages. ANNULARIS DIGITUS. The ring-finger. The one between the little and middle fin-

ANYULATIS PROCESSUS See Pons varolii. Ano. (Avw, upwards; in opposition to

κατω, downwards.) Upwards.

ANOCATHARTICA. (From ανω, upwards, and καθαιρω, to purge.) Emetics; medicines which purge upwards.

ANOCHELON. (From ava, upwards, and χαιλος the lip.) The upper lip.
Anonia. (From a, neg. and οδος, the way.) Il ppocrates uses this word for inaccuracy and irregularity in the description and treatment of a disease.

ANODYNA See Anodynes.

ANODYNES. (Anodyna, sc. medica-menta. From a, priv. and advin, pain.) Those medicines are so termed which ease pain and procure sleep. They are divided into three sorts; paregorics, or such as assuage pain; hypnotics, or such as relieve by procuring sleep; and nurnotics, or such as ease the patient by stupifying him.

Anodynum minerale. Sal prinella. Anodynum martiale. Ferrum ammoniacale precipitated from water by potash.

ANONALOUS. This term is often applied to those diseases whose symptoms do not appear with that regularity generally observed in diseases. A disease is also said to be anomalous, when the symptoms are so varied as not to bring it under the decription of any known affection.

Anomphalos (From a, priv. and outaoc, the navel.) Anomphalus. With-

ANONYMUS. (From a, priv. and ovu ma a mc.) Nameless. It was formerly ap-

ried to the cricoid muscle.

A NORCHIDES. (From a, priv. and opxis, The testicle.) Children are so termed which come into the world without testi-This is a very common occurrence. The testicles of many male infants at the time of birth are within the abdomen. The time of their descent is very uncertain, and

instances have occurred where they had not reached the scrotum at the age of ten and fife in

ANOREXIA. (From a, priv. and ofegue, appetite.) A want of appetite, without loathing of food. Cullen ranks this genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysorexia; he believes it to be generally symptomatic, but enumerates two species, viz. the anorexia humoralis and the anorexia atonica.

ANOSMIA (From α, neg. and οζω, to smell.) A loss of the sense of smelling. This genus of disease is arranged by Cullen in the class locales, and order dusæsthe. When it arises from a disease of the Schneiderian membrane, it is termed anosmia organica; and when from no manifest

cause, anosmia atonica.

ANSER DOMESTICUS. The tame The flesh of this bird is sometimes similar to that of the duck, and requires the assistance of spiritous and stimulating substances to enable the stomach to digest Both are very improper for weak stomachs.

ANSERINA. (From anser, a goose; so called, because geese eat it ) Argentia. Wild tansey, or goose grass. This herb, Potentilla anserina, folis dentatis serratis, caule repente, pedunculis unifloris of Linnæus, was formerly used as an astringent in laxity of the intestines and phthisical complaints, but is now fallen into disuse.

ANTACIDS. (Antacida, sc. medicamenta. From will against, and acidus, acid) Remedies which obviate scidity in the stomach. Their action is purely chymical, as they merely combine with the acid present, and neutralize it. They are only palliptives, the generation of acidity being to be prevented by restoring the tone of the stornach and its vessels. Dyspepsia and diarrhœa are the diseases in which they are employed. The principal antacids in use are the alka-Liquoris potassæ, gutt. xv. or from 5 to 15 gr. of carbonat of potash, or soda dissolved in water. The solution of soda called double soda-water, or potash supersaturated with carbonic acid, is more frequently used, as being more pleasant. Ammonia has been recommended as preferable to every other antacid, from 20 to 40 drops of the liquor ammoniæ in a cupful of water. The liquor calcis, or lime water, is likewise used to correct acidity, two or three ounces being taken occasionally. Creta præparata alone, or with the addition of a small quantity of any aromatic-chelæ cancrorum præparatæ, and magnesia also and its carbonate, are used for the same purpose.

Counteracting ANTAGONIST MUSCLES. muscles, or those muscles which have opposite functions. Such are flexor and extensor of any limb, the one of which contracts it, the other stretches it out; and also the abductors and adductors. Solitary muscles are

those without any antagonist, as the heart,

ANTALGICA. (From avil, against, and αλγος, pain ) Anodynes. Remedies which

relieve pain.

ANTALKALINES. (From all, against, and alkali, an alkali.) Medicines which possess the power of neutrlizing alkalis. All the acids are of this class.

ANTAPHRODISIACA. (From avl, against, and Apposin, Venus.) Anti-venereals, or medicines which extinguish amorous desires. Wedel, Amen. Med.

ANTAPHRODITICA. The same.

ANTAPODOSIS. (From avanced is were, to reciprocate.) A vicissitude, or return of the paroxysm of fevers. Hippocrates. Called by Galen epidosis.

Antarthrifica. (From αρι, against, and αρθερριε, the gout.) Medicines which re-

lieve or repel the gout.

ANTASTHMATICA. (From avl., against, and ασθμα, an asthma.) Remedies against asthma.

ANTATROPHICA. (From avl., against, and alροφιa, a consumption.) Medicines which

relieve or restore consumption

ANTECHESIS. (From avlexopas, to resist.) A violent stoppage in the bowels, which resists all efforts to remove it.

ANTELABIUM. (From ante, before, and labium, a lip. The extremity of the lip.

ANTEMBASIS. (From avl, mutually, and εμβανω, to enter.) A coalescence, or union of bone. Galen.

ANTEMETICA. (From avl, against, and εμεω, to vomit.) Medicines which stop

or prevent vomiting.

ANTENEASMUS. (From avl, against, and τεινεσμος, implacable.) That species of madness in which the patient endeavours to destroy himself.

ANTEPHIALTICA. (From avl, against. and souxlns, the night-mare.) Medicines

which prevent the night-mare.

ANTEPILEPTICA. (From avl, against, and sπιληψις, the epilepsy.) Remedies against the epilepsy, and other convulsive disorders.

ANTERIOR AURIS. One of the common muscles of the ear, situated before the external ear. It arises, thin and membraneous, near the posterior part of the zygoma, and is inserted into a small eminence on the back of the helix, opposite to the concha, which it draws a little forwards and upwards.

ANTERIOR INTERCOSTAL NERVE. Splanchic nerve. A branch of the great intercostal that is given off in the thorax.

ANTERIOR MALLEI. See Laxutor tympani.

Anthelix. See Antihelix.

(From avl, against, and ANTHELMIA. ελμινθος, a worm.) The herb Indian pink, or worm-grass, so called, because it was thought of great virtue in expelling worms. See Spigelia Marylanpica.

ANTHELMINTICS. (Anthelmintica, sc.

medicamenta; from avls, against, and sxμοθος, a worm.) Medicines which procure the evacuation of worms from the stomach and intestimis. The greater number of them act mechanically, dislodging the worms, by the sharpness or roughness of their particles, or by their cathartic opera-Some seem to have no other qualities than those of powerful bitters, by which they either prove noxious to these animals, or remove that debility of the digestive organs, by which the food is not properly assimilated, or the secreted fluids poured in the intestines are not properly prepared; circumstances from which it has been supposed the generation of worms may arise The principal medicines belonging to this class, are: Calomel, gamboge, Geoffræa mermis, tanasetum, polypodium filix mas, spigelia Marylandica, artimesia santonica, olea Eropæa, stannum pulverisatum, ferri limaturæ, and dolichos pruriens: which see under their respective heaps.

ANTHEMIS. (From avbew, floreo; because it bears an abundance of flowers.)

Chamomile.

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Lini an system. Class Syngenesia. der, Polygamia superflua.

2. The name in the last London Pharmacopœia for chamomile. See Chama melum.

ANTHEMIS COTULA. (Cotula, a dim. of cos, a whetstone; so called from its leaves resembling a whetstone.) The systematic name for the plant called Cotula fatida in the pharmacopæias. See Cotula fætida.

ANTHEIS NOBILMIS. (From aveos, flower.) The systematic name for the chamamelum of the shop . See Chamamelum.

ANTHEMIS PYRETHRUM. The plant is so called from which we obtain the pyrethrum of the pharmacopaias. See Purethrum. ANTHERA. (From avoos, a flower.)

1. A compound medicine used by the ancients; so called from its florid colour. Galen. Exineta

2. The male part of the fructification of plants.

ANTHOPHYLLI. (From arbos, a flower, and φυλλον, a leaf; so called from the fragrance of the flowers and the beauty of the leaves.) Cloves are so termed when they have been suffered to grow to maturity G. Bauhin Pin.

ANTHORA. (Quasi antithora, avlibopa from and, against, and Dopa, monk shood; so called because it is said to conneract the effects of the thora or monkshood.) A species of Wolfsbane. The root is the part of this plant (. Acoustum anthora : floribus pentagynis, foliorum laciniis linearibus of Linnæns,) which is employed medicinally. Its virtues are similar to those of the aconitum. See Aconitum.

AUTHOS FLORES. The flowers of the rosmarinus are so termed in some pharma-

concias.

ANTHRACIA. See Anthrax.
ANTHRAX (From arbeat, a burning coal.) Anthracia. Anthrocosia. Anthro-Carbunculus. A hard and circumscribed inflammatory tubercle like a boil, which sometimes forms on the cheek, neck, or back, and in a few days becomes highly gangrenous. It then discharges an extremely focial sanies from under the brack core, which, like a burning coal, continues destroying the surrounding parts. It is supposed to arise from a peculiar miasma, is most common in warm climates, and often attends the plague.

ANTHRACOSIS OCULI. A red, livid, burning, sloughy, very painful tumour, occur-

ring on the eye lids. Ægineta.

ANTHROP GRAPHIA. (From average, a man, and γραφω, to write.) Description of man's structure.

ANTHROPOLOGIA. (From average, a man, and xoyos, a discourse.) The de-

scription of man.

ANTHYPNOTICA. (From avl, against, and unvos, sleep.) Medicines which prevent

sleep or drowsiness.

ANTHYPOCHONDRIACA. (From against, and υποχονδρια, the hypochondra,) Mediames ad pted to cure low-spiritedness or disorders of the hypochondria.

ANTHYSTERICA. (From all, against, and users, the wonds.) Uterines or medicines which relive the hysteric passion Blanchard.

ANTI. (Avl., against.) There are many names compounded with this word, as antiasthmatics, antihysterics, antidysenteries, &c. which signify medicines against the asthma, hysterics, dysentery, &c.

ANTIADES. (From avliace, to meet ) The tonsils are so called, because they answer one another. The namps. Nic Piso.

ANTIAGRA. (From 201125, a tonsil, and 2792, a prey) Antiagri. A tumour of the tonsils. Ulpian, Rioland, &c.

ANTIARTHRITICA. Se Antathritica.

ANTICACHECTICA. (From avl., against, and xafszia, a cachexy.) Medicines against

cachexy, or bad habit of body.

ANTICARDIUM. (From avli, against, or opposite, and napolia, the heart.) The hollow at the bottom of the breast, commonly called scrobiculus cordis, or pit of the sto-

ANTICATARBHALIA. (From arl, against, and nalappos, a catarrh ) Medicines which

reli- ve a cararrh.

ANTICAUSOTICA. (From avli, against, and xxvoor, a burning fever) Remedies against burni g fevers. We read, in Corp. Pharm. of Junken, of a syrupus anticausoticus.

ANTICHEIR. (From arl., against, and  $\chi_{SP}$ , the hand.) The thumb. Galen.
ANTICNHON. (From arl., against, or

opposite, and xvn un, the calf of the leg.) That part of the tibia which is hare of flesh, and opposite the culf of the leg. The shin-bone. Galen.

ANTICOLICA. (From avl, against, and

κωλικη, the cholic.) Remedies against the

ANTIDIASTOLE. (From avil, against, and διασελλώ, to distinguish.) An exact and accurate distinction of one disease or symptom, from another.

ANTIDINICA. (From avl, against, and Swood circumgyration.) Medicines against a vertigo, or giddiness. Bluncard.

ANTIDOTARIUM. (From artifolos, an antidote.) A term used by former writers, for what we now call a dispensatory; a place where antidotes are prescribed and prepared. There are antidotaries extant of several authors, as those of Nicholaus, Meuses, Myrepsus, &c.

ANTIDOTUS. (From avl., against, and Sidupi, to give) A preservative against

sickness. A remedy. Galen.

(From avl, against, ANTIDTSENTERICA. Medicines against a and Surevlepiz, a flux.) dysentery, or flux.

ANTIFEBRILIA. (From avl., against, and febris, a tever.) A febrifuge, a remedy

against fever.

ANTIHECTICA. [From avl, against, and extinos, a hectic fever.) Remedies against a hectic fever.

ANTIHECTICUM POTERII. Antimonium diaphoreticum Joviale. A medicine invented by Poterius, formerly extolled as effectual in hectic fevers, but now disregarded. It is an oxyd of tin and chalybeated regulus of antimony, in consequence of their defla-

gration with nitre.

ANTIHELIX. (From 2071, against, and est, the helix.) The inner circle of the auricle, so called from its opposition to the

outer circuit called the helix.

ANTHELMINTICA. See Anthelmintica. ANTIHYSTERICA (From arli, against, and urepika, hysterics.) Medicines which pre-

vent or relieve hysterics.

ANTILEPSIS. (From affixaubara, to take hold of.) The securing of bandages or ligatures from slipping. Hippocrates,

ANTILOBIUM. (From avl., opposite, and 2060s, the bottom of the ear.) The tragus, or that part of the ear which is opposite the

ANTILOIMICA. (From avil, against, and λοιμος, the plague.) Remedies or preven-

tive against the plague.
Antilopus. The antelope. An African beast resembling a deer, whose hoofs and horns were formerly given in hysteric and ep.leptic cases.

ANTILYS, US. (From avls, against, and λυσσα, the bite of a mad d g.) A medione or remedy og inst the bite of a mad dog.

. Intimonial powder. See Pulvis antimo-

Antimoniale. (From antimonium.) An antimonal, or composition in which antimony is a chief ingradient. A preparation of

ANTIMONII OXYDUM. See Oxydum antimonii.

Antimonii sulphuretum præcipitatum. Precipitated sulphuret of antimony. This preparation of antimony appears to have rendered that called Kerme's mineral unnecessury. It is made thus:—

Take of sulphuret of antimony, in powder, two pounds:—of the solution of potash, four pints:—of distilled water, three pints.

Mix and boil the mixture over a slow fire, for three hours, stirring it well, and occasionally adding distilled water, so that the same measure may be preserved. Strain the solution forthwith through a double linen cloth; and while it is yet hot, drop in, gradually, as much sulphuric acid as may be required to precipitate the powder; then wash away the sulphate of potash, by hot water; dry the precipitated sulphuret of antimony, and reduce it to powder.

As an alterative and sudorific, it is in high estimation, and given in diseases of the skin and glands; and joined with calomel, it is one of the most powerful and penetrating learning was a property of

alteratives we are in possession of.

ANTIMONIUM. See Antimony.

ANTIMONIUM CALCINATUM. See Oxy dum antimonii.

Antimonium biapuoreticum. An old name for oxyd of antimony.

ANTIMONIUM TARTARISATUM. Tartarus emeticus. Tartarum emeticum. Tartarus antimonialis. Tartris antimonia cum potassâ. Tartarum stibiatum. Tartar emetic is obtained by boiling an oxyd of antimony with acidulous tartrite of potash; the excess of tartarous acid dissolves the oxyd and a triple salt is obtained by crystallization. The London Pharmacop cia directs thus:

Take of oxyd of antimony, two ounces: of supertartrite of potash, powdered, three ounces:—of distilled water, eighteen fluid-

ounces.

To the water, whilst boiling in a glass vessel, add gradually the antimony and superturtrite of potash, previously mixed together, and continue to boil for half an hour; then filter the solution through paper, and evaporate it in a gentle heat, so that whilst it cools slowly, crystals may form.

Tartar emetic is the most useful of all the antimonial preparations. Its action is not dependent on the state of the stomach, and, being soluble in water, its dose is easily managed, while it also operates more

peeddy.

In doses of from one to three, four, or five grains, it generally acts powerfully as an emetic, and is employed whenever we wish to obtain the effects which result from full vometing. As patients are differently affected by this medicine, the safest mode of exhibiting it is: 3. Antimonii tartarisati, gr. iii. Aque distillata. 3. N. Misce et cola. Dosis 3. quadrante quâque horâ, donec supervenent vomitus.

For children, emetic tertar is not so safe an emetic as ipecacuanha powder: when great debility of the system is present, even a small dose has been known to prove fatal to children. Sometimes it proves cathartic.

In smaller doses it excites nausea, and proves a powerful diaphoretic and expectorant. As an emetic it is chiefly given in the beginning of fevers and febrile diseases, when great debility is present, and in the advanced stages of typhoid fever its use is improper and even sometimes fatal. diaphoretic, it is given in small doses, of from an eighth to a quarter of a grain : and as an expectorant, in doses still smaller. Emetic tartar in small doses, combined with calomel, has been found a powerful yet safe alterative in obstinate eruptio is of the skin. & Antimonii tartarisatı gr. iv. Hydrargyvi submuriatis, gr. xvi Confectionis Rosa gallice, q. s. Divide in pil. xxiv. Capiat i. mane nocteque ex thea sassafrass.

In the form of powder, or dissolved in water, it is applied by a pencil to warts and obstinate ulcers: it is also given in the form of clyster, with a view to produce irritation in soporose diseases, apoplexy, iteus, and hernia incarcerata. The powder mixed with any fluid, and rubbed on the scrobiculus cordis, excites vomiting. Another property which tartar emetic has, when rubbed on the skin, is that of producing a crop of pustules very like to the small-pox, and with this view it is used against rheumatic pains, white, and other obstinate swe lings. The best antidot against the bad effects of too large a quantity of this and other antimonial preparations, is a decoction of the bark of cinchona.

ANTIMONIUM VITRIFACTUM. Glass of antimony. An oxyd of antimony, with a little sulphur.

(Avlipoviov. The origin ANTIMONY, of this word is very obscure. received etymology is, from arls, against, and mores, a monk; because Valentine, by an injudicious adu inistration of it, poisoned his brother monks ) Antimonium um. A metal found native, but very rarely; it has, in that state, a metallic lustre, and is found in masses of different slapes; its colour is white, be ween those of tin and silver. It generally cout ins a small portion of arsenic. It is I kewise met with in the state of an oxyd, antimonial othre. The most abundant ore of it is that in which it is combined with sulpi ur, the grey ore of antimony, or sulphuret of antimony. colour of this ore is blicith, or sice grey, of a metallic lustre, and often extremely beautifully variega ed les texture is cither compact, foliated, or streated. striated is found both crystal ized, mas ive, and disseminated: there are many virieties of this ore

Properties of Antimony.—Antimony is a met i of a greysh with having a slight blocksh shade, and very bolliant 1 stexture is lamelited, and calibi s plates crossing each other in every direction. Its surface

with herbarizations and foilage. Its specific gravity is 6.702. It is sufficiently har I to scratch all the soft metals. It is very brittle, easity broken and putverizable. It fuses at 810° Fahr. It can be voluilized, and burns by a strong heat. When perfectly fused, and suffered to cool gradually, it crystallizes in octahedra. It is ites with surphur and phosphorus, it decomposes water strongly. It is soluble in atkatine suspaurets. Sulphuric acid, boiled upon antimony, is feebly decomposed. Nitric ac d dissolves it in the cold. Muriatic acid scarcely acts upon it. The oxygenated muriatic acid gas infl mes i, and the liquid acid dissolves it with facility. Arsenie-head dissolves it by heat with difficulty. It unit s, by fusion, with gold and renders it p le and brittie. Platina, silver, lead, bismuth, mekel, copp. r, arsenic, iron, cobalt, tin, and zinc, unite with antimony by fusion, and form with it compounds, more or less brittle. Mercury does not alloy with it easily. We are little acquainted with the action of alkalies upon it. Nurate of potash is decomposed by it. It fulminates by percussion with oxygenated muriate of potaslı.

Methods of obtaining antimony -1. To obtain antimony, heat 32 parts of filings of iron to redness, and project on them, by degrees, 100 parts of antimony; when the whole is in fusion, throw on it, by degrees, 20 parts of nitrate of potash, and after a few minutes quiet fusion, pour it into an iron melting cone, previously heated and greased.

2. It may also be obtained by melting eight parts of the ore mixed with six of nitrate of potash, and three of acidulous tartrite of potash, gradually projected into

a red-hot crucible, and fused.

To obtain perfectly pure antimony, Margraaf melted some pounds of the sulphurated ore in a luted crucible, and thus scorified any metals it might contain. Of the antimony thus purified, which lay at the bottom, he took sixteen ounces, which he oxidated cautiously, first with a slow, and afterwards with a strong heat, until it ceases to smell of sulphur, and acquired a grayish white colour. Of this gray powder he took four ounces, mixed them with six drachnis of acidulous tartrite of potash, and three of charcoal, and kept them in fusion in a well covered and luted crucible, for one hour, and thus obtained a metallic button that weighed one ounce, seven drachms, and twenty grains.

The metal, thus obtained, he mixed with half its weight of desiccated carbonate of soda, and covered the mixture with the same quantity of the carbonate. He then melted it in a well covered and luted crucible, in a very strong heat, for half an hour, and thus obtained a button which weighed one ounce, six draclims, and seven grains, much whiter and more beautiful than the

former. This he again treated with one and a half onoce of carbonate of soda, and obtianed a button, weighing one ounce, five drachms, and six grains. The button was still purer than the foregoing. Repeating these fusions with equal weights of carbonate of soda three times more, and an hour and a half each time, no at last obtained a button so pure as to amalgamate with mercury with ease, very hard, and in some d g ee malleable; the scoriz formed in the last fusion were transparent, which indicated that they contained no sulphur, and hence it is the obstinate adherance of the sulphur that renders the purification of this metal so difficult.

The preparations of antimony formerly in use were very many: those now direct-

ed to be kept are:-

1. Sulphuretum antimonii.

2. Oxydum antimonii.

Surphuretum antimonii præcipitatum.

4. Antimonium tartarisatum.

5: Pulvis antimonialis.

6. Liquor antimonii tartarisati.

ANTIMORIS. (From and, against, and μορος, death, or disease.) A medicine to prolong life.

ANTINEPHRITICA. (From avil, against, and veopelis, a disease of the kidneys.) Remedies against disorders of the kidneys.

Antiodontalgicus. An insect described by Gerbi in a small work published at Florence 1794, so called from its property of allaying the tooth-ach. It is a kind of curculo found on a species of thistle, carduns spinosissimus. If twelve or fifteen of these insects in the state of larvæ, or when come to perfection, be bruised and rubbed slowly between the fore-finger and thumb until they have lost their moisture; and if the painful tooth where it is hollow, be touched with that finger, the pain ceases sometimes instantaneously. A piece of shamov leather will answer the same purpose with the finger. If the gums are inflamed the remedy is of no avail. Other insects possess the property of curing the tooth-ach; such as the scarabeus ferrugineus of Fabricius; the coccinella septempunctata, or lady-bird; the chrysomela populi, and the chrysomela sanguinolenta. This property belongs to several kinds of the coleoptera.

ANTIPARALYTICA. (Erom of, against, and wapahuois, the palsy) Medicines against the palsy.

ANTIPATHEIA. (From avli, against, and @αθος, an affection.) Antipathy. An aversion to particular objects.

Antiperistratice (From ant, against, and aspisedda, to contract.) Whatsoever obstructs the peristaltic motion of the intestines.

(From avle, against. ANTIPERISTASIS. and maismus, to press.) A compression on all sides. Theophrastus de igna

ANTIPHARMACA. (From arl, against, and φαρμάκον, a poison.) The same as alexipharmaca. Remedies or preservatives

against poison. Dioscorides.

ANTIPHLOGISTICA. (From against, and φλεγα, to burn.) Antiphlogistics. A term applied to those medicines, plans of diet, and other circumstances, which tend to oppose inflammation, or which in other words, weaken the system by diminishing the activity of the vital power.

ANTIPHTHISICA. (From avl., against, and φθισις, a consumption.) Remedies against

a consumption.

ANTIPHTHORA. (From ail, against, and φθορα, corruption.) A species of woolfsbane

which resists corruption.

ANTIPHYSICA. (From avl, against, and φυσαω, to blow.) Carminatives or reniedies

against wind.

ANTIPLEURITICA. (From avl, against, and whevelles, pleurisy.) Remedies against

ANTIPODAGRICA. (From avil, against, and wodaypa, the gout.) Medicines which

relieve or remove the gout.

ANTIPRAXIA. (From arl, against, and σρασσω, to work.) A contrariety of functions and temperaments in divers parts. Contrariety of symptoms.

ANTIPYRETICA. (From ail, against, and wupelos, fever ) Antifebrile. Remedies against

ANTIQUARTANARIA. (From avl, against, and quartanum, a quartan lever.) Remedies against quartan agues.

ANTIQUARTICUM. The same as Anti-

quartanaria.

ANTIRRHINUM. (AvTepparov: from art, against, and pic, the nose; so called because it represents the nose of a calf.) Snap-dragon, or call's-snout. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Angiospermia.

ANTIRUEINOM LINAMIA. The systematic

name for the linaria of the pharmacopæias.

See Linaria.

ANTISCOLICA. (From and, against, and σκωληξ, a worm. Remedies against worms.

Anthilmintics.

ANTISCORBUTICS. (Antiscorbuticas sc. medicamenta; from avli, against, and scorbutus, the scurvy.) Medicines which

cure the scurvy.

ANTISEPTICS. (Antiseptica. sc. medicamenta; from avli, against, and σηπω, to putrefy.) Those medicines which possess a power of preventing animal substances from passing into a state of putrelaction, and of obviating putrefaction when already begun. This class of medicine comprehends four orders.

1. Tonic antiseptics, as cinchona, angusturæ cortex, chamæmelum, &c. which are suited for every condition of body, and are, in general, preferable to other antiseptics, for those with relaxed habits.

2. Refrigerating antiseptics, vs acids, which are principally adapted for the young, vigorous, and plethoric.

3. Sumulating antiseptics, as wine and alcohol, best adapted for the old and debi-

4. Antispasmodic antiseptics, as camphora and assaforida, which are to be selected for irritable and hysterical habits.

ANTISPASIS. (From ω/h, against, ard σπαω, to draw.) A revulsion. The turning the course of the humours, whilst they

are actually in motion. Galen.

ANTISPASMODICS. (Antispasmodica, sc. medicamenta; from and, agamst, and σπασμος, a spasm.) Medicines which possess the power of allaying, or removing inordinate motions in the system, particularly those involuntary contr. ctions which take place in muscles, naturally subject to the command of the will. Spasnimay arise from various causes. One of the most frequent is a strong irritation, continually applied; such as demitton, or worms. In these cases, natcotics prove useful, by dimunishing irritability and sensibility. Sometimes spasni arises from mere debility; and the obvious means of removing this is by the use of tomes. Both narcotics and tonics, therefore, are occasionally useful as antispasmodics, such as opium, camphor, and ether, in the one class, and zinc, mercury, and Peruvian bark, in the other. But there are farther, several other substances, which cannot be with propriety referred to either of these classes; and to these, the title of antispasmodics is more exclusively appropriated. The principal antispasmodics, properly so called, are moschus, castereum, oleum aniniale empyreumaticum, petroleum, ammonia, assafœtida, sagapenum, galbanum, valeriana, crocus, melaleuca leucadendron.

The narcotics, used as antispasmodics,

are ether, opium, camphor.

Tonics used as antispasmodic, 'are cuprum, zincum, hydraigyrus, cinchona.

ANTITHENAR. (From and, against, and Swag, the palm of the hand.) A muscle of the foot. See Adductor pollicis pedis.

ANTITRAGICUS. Antitragus, (Antitragicus, sc. musculus.) One of the proper muscles of the ear, whose use is to turn up the tip of the antitragus a little outwards, and to depress the extremity of the antithelix towards it.

ANTITRAGUS. (Antitrugus, i. m. from anlı, and τεαγος, the tragus.) An eminence of the outer ear, opposite to the tragus.

Antivenerea. (From aft, against, and venerens, venereal.) Medicines against the lues venerea.

Antonii Sancti ignis. (So called because St. Anthony was supposed to ore it miraculously. In the Roman Missal, St. Anthony is implored as being the preserver from all sort f fire.) St. Anthony's fit See Erysipeias ..

Antisphyllion. (From avy, against, and quakey, a leaf; so called because its leaves are opposite.) The male caryophyl-

ANTHUM OF HIGHMORE. (From the name of an anatomist, who gave the first accurate description of it.) Antrum .latrum genæ Sinns Ilis hmorianum maxillaris piturtarius. Antrum maxilla su-Maxillary sinus. A large cavity in the middle of each superior maxillary bone, between the eye and the root of the mouth, lined by the mucous membrane of the nose.

One or both antra are liable to several morbid affections. Sometimes their membranous lining inflames, and secretes pus. At other times, in consequence of inflammation, or other causes, various excressences and fungi are produced in them. Their bony parietes are occasionally affected with exostosis, or caries. Extraneous bodies may be lodged in them, and it is even asserted that insects may be generated in them, and cause for many years, afflicting pains. Abscesses in the antrum are by far the most common. Violent blows on the cheek, inflammatory affections of the adjacent parts, and especially of the piturtary membrane lining the nostrils, exposure to cold and damp, and, above all things, bad teeth, may induce inflammation and suppuration in the antrum. The first symptom is a pain, at first imagined to be a tooth-ach, particularly if there should be a carious tooth at this part of the jaw. This pain, however, extends more into the nose than that usually does which arises from a decayed tooth; it also affects, more or less, the eye, the orbit, and the situation of the frontal sinuses. But even such symptoms are insufficient to characterize the disease, the nature of which is not unequivocally evinced till a much later period. The complaint is, in general, of much longer duration than one entirely depend to on a caries of the tooth, and its violence increases more and more, until at last a hard tumour becomes perceptible below the cheek-bone. The swelling by degrees extends over the whole check; but it afterwards rises to a point, and forms a very circumscribed hardness, which may be felt above the back-grinders. The symptom is accompanied by redness, and sometimes by inflammation and suppuration of the external parts. It is not uncommon also, for the outward abscess to communicate with that within the antrum. The circumscr.bed elevation of the tumour, however, does not occur in all cases. There are instances in which the matter makes its way towards the palate, causing the bones of the part to swell, and at length rendering them carious,

unless timely assistance be given. There are other cases, in which the matter escapes between the tangs and sockets of the teeth. Lastly, there are other examples, in which matter, formed in the antrum, makes its exit at the nostril or the same side, when the patient is lying with his head on the opposite one, in a low position. If this mode of evacuation should be frequently repeated, it prevents the tumour both from pointing externally, and bursting, as it would do if the purulent matter could find no other vent. This evacuation of the pus from the nostril is not very common
ANTRUM BUCCINOSUM. The cochlea of

ANTRUM PYLORI. The great concavity of the stomach approaching the pylorus. ANTRUM MAXILLARE. See. Antrum of Highmore.

Ants, acid of. See Formic acid.

ANTYLION. (From Antyllus, its inventor.) An astringent application, recommended by Paulus Ægineta.

ANUS. (Quasi onns; as carrying the

burden of the bowels.)

1. The fundament; the lower extremity of the great intestine, named the rectum, is so called; and its office is to form an outlet for the faces. The anus is furnished with muscles which are peculiar to it, viz. the sphincter, which forms a broad circular band of fibres, and keeps it habitually closed, and the levatores ani, which serve to dilate and draw it up to its natural situation, after the expulsion of the faces. It is also surrounded, as well as the whole of the neighbouring intestine, with muscular fibres, and a very loose sort of cellular substance. The anus is subject to various diseases, especially piles, ulceration, abscesses, excressences, prolapsus, imperforation in new-born infants.

2. The term anus is also applied to a small opening of the third ventricle of the

brain, which leads into the fourth.

ANU, ARTIFICIAL. An accidental opening in the parietes of the abdomen, to which opening some part of the intestinal canal leads, and through which the faces are either wholly or in part discharged. When a strangulated hernia occurs, in which the intestine is simply pinched, and this event is nnknown; when it has not been relieved by the usual means; or when the necessary operation has not been practised in time; the protruded part becomes gangrenous, and the faces escape. But if the patient should be at last operated upon, his faces are discharged through the wound, and the intestines are more easily emptied. both cases, the excrement continues to be discharged from the artificial opening. In this way an artificial anus is formed through which the excrement is evacuated during life.

ANYDRION. (From a, priv. and vdage

water; so called, because they who eat of it become thirsty.) A speces of night-

shade, according to Blancard.

Anyrettenenos. (From a, neg. and υπευθυνος, hurtful.) Hippocrates, in his Precepts, uses this word to signify an accidental event, which cannot be charged on the physician, and for which he is not accountable.

AORTA. (From ang, air, and the to keep; so called because the ancients supposed that only air was contained in it.) The great artery of the body, which arises from the left ventricle of the heart, forms a curvature in the chest, and descends into the abdomen. See Artery.

APALACHINE GALLIS. (From απαλακώ, to repel, because it is supposed to repel in-

fection.) See Cassine.

APARTHROSIS. (From ano and agegor, a

joint) Articulation.

"APARINE. (From gun, a file; because its bank is rough, and rusps like a file.) Philanthropus. Ampelocarpus. Omphalocarpus Ixus. Asparine. Asperula. Goosegrass and cleaver's bees. Cleaver's. Gooseshare. Havriff. This plant, which is common in our hedges and duches, is the Galium aparine of Linnaus:-foliis octonis lanceolatis carinatis scabrts retrorsum aculeatis, geniculis venosis, fructu hispido. The expressed juice has been given with advantage as an aperient and diuretic in insipient dropsics; But the character in which it has of late been chiefly noticed, is that of a remedy against cancer. A tea-cup full internally, gradually increases to half a pint, two or thr e times a day, and the herb applied, in cataplasm, externally, has been said to cure cancers. Such beneficial results are not confirmed by the experience of others.

APPLEA. (From a, priv. and pellis, skin.) Shortness of the prepuce. Galen gives this name to all whose prepuce, either through disease, section, or otherwise, will not cover the glans.

APETIENS PALPEBRARUM RECTUS. Se

Lavator palpebre superioris.

APERIENTS. (Aperientia, sc. medicamenta; from aperio, to open.) Laxatives. Medicines which gently open the howels.

APERISTATUS. (From a, neg. and offerent, to surround.) Aperistaton. An epithet used by Galen, of an ulcer which is not dangerous, nor surrounded by inflammation.

Arenistation. See Aperistatus.

Arenton ocum. See Levater palpebra superioris.

....

Appension. (Apopsia, a, f. arefix: from a priv. and arefix, to digest.) Indigestion. See Dyspepsia.

Areurnremenus. (From ano and evene, straight.) A name formerly given to the intestinum rectum, or straight gut.

APEX. The extremity of a part; as the apex of the tongue, apex of the nose, &c.

APHANISMUS. (From αφανίζω, to remove from the sight.) The removal, or gradual

decay of a disorder.

APHERESIS. (From αφαιρεα, to remove.) This term was formerly much used in the schools of surgery, to signify that part of the art which consists in taking off any diseased or preternatural part of the body.

APHEPSEMA. (From ano, and eta, to

boil.) A decoction.

APHESIS. (From apinus, to remit.) The remission or termination of a disorder.

Applistes is. (From apishui, to draw from An abscess.

Apanons. (From 270, and 660s, departure) Excrement. The dejection of the body.

APHONIA. (Αφανια: from α, priv. and φανιη, the voice) A suppression of the voice, without either syncope or coma. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order disections of Cullen.

When it takes place from a tumour of the fluces, or about the glottis, it is

termed aphonia gutturalis;

When from a disease of the trachea,

aphonia trachealis;

And when from a paralysis, or want of nervous energy, aphonia atonica;
APHORISM. (Aphorismus; from αφος-

iza, to distinguish.) A maxim, or principle, comprehended in a short sentence.

Armodisia. (From Aggodita, Venus.)
An immoderate desire of venery.

APHRODISIACS. (Aphrodisiaca, sc. medicamenta, apgolistata; from apgolista, venery.) Medicines which excite a desire for venery.

Aphrodistasticon. (From αφςος, froth.) A troch so called by Galen, because it was given in dysenteries, where the stools were frothy.

APHRODIDIUS MORBUS. (From Aggidith,

Vonus.) The venereal disease.

APHTHA. See Aphtha. APHTHE. (Appear: from andw, to inflame.) The thrush. Frog, or sore mouth. Aphtha lactucimen of Souvages. Ulcera serpentia oris, or spreading ulcers in the mouth, of Celsus. Pustula oris. Alcola. Vesicule gingivarum. Acacos Aphtha infantum. A disease to which children are very subject. It appears in small white ulcers upon the tongue, gums, and around the mouth and palate, resembling small particles of curdled milk. When the disease is mild, it is confined to these parts; but when it is violent and of long standing, it is apt to extend through the whole course of the alimentary canal, from the month down to the anus; and so to excite severe purgings, flatulencies, and other disagreeable symptoms. The discase, when recent and confined to the mouth, mry in general be easily removed; but when of long standing, and extending down to the stomach and intestines, it very

frequently proves fatal.

The thrush sometimes occurs, as a chronic disease, but in warm climates and in those Northern countries where the cold is combined with a considerable degree of moisture, or where the soil is of a very marshy nature It may in some cases, be considered as an idiopathic affection; but it is more usually symptomatic. It shews itself, at first, by an uneasy sensation, or burning heat in the stomach, which comes on by slow degrees, and increases gradually in violence. After some time, small pimples, of about the size of a pin's head, snew themselves on the tip and edges of the tongue; and these, at length, spread over the whole inside of the mouth, and occasion such a tenderness and rawness, that the patient cannot take any food of a solid nature; neither can he receive any vinous or spirituous liquor into his mouth, without great pungency and pain being excited; little febrile heat attends, with dry skin, pale countenance, small pulse, and cold extrinities. These symptoms will probably continue for some weeks, the general health being sometimes better, and sometimes worse, and then the patient will be attacked with acid eructations, or severe purging, which greatly exhausts his strength, and produces considerable emaciation of the whole body. After a little time, these symptoms cease, and he again enjoys better health; but, sooner or lafer, the acrid matter shews itself once more in the month, with greater virulence than before, and makes frequent translations to the stomach and intestines, and so from these to the mouth again, until at last, the patient is reduced to a perefect skeleton. Elderly people, and persons with a shattered constitution, are more liable to its attacks. It is ranked by Cullen in the class pyrexiæ, and order exanthemata.

APIUM (From nπιος, Dorice, ατιος, mild; or from apes, bees; because they

are fond of it.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the herb small-age. The root, seeds, and fresh plant: Apinm graveolens, foliolis caulinis, cuneiformibus, umbellus, sessilibus, of Linnaus, are aperient and carminative.

AFIUM GRAVEOLENS. The systematic name for the apium of the pharmacopoias.

See Apium.

AFTUM PETROSELINUM. The systematic name for the petroselinum of the pharmacopoias. See Petroselinum.

Apneustia. (From a, neg. and arvea, to

breathe.) A defect or difficulty of respiration, such as happens in a cold, &c. Fasius.

APNOEA. The same. Galen.

APOCAPNISMUS. (From ano, and kanvos, smoke) A funnigation.

Agocatharsis. (From ano, and sabatega, to purge.) An evacuation of humours; a discharge downward; but sometimes applied, with little discrimination, to vomiting.

Apocaulizesis. (From αποκαυλίζω, to break transversely) A transverse frac-

ture. Hippocrates.

APOCENOSIS. (From απο, and κενοω, to evacuate.) A superabundant flux of Llood, or other finid, without pyrexia. The name of an order in the class locales of Cullen.

APOCOPE. (From a ro. and restlor, to cut from ) Abscission, or the removal of a part

by cuiting it off.

Apoenisis. (From απο, and κεινα, to secrete from.) A secretion of superabundant

humours. Hippocrates.

Apocrustinum. Apocrusticon. (From αποκεβώ, to repel.) An astringent or repellent medicine. Galen.

APOCRUSTICON. See Apocrustinum.

Apocresis. (From \$a\tau\_0\$, and \$uu\_0\$, to bring forth.) Parturition, or the bringing forth of a child. Galen.

APODACRYTICA. (From 270, and 3228, a tear.) Medicines which, by exciting tears, remove superfluous humours from the eyes, as onions, &c. Plum.

APOGEUSIA. See Agheustia. Apogeusia. See Agheustia.

Apogensis. See Agheustia.

Apogenomesis. (From απογινομαι, to be

absent.) The remission or absence of a disease. Hippocrates.

Apoglaucosis. (From ano, and pausos, sky-coloured; so called because of its bineish appearance.) Glaucoma. A cataract of the eye. Dioscovides.

Apogonum. (From ano, and propar, to beget.) A living feetus in the womb. Hip-

pocrates.

Apolersis. (From απο, and λαμθανα, to take from.) An interception, suppression, or retention of trime, or any other natural evacuation. Hippocrates.

Apolinosis. (From απο, and λμον, flax.) The method of curing a fistula, according to Ægineta, by the application of raw

flax.

Apolysis. (From απο, and λυα, to release.) The solution or termination of a disease. The removal of a bandage. Erotianus.

ADMAGMA. (From are, and uarla, to cleanse from.) Any thing used to cleanse and wipe away filth from sores, as a sponge, &c. Hippocrates.

Aromathema. (From ατο, neg. and μανθανα, to learn.) Hippocrates expresses,

by this term, a forgetfulness of all that has

APOMELI. (From and, from, and men, honey) An oxymel, or decoction, made

with honey.

APONEUROSIS. (From arro, and vevgor, a nerve; from an erroneous supposition of the ancients, that it was formed by the expansion of a nerve.) A tendinous expansion. See Muscle.

Aponia. (From a, priv. and woves, pain.)

Freedom from pain.

APONITROSIS. (From ano, and virgov, nitre.) The sprinkling an ulcer over with

APOPALLESIS. (From αποπαλλω, to throw off hastily.) An abortion, or premature expulsion of a focus. Hippocrates.

Apopedassis. (From are, and madaw, to

jump from.) A luxation.

APOPHLEGMASIA (From απο, and φλεγμα, phlegm.) A discharge of phlegin, or mucus.

APOPHLEGMATICA. (From ano, and φλεγμα, phlegm.) Apophligmatizantia. Apophligmatizonta. Medicines which excite the secretion of mucus from the mouth and nose. Masticatories.

Apophraxis. (From απο, and φεασσω, to interrupt. A suppression of the men-

strual discharge. APOPHTHARMA. (From are, and obugue, to corrupt.) A medicine to procure abor-

tion. (From αποφθειζω, to be APOPHTHORA.

abortive.) An abortion. APOPHYAS. (From αποφυώ, to proceed from.) Any thing which grows or adheres to another, as a wart to the finger.

The ramifications of the APOPILY ADES.

veins and arteries. Hippocrates. .

APOPHYSIS. (From αποφυώ, to proceed from.) Appendix. Probole. Echphysis. Processus. Productio. Projectura. Protuberantia. A process, projection, or protuberance, of a bone beyond a plain surface; as the nasal apophysis of the frontal bone, &cc.

APOPHTHEGMA. (From атофверуоция, to speak eloquently.) A short maxim, or

axiom; a rule.

APOPLECTA. A name formerly applied to the internal jugular vein; so called because, in apoplexies, it appears full and turgid. Bartholin.

(From αποπληξια, APOPLECTICA. Medicines against an apoapoplexy.)

plexy.

APOPLEXIA. (From ano, and wanoow, to strike or knock down; because persons, when seized with this disease, fall down suddenly.) Apoplexy. A sudden abolition, in some degree, of the powers of sense and motion, with sleep, and sometimes snoring; the respiration and motion

of the heart remaining. Cullen arranges it in the class neuroses, and order comata.

When it takes place from a congestion of blood, it is termed apoplexia sanguinea.

2. When there is an abundance of serum, as in persons of a cold temperament, apoplexia serosa.

3. If it arise from water in the ventricles of the brain, it is called Apopleaia hydroce.

phalica.

4. If from a wound, apoplexia traumatica.

5. If from poisons, apoplexia venenata.

6. If from the action of suffocating exhalations, apoplexia saffocata.

7. If from passions of the mind, apoplexia mentalis.

8. And when it is joined with catalensy. apoplexia cataleptica.

Apoplexy makes its attack chiefly at an advanced period of life; and most usually on those who are of a corpulent habit, with a short neck, and large head, and who lead an inactive life, make use of a full diet, or drink to excess. The immediate cause of apoplexy, is a compression on the brain, produced either by an accumulation of blood in the vessels of the head, and distending them to such a degree, as to compress the medullary portion of the brain; or by an effusion of blood from the red vessels, or of serum from the exhalants: which fluids are accumulated in such a quantity as to occasion compression. The former of these is called a sangumeous and the latter a serous apoplexy. These states, of over distinction and of effusion, may be brought on by whatever increases the afflux and impetus of the blood in the arteries of the nead; such as violent fits of passion, great exertions of muscular strength, severe exercise, excess in venery, stooping down for any length of time, wearing any thing too tight about the neck, overloading the stomach, long exposure to excessive cold, or a verticle sun, the sudden suppression of any long-accustomed evacuation, the application of the fumes of certain narcotic and metallic substances, such as opium, alcohol, charcoal, mercury, &c. and by blows, wounds, and other external injuries: in short, apoplexy may be produced by whatever determines too great a flow of blood to the brain, or prevents its free return to

The young, and those of a full plethoric habit, are most liable to attacks of the sanguineous apoplexy; and those of a phlegmatic constitution, or who are much advanced in life, to the serous. Apoplexy is sometimes preceded by headach, giddiness, dimness of sight, loss of memory, faltering of the tongue in speaking, numbness in the extremities, drowsiness, stupor, and night-mare, all denoting an affection of the brain; but it more usually happens that,

without much previous indisposition, the person falls down suddenly, the counte-nance becomes florid, the face appears swelled and puffed up, the vessels of the head, particularly of the neck and temples, seem turgid and distended with blood; the eyes are prominent and fixed, the breathing is difficult, and performed with a snorting noise, and the pulse is strong and full. Although the whole body is affected with the loss of sense and motion, it nevertheless takes place often more upon one side than the other, which is called hemiplagia, and in this case, the side least affected with palsy is somewhat convulsed.

In forming an opinion as to the event, we must be guided by the violence of the symptoms. If the fit is of long duration, the respiration laborious and stertorous, and the person much advanced in years, the disease, in all probability, will terminate fatally. In some cases, it goes off entirely; but it more frequently leaves a state of mental imbeculity behind it, or terminates in a hemiplegia, or in death. Even when an attack is recovered from, it most frequently returns again, after a short period of time, and in the end proves fatal. In dissections of apoplexy, blood is often found effused on the surface and in the cavities of the brain; and in other instances, a turgidity and distention of the blood-vessels are to be observed. In some cases, tumours have been found attached to different parts of the substance of the brain, and in others, no traces of any real affection of it could be observed.

APOUNIXIS. (From αποπνιγω, to suffo-

cate.) A suffocation. Moschion.

Aporsophesis. (From are, and Jopew, to emit wind.) The emission of wind by the anus or uterus, according to Hippocrates.

Aporsycuia. (From are, from, and ψυχη, the mind.) The highest degree of deliquium, or fainting, according to Galen.

(From αποπιπτω, to fall APOPTOSIS. down.) A prolapsus, or falling down of any part, through relaxation. Erotian.

Aponexis. (From απο, and οgeγω, to stretch out.) A play with balls, in the

gymnastic exercises.

Arons. (From a, priv. and wegoe, a duct. Restlessness, uneasiness, occasioned by the interruption of perspiration, or any stoppage of the natural secretions.

Aphonhipsis. (From απορριπτω, to cast off.) Hippocrates uses this word to signify that kind of insanity where the patient tears off his clothes, and casts them from

APOSKEPARNISMUS. (From and from, and σκεπαςνεζω, to strike with a hatchet.) Deasciatio. A species of fracture, when part of a bone is chipped off. Gorraus.

Aposchasus. Aposchasuus. (From arc.

and  $\sigma \chi \alpha \zeta \alpha$ , to scarify.) A scarification.

Venescetion. Hippocrates.

APOSITIA. Apositios. (From απο, from, and σιτος, food.) A loathing of food. Galen.

APOSPASMA. (From ωποσπαω, to tear off.) A violent, irregular fracture of a ten-

don, ligament, &c. Galen.
Aposphacelisis. (From απο, and σφαkelos, a mortification.) Hippocrates uses this word to denote a mortification of the flesh in wounds, or fractures, caused by too tight a bandage.

Apostasis. (From aro, and isnui, to re-

cede from )

1. an abscess, or collection of matter.

2. The coming away of a fragment of bone, by fracture.

3. When a distemper passes away by some outlet, Hippocrates calls it an abostasis by excretion.

4. When the morbific matter, by its own weight, falls and settles on any part, an apostasis by settlement.

5. When one disease turns to another,

an apostasis by metastasis.

Apostaxis. (From αποςαζω, to distil from.) Hippocrates uses this word to express the defluxion or distillation of any humour, or fluid: as blood from the nose.

APOSTEMA. (From apishui, to recede.) The term given by the ancients to abscesses in general. See Abscessus.

APOSTEMATIAI. Those who, from an inward abscess, void pus downwards, are thus called by Aretæus.

Aposterigma. (From arooneica, fulsio.) Galen uses this word to denote a rest of a diseased part, a cushion.

APOSTOLORUM UNGUENTUM. αποςολος, an apostle.) Dodecapharmacum. The apostles' ointment; so called because it has twelve ingredients in it, exclusive of the oil and vinegar.

APOSTROPHE. (From and seepe, to turn from.) Thus Paulus Egineta expresses

an aversion for food.

APOSYRINGESIS. (From and and over) E, a fistula.) The degeneracy of a sore into a fistula. Hippocrates.

APOSYRMA. (From and over, to rub off.) An abrasion or desquamation of the bone, or skin. Hippocrates.

APOTANEUSIS. (From a To and Terro, to extend.) An extension, or elongation, of any member or substance.

APOTELMESIS. (From a to and TEXMA, a bog.) An expurgation of filth, or faces.

APOTHECA. (Απεθακα: from αποιθακμι, to reposite.) A shop, or vessel, where medicines are sold or deposited.

APOTHECARIUS. (From are, and τιθημι, pono, to put; so called from his employ being to prepare, and keep in readiness, the various articles in the Materia Medica, and to compound there for

the physician's use; or from arobnan, a shop.) An apothecary. In every European country, except Great B i ain, the apothecary is the same as, in England, we name the druggist and chymist.

APOTHERAPLIA. (From are and Sepaπευω, to cure.) A perfect cure, according

to Hippocr tes.

APOTHERAPEUTICA. (From αποθεραπευω, to heal ) Therapeutics; that part of medicine which teaches the art of curing dis-

APOTHERMUM. (From and Seemin, heat.) An acrimonious pickle, with mustard, vinegar, and oil. Galen.

Aporthesis. (From απο and τιθημι, to replace.) The reduction of a dislocated

bone, according to H procrates.

Apothlimmi. (From are and Inco to press from.) The dregs of expressed juice of a plant.

APOTHRAUSIS. (Firm and and Seave to break.) Apocope. The taking away the

splinters of a broken bone.

Aporocus. (From απο and τουτω, to bring forth ) Abortive; premature. Ihppocrates.

Apotrecsis. (From απο and τεετω, to turn from ) A resolution or reversion of a

suppurating tumour.

APOTROPEA. (From aποτρεπω, to avert.) An amulet, or charm, to avert diseases.

Apozema. (From and and APOZEM.

ζεω, to boil ) A decoction.
ΑροΖΕυΧΙS. (From απο and ζευγνυμι, to separate ) The separation or removal of morbid parts. Hippocrates.

ΑρυχχΜος. (From απο and ζυμη, fer-

ment ) Fermented.

APPARATUS. (From appareo, to appear, or be ready at hand.) This term implies the preparation and arrangement of every thing necessary in the performance of an operation, or in the application of dressings. The apparatus varies according to circumstances. Instruments, machines, bandages, tapes, compresses, pledgets, dossils of lint, tents, &c. are parts of the apparatus, as well as any medical substances used. It is a rule in surgery to have the apparatus ready before beginning an operation. All preparations of this kind should not be made in the patient's room, when they can be avoided, nor any where in his presence, as it would agitate him, and render him timid and more restless in the operation.

APPARATUS MINOR. See Lithotomy. APPARATUS MAJOR. See Lithotomy. APPARATUS ALTUS. See Lithotomy.

APPENDICULA CECI VERMIFORMIS vermicular process, about four inches in length, and the size of a goose-quill, which liangs to the intestinum cacum of the human body.

APPENDICULE EPIPLOICE. Appendices

coli adipose. The small appendices of the colon and rectum, which are filled with adipose substance. See Omentum.
Apple, thorn. See Stramonium.

APPLE. The common crab-tree, fyrus malus of Lin-zus, is the parent of all the vast variety of apples at present cultivated. Apples, in gen ral, when ripe, afford a pleasant and easily digestible truit for the table; but, when the stomach is weak, they are very apt to remain unaltered for some days, and to produce dyspepsia. Sour fruits are to be considered as unwholsome, except when boiled or baked, and rendered soft and mellow by the addition of sugar.

APRICOT. The fruit of the Prunus armeniaca of Linnaus. When ripe, they are easily digested, and are considered as a

pleasant and nutritious delicacy.

APYREXIA. (From a, priv. and wvgegia, a f ver.) Apyrexy. Without fever. intermission of feveri-h heat.

AQUA. See Water.

AQUA AERIS FIXI. Water impregnated with fixed air. This is liquid carbonic acid, or water impregnated with carbonic acid; it sparkles in the glass, has a pleasant acidulous taste, and forms an excellent beverage. It diminishes thirst, lessens the morbid heat of the body, and acts as a powerful diuretic. It is also an excellent remedy in increasing irritability of the stomach, as in advanced pregnancy, and it is one of the best anti-emetics which we possess.

AQUA ALUMINIS COMPOSITA. Compound solution of alum, formerly called aqua aluminosa bateana. See Liquor aluminis com-

AQUA AMMONIE ACETATE. See Liquor ammonia acetatis.

AQUA AMMONIÆ PURÆ. See Liquor ummania.

AQUA ANETHI. See Anethum.

AQUA CALCIS. See Liquor calcis.

AQUA CELESTIS. A preparation of cu-

AQUA CARUI. See Carui.

Aqua cinnamomi. See Cinnamomum.

AQUA CUFRI AMMONIATI. See Liquor cupri ammoniati.

AQUA CUPRI VITRIOLATI COMPOSITA-This preparation of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, is used externally, to stop hæmorrhages of the nose, and other parts. It is made thus:

y. Cupri vitriolati, aluminis, sing. Zss. Aquæ puræ, Ziv. Acidi vitriolici, Zij

Boil the salts in water until they are dissolved; then filter the liquor, and add the acid.

AQUA DISTILLATA. Distilled water. This is made by distilling water in clean vessels, until about two thirds have come over. In nature, no water is found perfectly pure. Spring or river water always contains a portion of saline matter, principally sulphate of lime; and, from this impregnation, is unfit for a number of pharmaceutic preparations. By distillation, a perfectly pure water is obtained. The London College directs ten gallous of common water : of which, first distil four pints, which are to be thrown away; then distil four gallons. This distilled water is to be kept in glass vessels. See Water.

AQUA FŒNICULI. See Funiculum. AQUA FORTIS. See Acidum nitrosum di-

lutum.

AQUA KALI PRÆPARATI. See Liquor subcarbonatis potassæ.

AQUA KALI PURI. See Liquor potassæ. AQUA LITHARGYRI ACETATI. quor acetatis plumbi.

AQUA LITHARGYRI ACETATI COMPOSITA. See Liquor plumbi acetatis dilutus.

AQUA MENTHÆ PIPERITÆ. See Mentha

AQUA MENTHÆ SATIVÆ. See Mentha

AQUA MENTHÆ VIRIDIS. See Mentha

AQUA PIMENTÆ, See Pimenta.

AQUA PULEGII. See Pulegium.

AQUA REGIA. Aqua regulis The acid now called the nitro-muriatic, was formerly called aqua regalis, because it was, at that time, the only acid that could dissolve gold. See Nitro-muriatic acid.

AQUA ROSÆ. See Rosa centifolia.

AQUA STYPTICA. A name formerly given to a combination of powerful astringents, viz. sulphate of copper, sulphate of alum, and sulphuric acid. It has been applied topically to check hæmorrhage, and largely diluted with water, as a wash in puruleut ophthalmia.

AQUA ZINCI VITRIOLATI CUM CAMPHO-BA. Otherwise named Aqua vitriolica camphorata. This, when properly diluted, is a useful collyrium for inflammations of the eyes, in which there is a weakness of the parts. Externally it is applied by surgeons to scorbutic and phagedenic ulcerations.

Distilled waters. AQUE DISTILLATE. These are made by introducing vegetables, as mint, penny-royal, &c. into a still with water; and drawing off as much as is found to possess the properties of the plants. The London College orders the waters to be distilled from dried herbs, because fresh are not ready at all times of the year. Whenever the fresh are used, the weights are to be increased. But, whether the fresh or dried herbs are employed, the operator may vary the weight according to the season in which they have been produced and collected. Herbs and seeds, kept beyond the space of a year, are improper for the distillation of waters. To every gallon of these waters, five ounces, by measure, of proof spirit are to be added.

AQUE MINERALES. See Waters, mineral. AQUE STILLATITIE SIMPLICES. distilled waters.

AQUE STILLATITIE SPIRITUOSE. rituous distilled waters, now called only

spiritus, as spiritus pulegii. AQUEDUCT OF FALLOPIUS. A canal

in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, first accurately described by Fallo-

Aquatic nut. See Tribulus aqualicus.

Aqueous humoun of the eye. The very limpid watery fluid, which fills both

chambers of the eye. See Eye.

The name of a liquid poison. AQUETTA. made use of by the Roman women, under the Pontificate of Alexander VII. prepared, and sold in drops, by Tophania, or Toffania, an infamous woman who resided at Palermo, and afterwards at Naples. From her, these drops obtained the name of Aqua Toffania, Aqua della Toffana, and also Aqua di Napoli. This poison is said, by some, to be a composition of arsenic, and by others opium and cantharides.

Aquifolium. (From acus, a needle, and folium, a leaf; so called on account of its The leaves of this plant, prickly leaf.) Ilex aquifolium; foliis ovatis acutis spinosis, of Linnæus, have been known to cure intermittent fevers; and an infusion of the leaves, drank as tea, is said to be a pre-

ventive against the gout.

Aquila. A chymical name formerly used for sal-ammoniac, mercurius pracipitatus, arsenic, sulphur, and the philosoplier's stone.

AQUILA ALBA. One of the names given to calomel by the ancients. See Submurias hydrargyri.

Aquila Alba Philosophonum. Aque alba ganymedis. Sublimed Sal-ammoniac. Aqua

Aquila collestis. A panacea, or cure for all diseases; a preparation of mercury.

Aquila veneris. A preparation of the ancients, made with verdigrise and sublimed sal-ammoniac.

Aquila, among the ancients, had many other epithets joined with it, as rubra, salutifera, volans, &c.

Aquilæ venæ. (From aquila, an eagle.) Branches of the jugular veins, which are particularly prominent in the eagle.

AQUILE LIGNUM. Eagle-wood. generally sold for the agalochum.

AQUILEGIA. (From aqua, water, and lego, to gather; so called from the shape of its leaves, which retain water.) The herb

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Pentagynia.

2. The name, in the Pharmacopæia, for the columbine.

The seeds, flowers, and the whole plant, Aquilegia vulgaris; nectariis incurvis, of Linnaus, have been used medicinally,

the first in exanthematous diseases, the lat-Though ter chiefly is an antiscorbutic. retained in several foreign pharmacopæias, their utility seems to be not allowed in this

country.

(Diminutive of aqua.) AQUULA. small quantity of very fine and limpid wa-This term is applied to the pellucid water, which distends the capsule, of the cristalline lens, and the lens itself. Paulus Ægineta uses it to denote a tumour consisting of a fatty substance under the skin of the eyelid.

Arabic gum. See Acacia gummi.

ARACALAN. Amulets.

Araca MIRI. (Indian.) A shrub growing in the Brazils, whose roots are diuretic and antidysenteric.

ARACHNE. (From arag, Heb. to weave; or from agazym, a spider.) The spider.

ARACHNOID MEMBRANE. apayin, a spider, and edos, likeness; so named from its resemblance to a spider's A thin membrane of the brain, without vessels and nerves, situated between the dura and pia mater, and surrounding the cerebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla spinalis. The term is also applied by some writers to the tunic of the crystalline lens and vitreous humour of the eye.

(Indian.) ARACK. An Indian spirituous liquor, prepared in many ways, often from rice; sometimes from sugar, fermented with the juice of cocoa-nuts; frequently from toddy, the juice which flows from the cocoa-nut tree by incision, and from other

substances.

ARADOS. From agadesw, to be turbulent.) Hippocrates uses this term to signify a commotion in the stomach, occasioned by the fermentation of its con-

ARETICA. (From aganou, to rarefy.) Things which rarefy the fluids of the body.

ARALIA. (From ara, a band in the sea; so called because it grows upon banks, near the sea.) The berry-bearing angelica. Of the several species of this tree, the roots of the nudicaulis, or naked-stalked, were brought over from North America, where it grows, and sold here for sarsaparilla.

ARANEA. (From agaw, to knit together.)

The spider.

ARBOR VITÆ. The tree of life.

1. The cortical substance of the cerebellum is so disposed, that, when cut traversely, it appears ramified like a tree, from which circumstauce it is termed arbor vita.

2. The name of a tree, the leaves and wood of which were formerly in high estimation as resolvents, sudorifics, and expectorants, and were given in phthisical affections intermittent fevers, and dropsies. It is the Thuya occidentalis; strobilis levibus, squamis obtusis, of Linnæus.

ARBUTUS. The name of a genus of

plants in the Linnæan system. Class, De-Order, Monogynia. candria. berry tree.

The systematic ARBUTUS UVA URSI. name for the officinal trailing arbutus. See

ARCA ARCANORUM. The mercury of the philosophers. The pericardium.

ARCA CORDIS. ARCANUM. (A secret.) A medicine whose preparation, or efficacy, is kept from the world, to enhance its value. With the chymists, it is a thing secret and incorporeal; it can only be known by experience, for it is the virtue of every thing, which operates a thousand times more than the thing itself.

ARCANUM CATHOLICUM. Bezoar, plan-

tain, and colchium.

ARCANUM DUPLEX. Arcanum duplicatum. A name formerly given to the combination of potash and sulphuric acid, more coinmonly called vitriolated tartar, and now sulphat of potash.

ARCANUM TARTARI. The acetate of pot-

ARCERTHOS. Juniper.

ARCHE. Agxn, the beginning.)

first stage or attack of a disease.

ARCHEUS. The universal archæus, or principle of Van Helmont, was the active principle of the material world; it means good health also.

Arche. (From agan, the beginning.)

The earliest stage of a disease.

ARCHENDA. (Arab.) A powder made of the leaves of the ligustrum, to check the fetid odour of the feet. Detergent.

ARCHEOSTIS. White briony.

ARCHIMAGIA. (From agxn, the chief, and maga, Arab. meditation.) Chymistry, as being the chief of sciences.

ARCHITHOLUS. (From agxn, the chief, and Joxos, a chamber. The sudatorium, or principal room of the ancient baths.

ARCHOS. (From agxos, an arch.)

anus; so called from its shape. ARCHOPTOMA. (From agxos, the anus, and wirlw, to fall down.) A bearing down

of the rectum, or prolapsus ani. ARCTATIO. (From arcto, to make nar-

row.) Arctitudo. Narrowness.

1. A constipation of the intestines, from inflammation.

2. A preternatural straitness of the pu-

dendum muliebre,

ARCTIUM. (From apxlos, a bear; 50 called from its roughness.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqua-The burdock.

ARCTIUM LAPPA. (Lappa; ano To ha. Car, from its seizing the garments of passengers.) The herb clotbur, or burdock. The systematic name for the bardana. See Bardana.

ARCTURA. (From arcto, to straiten.)

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An inflammation of the finger, or toe, from a curvature of the nail.

Augualia. (From arcus, a bow.) Arcualis. The satura coronalis is so named, from its bow-like shape; and, for the same reason, the bones of the sinciput are called arcualia ossia. Bartholin.

ARCUATIO. (From arcus, a bow.) gibbosity of the fore-parts, with a curva-

vertebræ. Avicenna.

ARCULE. A dim. of arca, a chest.) The orbits or sockets of the eyes.

ARDAS. (From agdvw, to defile.) excrement, or refuse. Hippocrates. Ardent Spirit. See Alcohol.

ARDOR FEBRILIS. Feverish heat.

ARDOR URINÆ Dysuria. Scalding of the urine. Difficulty and pain in making water, attended with a sense of heat in the urethra. It is a symptom of gonorrhea, and some other affections.

ARDOR VENTRICULI. Heartburn.

AREA. An empty space. That kind of baldness where the crown of the head is left naked, like the tonsure of a monk.

An inferior kind of ARECA INDICA.

nutmeg.

(From agny w, to help.) AREGON. resolvent ointment; so called from its valuable qualities.

Cinnabar. AREMAROS.

ARENA. Sand, or gravel.

ARENAMEL. (From arena, sand; so called because it was said to be procured from sandy places.) Arenamen. Bole-arme-

ARENATIO. (From arena, sand.) Saburation, or the sprinkling of hot sand upon the bodies of patients. Andr. Baccius de

ARENTES. (From area, to dry up.) A sort of ancient cupping-glasses, used with-

out scarifying.
ARFOLA. (A dim. of area, a void space.) A small brown circle, which surrounds the nipples of females. During and after pregnancy, it becomes considerably

ARETE. (Agern, virtue.) Hippocrates uses this word to mean corporeal or mental vigour.

ARETENOIDES. See Arytenoides.

AREUS. A pessary, invented by Ægineta.

Aufan. Arsag. Arsenic. Ruland, &c. ARGAL. Argol. Crude tartar, in the state in which it is taken from the inside of winevessels, is known in the shops by this

Augasyllis. (From Agyos, a serpent: which it is said to resemble.) The plant which was supposed to produce gum-am-

ARGEMA. (From Agree, white.) Argemon. A small white ulcer of the globe of the eve. Erotianus, Galen, &c.

ARGENTI NITRAS. See Nitras argenti. ARGENTUM. Silver. See Silver.

ARGENTUM NITRATUM. See Nitras argenti.

ARGENTUM VIVUM. It was formerly, by some, cailed argentum mobile, and argentum fusum. See Hydrargyrus.

Anges. (From agyos, white.) A serpent, with a whitish skin, deemed by Hippocrates exceedingly venomous.

Argilla. (From zeros, white.) White clay; argil; potter's earth.

ARGILLA VITRIOLATA.

ARGYRITIS. (From agyugos, silver.) tharge, or spume of silver. A kind of earth was formerly so named, which is taken from silver mines, and is bespangled with many particles of silver.

ARGYROCOME. (From agyugos silver, and кома, hair.) A sort of cudweed, or gnaphalium, was so named, from its white sil-

very floscules.

Argynolibanos. The white olibanum. ARGYROPHORA. An antidote, in the com-

position of which there is silver.

ARGYROTROPHENA. (From αργος white, and τροφημα, food.) A white cooling food, made with milk. Milk diet. Galen.

(From a, neg. and ARHEUMATISTOS. ρευματιζω, to be afflicted with rheums.) Not being afflicted with gouty rheums.

ARICYMON. (From aga and now, to be quickly impregnated ) A woman who conceives quickly and often.

ARISTALTHEA. (From agusos, best, and axθam, the althæa.) Althæa, or common marsh-mallow.

ARISTOLOCHIA. (From agio70s, good and λοχια, or λοχια, parturition; so called because it was supposed to be of sovereign use in disorders incident to child-birth.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Gynandria, Order, Hexanaria. Birthwort.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the long-

rooted birthwort.

Aristolochia longa of Linnæus:-foliis cordatis, petiolatis, integarrimis, obtusiusculis; caule infirmo, floribus solitariis. The root of this plant only is in use; it possesses a somewhat aromatic smell, and a warm bitterish taste, accompanied with a slight degree of pungency. The virtues ascribed to this root by the ancients were very considerable; and it was frequently employed in various diseases, but particularly in promoting the discharge of the lochia; hence its name. It is now very rarely used, except in gouty affections, as an aromatic stimulant.

ARISTOLOCHIA ANGUICIDA. Snake-

killing birthwort.

Aristolochia :- foliis cordatis, acuminatis; caule volubili, fruticoso; pedunculis solita-riis; stipulis cordatis, of Linnæus. The juice of the root of this plant has the property of so stupifying serpents, that they may be handled with impunity. One or two drops are sufficient; and if more be dropt into the mouth, they become convulsed. So ungrateful is the smell of the root to those reptiles, that it is said they immediately turn from it. The juice is also esteemed as a preventive against the effects usually produced by the bite of venomous serpents.

ARISTOLOHIA CLEMATITIS. (Clematitis, from manμα, a tendril; from its climbing up trees, or any thing it can fasten upon with its tendrils.) The systematic name of the Aristolochia vulgaris of some pharmaco-

pæias. See Aristolochia vulgaris

Anistolochia fabacea. The root of this plant, Fumaria bulbosu of Linnæus:—caule simplici. bracteis longitudine florum; was formerly given to restore suppressed menses, and as an anthelmintic.

Anistolochia Longa. The systematic name for the ristolochia of our pharma-

copæias. See Aristolochia.

ARISTOLOCHIA ROTUNDA. The root of this species of birthwort, Aristolochia rotunda of Linuxus:—foliis cordatis, subsescilibus, obtusis; caule infirmo; floribus solitariis; is used indiscriminately with that of the aristolochia longa. See Aristolochia.

ARISTOLOCHIA SERPENTARIA. The systematic name for the Serpentaria virginiana of the pharmacopæias. See Serpentaria

virginiana

ARISTOLOCHIA TENUIS. See Aristolochia

vulgaris.

ARISTOLOCHIA TRILOBATA. Three-lobed birthwort. The root, and every part of this plant, Aristolochia trilobuta of Linnæus:—foliis trilobis, canle volubili, floribus maximis; is diurctic, and is employed in America

against the bite of serpents.

ARISTOLOCHIA VULGARIS. Aristolochia tenuis. An extract is ordered from this species, Aristolochia clematitis of Linnus: foliis cordatis; caule erecto; floribus axillaribus confertis; by the Wirtemberg Pharmacopœia, and the plant is retained in that of Edinburgh. It is esteemed as possessing antipodagric virtues.

ARISTOPHANEION. (From Aristophanes, its inventor.) The name of an ancient emollient plaister composed of wax, or

pitch. Gorræus.

ARMATURA. Hardness. The amnios or internal membrane which surrounds the fætus.

ARME. (From  $\alpha \xi \omega$ , to adapt.) A junction of the lips of wounds; also the joining of the sutures of the head.

Armilla. (Dim. of armus, the arm.) The round ligaments which confine the tendons of the carpus.

ARMORACIA. (From Armorica, the country whence it was brought.) See Raphanus rusticanus.

ARMORACIÆ RADIX. Horse-radish root.

See Raphanus rusticanus.

ARNICA. (Agrica: from ags, a lamb; because of the likeness of the leaf of this plant to the coat of the lamb.) Leopard'sbane. Arnica.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia, Or-

der, Polygamia superflua.

2. The pharmacoposial name of the Doronicum Germanicum. Mountain arnica. Arnica montona of Linnæus:—foliis ovatis integris; caulinis geminis oppositis. The flowers of this plant are very generally employed on the Continent. Of the advantages derived from their use, in paralytic and other affections, depending upon a want of nervous energy, there are several proofs; and their extraordinary virtues, as a febrifuge and antiseptic, have been highly extolled by Dr. Colin, of Vienna. Much caution is necessary in regulating the dose, as it is a medicine very apt to produce vomiting and much uneasiness of the stomach.

Arnica montana. The systematic name for the arnica of the pharmacopæias.

See Arnica.

ARNIEA SUEDENSIS. See Conyza media ARNOTTO. (Spanish.) A curious shrub in Jamaica, the seeds of which are covered with a kind of wax, from which is made the Spanish arnotto.

AROMA. (From aga, intensely, and via, to smell.) Spiritus rector. Each plant has its characteristic smell. This odorant principle is called by the moderns, aroma. Water charged with aroma, is called the distilled water of the substance made use of; thus lavender and peppermint waters are water impregnated with the aroma of the lavender and peppermint.

AROMATICUS CORTEX. A name for ca-

nella alba.

AROMATICS. (Aromatica, sc. medicamenta; from ago, an odour.) A term applied to all medicines which have a grateful spicy scent, and an agreeable pungent taste, as cinnamon bark, cardamoms, &c. Their peculiar flavour appears to reside in their essential oil, and arises in distillation either with water or spirit.

AROMATOPOLA. (From agaμa, an odour and ωωλεω, to sell.) A druggist; a vender

of drugs and spiceries.

ARQUEBUSADE. (A French word, implying good for a gun shot wound.) Aqua sclopetaria. Aqua vulneraria. Aqua eata-pultarum. The name of a spirituous water, distilled from a farrago of aromatic plants.

ARRACK. A spirituons liquor distilled from rice, and drank, in the rice countries, as we do brandy in this Island. Its effects on the animal oconomy are the same.

ARRAPHUS. (From a, priv. and gaps, a suture.) Without suture. It is applied to the cranium when naturally without sutures.

Annua. (From a, neg. and fex, to

flow.) The suppression of any natural flux, as the menses, &c.

ARROWHEAD. The roots of this plant, Sagituaria sagitufolia of Linnzus, are said to be esculent, but it must be in times of very great scarcity.

Annow-noor. Indian arrow-root. See Maranta.

ARSENIAS. (From arsenicum, arsenic) An arseniate or arsenical salt. A salt formed by a combination of arsenic acid with different bases, as arseniate of ammonia, which is produced by the union of ammonia with arsenic acid. The only one used in medicine is the arseniate of potash. See Liquor arsenicalis.

ARSENIC. (From the Arabic term Arsunek; or from agon, for aggn, masculus; from its strong and deadly powers.) Arsenicum crystullinum, risagallum, aquala, arfar, aquila, zurnick, artaneck. These names were all formerly applied to white arse-

mc.

Arsenic is a metal scattered, in great abundance, over the mineral kingdom. It is found in black heavy masses of little brilliancy, called native arsenic, (testaceous arsenic.) This exists in different parts of Germany. Mineralized by sulphur, it forms sulphurized arsenic, or orpiment. This mineral is met with in Italy, about Mount Vesuvius .-There are two varieties of this ore, which differ from each other in colour, occasioned by the different proportions of its component parts. The one is called yellow sulphurised arsenic, or orpiment; the other, red sulphurized arsenic, or realgar, (ruby arsenic;) both are met with in Hungary and different parts of Germany. The colour of the first ore is a lemon yellow, inclining sometimes to a green; the colour of the latter is a ruby red; it is more transparent than the former, and found in compact solid masses, sometimes crystallized in bright needles. Arsenic united to oxygen, constitutes the ore called native oxide of arsenic. This ore is scarce; it is generally found of an earthy appearance, or as an efflorescence, coating native, or metallic arsenic; its colour is a whitish grey; it is rarely met with crystallized. Arsenic exists likewise alloyed with cobalt, antimony, tin, copper, lead, and various other metals.

Properties. Arsenic is a brittle metal, and in the recent fracture, of a lively bright colour, between tin-white and lead gray; but, on exposure to the air, it soon loses its metallic lustre, and turns prismatic, dull, and at last black. Its specific gravity is between 8.310 and 5.763 according to its texture. Its hardness surpasses that of copper; but its ductility is so little, and its brittleness so great, that it is readily converted into a powder by the hammer. It is entirely volatilized when heated to 3560 Fahr. It sublimes in close vessels, and then crystallizes in tetrahedra, or octahedra.

When heated with the access of air, it emits a strong smell of garlic, and burns with a blueish white flame. It combines with sulpliur by fusion. It unites to phosphorus, and combines with most of the metals. gives a white colour to copper, and renders many of the ductile metals brittle. When mixed with hyper-oxigenated muriate of potash, it detonates strongly by the stroke of a hammer. It is soluble in hydrogen gas by heat. It does not decompose water alone. It decomposes sulphuric acid by heat. The nitric and nitrous acids oxidate it rapidly. The muriatic acid attacks it with heat. The oxigenated muriatic acid when in a gaseous state, inflames it instant-It is nearly unalterable by the fluoric, boracic, phosphoric, and carbonic acids. It unites with alkaline sulphurets, and hydrosulphurets. It is a deadly poison.

Method of obtaining Arsenic. In order to obtain metallic arsenic, mix two parts of the white oxid of arsenic of commerce, with one of black flux (obtained by detonating one part of nitrate of potash, and put the mixture into a crucible, or melting-pot. Invert over this, another crucible, lute the two together with a little clay and sand, and apply gradually a red heat to the lower one. The oxid of arsenic will be reduced, and be found lining the upper crucible in small crystals of a metallic brilliancy.

The charcoal of the black flux takes in this process the oxigen from the white oxid, and forms carbonic acid gas; which flies off during the process, and the oxid becomes reduced to the metallic state. This reduction of the oxid is greatly facilitated by the alkali of the flux.

Remark.—In order to obtain arsenic in a state of absolute purity, the metal before obtained must be reduced to powder, dissolved by heat in nitro-muristic acid, and then precipitated by immersing into the solution a plate of zinc. The arsenic is thus precipitated in a fine powder, and may be reduced to its metallic state, by exposing it in a covered crucible to a moderate lieat.

If it he kept under water, its metallic brilliancy may be preserved. This effect is still better produced by alcohol.

Arsenic and its various preparations are the most active of all poisons. A nausea, sickness, and reaching, commonly ensue in half an hour after taking it, followed by violent vomitings, hiccups, and pains in the stomach and bowels; convulsions, and palsies of the limbs presently succeed, with intense heats, cold sweats, palpitations of the heart, extreme anxiety, prostration of strength, thirst and dryness of the mouth and throat; loss of reason, and at last death. If the quantity taken has been considerable, the stomach and intestines are often found, upon dissection, corroded.

or perforated; and the blood is fluid, though in general the patient expires before the action of the poison has proceeded to such a length. After death, the body runs into sudden putrefaction. When the quantity taken does not prove fatal, it occasions tremors, palsies, or lingering hectics, and in the end death. To detect the presence of arsenic, whether taken by design, the wickedness of others, or imprudence, it is necessary to throw on live coals, the contents of the stomach, when a garlicky smell is immediately obvious. On polished copper, if heated between its plates, a white spot is impressed, or in close vessels, the arsenic itself will be found sublimed in the upper parts. In the stomach, however, there are many substances, which may resemble or disguise the smell of arsenic, especially if the arsenic be in small quantities. We are therefore advised by Hahneman, to boil the contents of the stomach of the person supposed to be destroyed by this poison, in a large quantity of river water; to add to one third of the filtered liquor, hot and limpid lime-water; to another third, water saturated with hepatic gas; and to the remainder, a solution of copper, in pure aqua ammoniæ. Each fluid is rendered turbid, if the suspected contents contain arsenic, and the sediment, thrown on live coals, emits the odour of garlic. The sediment of the lime-water is again dissolved by a recent solution of arsenic; the orange-coloured sediment, from the hepatic gas thrown on the coals, takes fire, and the smell of sulphur is observed previous to that of the garlic; while the yellow-green sediment of the copper is soluble in pure ammonia, and acids of every kind. Arsenic, however, is a valuable internal remedy, in its appropriate dose, viz. about one-eighteenth part of a grain. Liquor arsenicalis.

ARSENIOUS ACID. White arsenic. Oxyd of arsenic. The earliest chymists were embarrassed in the determination of the nature of the poisonous white substance known in commerce by the name of white arsenic. Subsequent experiments have shewn that this substance is metallic arsenic oxygenated in the first degree. The name of arsenious acid is therefore given to it. It is sometimes found in nature in sublimed crystals, in volcanoes; and in masses, or in stalactites among the ores of arsenic, cobalt, bismuth, and nickel.

It possesses a weak sub-acid taste, which slowly manifests itself. Though of but a feeble acidity, it sensibly reddens the tine-ture of cabbage and litmus. If placed on burning coals, or on a red-hot iron, it is volatilized in the form of a white vapour, which has a strong smell of garlic. It is slightly soluble in water. With phosphoric and boracic acids it fuses into glass. It decomposes the nitrates and the super-oxygenated muriate of potash. It unites with ma-

ny of the earths and alkalies, and forms sa-

line compounds. Methods of obtaining Arsenious Acid .- 1. Pulverize arsenic, and put as much of it into a Florence flask as will fill it about one half, or less. Introduce a little tow or cotton, into the neck of the flask, and apply the heat of a lamp. A dense white smoke will be formed, and become precipitated on the internal sides of the flask. process be kept up till all the arsenic be oxidated, (which may be known by introducing a wire into the flask for a moment, which will become covered with a white crust, if the sublimation be not completed,) and the heat be then gradually augmented, the sublimed arsenious acid undergoes a sort of fusion, and an opake white mass, similar to that met with in commerce, is obtained.

2. The arsenious acid of the shops (or white arsenic) is chiefly obtained from arsenical ores of cobalt. These ores are thrown into a furnace, resembling a baker's oven, with a long flue, or chimney, either horizontal or winding, into which the fumes pass, and are condensed into a greyish or blackish powder. This is refined by a second sublimation, in close vessels, with a little alkali to arrest the impurities. As the heat is considerable, it melts the sublimed arsenious acid into those opake crystalline masses which are known in commerce by the name of white arsenic.

Arsenious acid, united with different ba-

ses, forms salts called ARSENITES.

ARSENIC ACID. This is arsenic fully oxygenated. It is always a product of art. It is capable of existing in the solid state.

It appears in the form of a white pulverulent matter. It attracts humidity from the air. It is soluble in water. The solution possesses a considerable acid taste. It may be evaporated to dryness, and even converted into glass. It is decomposable by all combustible bodies, and by many oxyds. It is soluble in some acids, but without

change, or intimate combination.

Method of obtaining Arsenic Acid .- Take two ounces of white arsenic in powder, and put it into a tubulated retort; pour on it six or seven ounces of muriatic acid, and apply the heat of a lamp until the arsenious acid is dissolved. Then add three or four ounces of nitric acid, and heat it again gradually. An intestine motion now takes place, and much red vapour, or nitrous gas, is extricated. As soon as in the progress of the operation, the red vapours have ceased, an ounce of finely powdered arsenious acid is to be again added, and the solution effected as before, by a gentle ebullition; to this two ounces of nitric acid must be added, which will produce a second effervescence and discharge of red vapours: the distillation must now be continued to dryness, and the fire must be urged towards the end, to such a degree, as to make the residual mass thoroughly red-hot. This mass is arsenic acid, which may either be preserved in that form, or be dissolved in boiling distilled water.

Arsenic acid, united to different bases, forms saline compounds, called ARSE-The only one used in medicine NIATES. is the arseniate of potash. See Liquor ar-

senicalis.

ARSENICI OXYDUM PREPARATUM. pared arsenious acid. It is sometimes used as a caustic.

Ausenicum Album. White arsenic.

Rat's-bane. See Arsenious acid.

Ausenical caustic. A species of caustic said to possess useful properties, independent of those of destroying morbid parts to which it is applied. It is composed of two parts of levigated antimony to one of white arsenic. This is the caustic so extensively employed under the name of arsenical caustic, by the late Mr. Justamons, in his treatment of cancers.

Arsenical solution. See Liquor arsenicalis. ARTEMISIA. (From a queen of that name, who first used it; or from Αgτεμις, Diana; because it was formerly used in the diseases of women, over whom she presided.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. Mugwort.
ARTEMISIA ABROTANUM. The systema-

tic name for the abrotanum of the pharma-

copæias. See Abrotanum.

The systema-ARTEMISIA ABSYNTHIUM. tic name for the Absynthium vulgare of the pharmacopæias. See Absynthium vulgare.

ARTEMISIA JUDIACA. The systematic name for the Santonicum of the pharmaco-

pæias. See Santonicum.

The systematic ARTEMISIA MARITIMA. name for the Absynthium maritimum of the See Absynthium maripharmacopæias.

ARTEMISIA PONTICA. The systematic name for the Absynthium ponticum. Absynthium Ponticum.

The systematic ARTEMISIA RUPESTRIS. name for the genipi album of the pharmaco-

pæias. See Genipi album.

ARTEMISIA VULGARIS. Mugwort. This plant, Artemisia, foliis pinnatifidis, planis, incisis, subtus tomentosis, racemis simplicimis recurvatis floribus radio quinquefloro of Linnæus, is slightly bitter, and, although in high esteem in former days, is now almost wholly forgotten. By beating and rubbing the dried tops of this plant, the Japanese prepare a soft substance, which they call moxa. See Moxa.

ARTEMONIUM. (From Artemon, its inventor.) A collyrium or wash for the eyes.

ARTERIA. See Artery.

ARTERIACA. (From aethera, an artery.) Medicines formerly used against disorders of the aspera arteria.

ARTERIÆ DIPOSÆ. The arteries which secrete the fat about the kidneys are so called. They are branches of the capsular and diaphragmatic, renal, and spermatic

ARTERIÆ VENOSÆ. The four pulmonary veins were so called by the ancients.

ARTERIOSUS DUCTUS. See Ductus arte-

ARTERIOTOMY. (From aglingia, an artery, and Timvo, to cut. The opening of an artery. This operation is only perform-

ed on the temporal artery.

ARTERY. (From ang, air, and These, to keep; so called because the ancients supposed that only air was contained in them.) Arteria. Arteries are membranous pulsating canals, which gradually become less as they proceed from the heart. They are composed of three membranes; a common or external, a muscular; and an internal one, which is very smooth. They originate from the heart; the pulmonary artery from the right ventricle, and the aorta from the left: the other arteries are all branches of the aorta. Their termination is either in the veins, or in capillary exhaling vessels, or they anastomose with one another. It is by their means that the blood is carried from the heart to every part of the body, for nutrition, preservation of life generation of heat, and the secretion of the different fluids. The action of the arteries, called the pulse, corresponds with that of the heart, and is effected by the contraction of their muscular, and great elasticity of their innermost, coat.

A Table of the Arteries.

All the arteries originate from the pul-

monary artery and the aorta.

The pulmonary artery emerges from the right ventricle of the heart, soon divides into a right and left branch, which are distributed by innumerable branches through the lungs.

The aorta arises from the left ventricle of the heart, and supplies every part of the body with blood, in the following order:

a. It first forms an arch;

b. It then descends along the spine, and

c. It divides into the two iliacs.

a. The ARCH OF THE AORTA gives off three branches.

I. The arteria innominata, which divides into the right carotid and right subclavian.

II. The left carotid.

III. The left subclavian.

- I. The carotids are divided into external and internal.
  - The external carotids give off
- 1. The thyroid,
- 2. The lingual,
- 3. The labial,
- 4. The inferior pharyngeal,
- 5. The occipital,
- 6. The posterior auris,
- 7. The internal maxillary, from which the

spinous artery of the dura mater, the lower maxillary, and several branches about the palate and orbit arise,

8. The temporal.

The internal carotid affords

1. The ophthalmic,

2. The middle cerebral,

- 3. The communicans, which innosculates with the vertebral.
- II. The subclavians give off the following branches:
- The internal mammary, from which the thymic, comes phrenici, pericardiac, and phrenico-pericardiac arteries arise,

2. The inferior thyroid, which gives off the tracheal, ascending thyroid, and transver-

salis humeri.

- 3. The vertebral, which proceeds within the vertebræ, and forms within the cranium the basilary artery, from which the anterior cerebelli, the posterior cerebri, and many branches about the brain are given off,
- 4. The cervicalis profunda,

5. The cervicalis superficialis, 6. The superior intercostal.

7. The supra-scapular.

As soon as the subclavian arrives at the arm-pit, it is called the uxillary artery; and when the latter reaches the arm, it is called the brachial.

The axillary artery gives off,

1. Four mammary arteries,

2. The sub-scapular,

3. The posterior circum flex,

4. The anterior circumflex, which ramify about the shoulder-joint.

The brachial artery gives off,

1. Many lateral branches,

2. The profunda humeri superior,

3. The profunda humeri inferior,

4. The great anastomosing artery, which ramifies about the elbow-joint;

The brachial artery then divides, about the bend of the arm, into the ulnur and radical arteries, which are ramified to the ends of the fingers.

The ulnar artery gives off,

1. Several recurrent branches,

2. The common interosseal, of which the dorsal, ulnar, the pulmaris profunda, the palmary arch, and the digitals, are branches.

The radial artery gives off,

1. The radial recurrent,

- 2. The superficialis vola, and then divides into the palmaris profunda and the digitals.
  - b. The descending Aorta gives off,

In the breast,

- 1. The bronchial, 2. The asophageal,
- 3. The intercostals,
- 4. The inferior diaphragmatic: Within the abdomen,
- 1. The caliac, which divides into three

1. The hepatic, from which are given

off, before it reaches the liver,

a. The duodeno-gustric, which sends off the right gastro-epiploic and the pancreatico-duodenal,

B. The pilorica superior hepitaca;

2. The coronaria ventriculi,

- 5. The splenic, which emits the great and small pancreatics, the posterior gastric, the left gastro-epiploic, and the vasa brevia;
- 2. The superior mesentric,

3. The emulgents,

4. The spermatics,

- The inferior mesentric, 6. The lumbar arteries,

7. The middle sacral.
c. The aorta then bifurcates into the ILIACS, each of which divides into external and internal.

The internal illac, called also hypogastric,

gives off.

1. The lateral sacrals,

2. The gluteal,

3. The ischiatic,

4. The pudical, from which the external hamorrhoidal, the perineal, and the arteriæ penis arise,

5. The obturatory. The external iliac gives off, in the groin,

1. The epigastric,

2. The circumflexa iliaca;

It then passes under Poupart's ligament, and is called the femoral artery; and sends

1. The profunda.

2. The ramus anastomoticus magnus, which runs about the knee-joint;

Having reached the ham, where it gives off some small branches, it is termed the popliteal. It then divides into the anterior and posterior tibial.

The tibialis antica gives off.

1. The recurrent,

- 2. The internal malleolar,
- 3. The external malleolar,
- 4. The tarseal,
- 5. The metatarseal,
- 6. The dorsales externa halices. The posterior tibial sends off.

1. The nutritia tibia,

2. Many small branches,

3. The internal plantar,

4. The external plantar, from which an arch is formed, that gives off the digitals of the toes.

ARTHANITA. (From aplos, bread; because it is the food of swine.) sow-bread. See Cyclamen.

ARTHEMBOLUS. (From agbeer, a joint,

εμεαλλω, to impel.) An instrument for reducing luxated bones.

ARTHRITICA. (From αεβειτικ, the gout.) 1. The herb ground-pine; so called because it was thought good against gouty disorders.

2. Remedies for the gout. ARTHRITIS.

(From apagos, a joint; because it is commonly confined to the

sology, gives it the name of podagra, because he considers the foot to be the seat of idiopathic gout. It is arranged in the class purexia and order phlegmasia, and is divided into four species, the regular, atomic, retrocedent, and misplaced. The gout is a very painful disease, preceded usually by flatulency and indigestion, and accompa-nied by fever, pains in the joints of the hands and feet, particularly in that of the great-toe, and which returns by paroxysms, occurring chiefly in the spring and beginning of winter. The only disorder for which it can possibly be mistaken, is the rheumatism; and cases may occur wherein there may be some difficulty in making a just discrimination; but the most certain way of distinguishing them will be, to give due consideration to the predisposition in the habit, the symptoms which have preceded, the parts affected, the recurrences of the disease, and its connexion with other parts of the system. Its attacks are much confined to the male sex, particularly those of a corpulent habit, and robust body; but every now and then we meet with instances of it in robust females. Those who are employed in constant bodily labour, or who live much upon vegetable food, as likewise those who make no use of wine, or other fermented liquors, are seldom afflicted with the gout. The disease seldom appears at an earlier period of life than from five-and-thirty to forty; and, when it does, it may be presumed to arise from an hereditary disposition. Indolence, inactivity, and too free a use of tartareous wines, fermented liquors, and animal food, are the principal causes which give rise to the gout; but it may likewise be brought on by great sensuality and excess in venery, intense and close application to study, long want of rest, grief, or uneasiness of mind, exposure to cold, too free a use of accidulated liquors, a sudden change from a full to a spare diet, the suppression of any accustomed discharge, or by excessive evacuations; and that it sometimes proceeds from an hereditary disposition, is beyond all doubt, as females who have been remarked for their great abstemiousness, and youths of a tender age, have been attacked with it.

1. Arthritis regularis. A paroxysm of regular gout sometimes comes on suddenly, without any previous warning; at other times it is preceded by an unusual coldness of the feet and legs, a suppression of perspiration in them, and numbress, or with a sense of prickling along the whole of the lower extremities; and with these symptoms the appetite is diminished, the stomach is troubled with flatuleucy and indigestion, a degree of torpor and languor is fettover the whole body, great lassitude and fatigue are experienced after the least ex-

croise, the body is costive and the urine patlid. On the night of the attack, the patient perhaps goes to bod in tolerable healt, and, after a few hours, is awakened by the severity of the pain, most commonly in the first joint of the great-toe; sometimes, however, it attacks other parts of the foot, the heel, calf of the leg, or perhaps the whole of the foot. The pain resembles that of a dislocated bone, and is attended with the sensation as if cold water was poured upon the part; and this pain becoming more violent, is succecded by rigors and other febrile symptoms, together with a severe throbbing and inflammation in the part. Sometimes both feet become swelled and inflamed so that neither of them can be put to the ground; nor can the patient endure the least motion, without suffering excruciating pain. Towards morning, he falls asleep, and a gentle sweat breaks out, and terminates the paroxysm, a number of which constitutes what is called a fit of the gout; the duration of the fit will be longer or shorter, according to the disposition of the body to the disease, the season of the year, and the age and strength of the patient. When a paroxysm has thus taken place, although there is an alleviation of pain at the expiration of some hours, still the patient is not entirely relieved from it; and, for some evenings successively, he has a return both of pain and fever, which continue with more or less violence, until morning. The paroxysms, however, prove usually more mild every day, till at length the disease goes off either by perspiration, urine, or some other evacuation; the parts which have been affected becoming itchy, the cuticle falling off in scales from them, and some slight degree of lameness remaining. At first, an attack of gout occurs, perhaps, only once in two or three years; it then probably comes on every year, and, at length, it becomes more frequent, and is more severe, and of longer duration, each succeeding fit. In the progress of the disease, various parts of the body are afficted, and translations take place from one joint, or limb, to another; and, after frequent attacks, the joints lose their strength and flexibility, and become so stiff as to be deprived of all motion. Concretions, of a chalky nature, are likewise formed upon the outside of the joints, and nephritic affections of the kidneys arise from a deposite of the same kind of matter in them which, although fluid at first, becomes dry and firm at last, and, when put into acids, is perfectly soluble

2. Arthritis atonica. Atonic gout. It sometimes happens that, although a gouty diathesis prevails in the system, yet, from of the joints is preduced; in which case, the storeigh becomes particularly affected, and

the patient is troubled with flatulency, indigestion, loss of appetite, eructations, nausea, vomiting, and severe pains; and these affections are often accompanied with much dejection of spirits, and other hypochondriacal symptoms. In some cases, the head is affected with pain and giddiness, and now and then with a tendency to apoplexy; and in other cases, the viscera of the thorax suffer from the disease, and palpitations, faintings, and asthma arise. This

is what is called atonic gout. 3. Arthritis retrograda. Retrocedent gout. It sometimes happens that, after the inflammation has occupied a joint, instead of its continuing the usual time, and so going off gradually, it ceases suddenly, and is translated to some internal part. The term of retrocedent gout is applied to occurrences of this nature. When it falls on the stomach, it occasions nausea, vomiting, anxiety, or great pain; when on the heart, it brings on syncope; when on the lungs, it produces an affection resembling asthma; and, when it occupies the head, it is apt to give rise to apoplexy, or palsy.

4. Arthritis aberrans, or misplaced gout, is when the gouty diathesis, instead of producing the inflammatory affection of the joints, occasions an inflammatory affec-tion of some internal part, and which ap-pears from the same symptoms that at-tend the inflammation of those parts from other causes. All occurrences of this nature, as well as of the two former, are to be regarded as attacks of irregular gont and are to be guarded against as much as

possible.

ARTHROCACE. (From agbeor, a joint.)

An ulcer of the cavity of the bone,

ARTHRODIA. (From abeca, to articulate.) A species of diarthrosis, or moveable connexion of bones, in which the head of one bone is received into the superficial cavity of another, so as to admit of motion in every direction, as the head of the humerus with the glenoid cavity of the scapula.

ARTHRODYNIA. (From aphpou, a joint, and adovn, pain.) Chronic pains in the joints. without pyrexia. It is one of the terminations of acute rhenmatism. See Rheuma-

tismus.

ARTHROPUOSIS. (From αρθρον, a joint, and wvev. pus.) Arthropyosis. A collection of pus in a joint. It is, however, frequently applied to other affections, as lumbago psoadica, &c.

(From agbeco to articu-ARTHROSIS. late, or join together.) Articulation.

See Cynara. Artichoke.

Artichoke, French. See Cynara.

ARTICHORE, JERUSALEM. Although formerly in estimation for the table, this plant Helianthus tuberosus of Linnaus, is now neglected, it being apt to produce flatulency and dyspepsia.

ARTICULARIS. A name given to a dis-

ease which more immediately infests the articuli, or joints. The morbus articularis is synonymous with the Greek word arthritis, and our gout. A branch of the basilic vein is called articularis vena, because it passes under the joint of the shoulder.

ARTICULATION. (From articulus, 2 The skeleton is composed of a great number of bones, which are all so admirably constructed, and with so much affinity to each other, that the extremity of every bone is perfectly adjusted to the end of the bone with which it is connected; and this connexion is termed their articulation. Anatomists distinguish three kinds of articulation: the first they name Diarthrosis; the second, Synarthrosis; and the third Amphiarthrosis; which see, under their respective heads.

ARTISCUS. (From agree, bread.) A troch; so called because they are made like little

loaves.

ARTOCREAS. (From agros, bread, and nagros, fruit.) A nourishing food, made of bread and various meats, boiled together. Galen.

(From agros, bread, and ARTOGALA. γαλα, milk.) A cooling food, made of bread and milk.) A positice.

(From agros, bread, and ARTOMELI. μελι, honey.) A cataplasm made of bread and honey. Galen.

ARUM. (From the Hebrew word jaron which signifies a dart, so named because its leaves are shaped like a dart; or from apa, injury.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Gynandria. Order, Polyandria. Arum, or wake robin.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the

common arum, or wake-robin.

Arum maculatum of Linnaus:-acaule foliis hastatis integerrimis, spadice clavato. The root is the medicinal part of this plant, which, when recent, is very acrimonious; and, upon being chewed, excites an intolerable sensation of burning and prickling in the tongue, which continues for several When cut in slices, and applied to the skin, it has been known to produce blisters. This acrimony, however, is gradually lost by drying, and may be so far dissipated by the application of heat, as to leave the root a bland farinaceous aliment. In this state, it has been made into a wholesome bread. It has also been prepared as starch. Its medicinal quality, therefore, resides wholly in the active volatile matter, and consequently the powdered root must lose much of its power, on being long kept. Arum is certainly a powerful stimulant, and, by promoting the secretions, may be advantageously em-ployed in cachetic and chlorotic cases, in rheumatic affections, and in various other complaints of phlegmatic and torpid

constitutions; but more especially in a weakened or relaxed state of the stomach, occasioned by the prevalence of viscid mucus. If this root is given in powder, great care should be taken that it be young and newly dried, when it may be used in the dose of a scruple, or more, twice a day; but in rheumatisms, and other disorders requiring the full effect of this medicine, the root should be given in a recent state; and, to cover the insupportable pungency it discovers on the tongue, Dr. Lewis advises us to administer it in the form of emulsion, with gum-arabic and spermaceti, increasing the dose from ten grains to upwards of a scruple, three or four times a day. In this way, it generally occasioned a s-nsation of slight warmth about the stomach, and afterwards, in the remoter parts, manifestly promoted perspiration, and frequently produced a plentiful sweat. veral obstinate rheumatic pains were removed by this medicine The root answers quite as well as garlic for cataplasms, to be applied on the feet in deliriums. The London College, in their pharmacopæia, 1788, ordered a conserve, in the proportion of half a pound of the fresh root to a pound and a half of double refined sugar, beat together in a mortar, which appears to be one of the best forms of exhibiting arum, as its virtues are destroyed by drying, and are not extracted by any menstruum. It may be given to adults in doses of a drachm.

ARUM MACULATUM. The systematic name for the arum of the pharmacopæias.

See Arum.

ARYTENO-EPIGLOTTIDEUS. Innes. Albinus, Aryteno-Epiglottici of Winslow. A muscle composed of a number of fibres running between the arytenoid cartilage and epiglottis. It pulls the side of the epiglottis towards the external opening of the glottis, and when both act, they pull it close upon the glottis.

ARYTÆNOID CARTILAGE. Cartilago arytenoidea. The name of two cartillages

of the larynx. See Larynx.

ARYTENOIDES. (From applaine, a funnel, and sides, shape.) The name of some parts, from their being funnel-shaped.

ARYTENOIDEUS MAJOR. See Arytenoi-

deus transversus.

ARTTENOIDEUS MINOR. See Arytæ-

noideus obliquus.

ARYTÆNOIDEUS OBLIQUUS. Innes. Albinus, and Winslow. Arytænoideus minor of Douglas. A muscle of the glottis, which arises from the base of one arytænoid cartilage, and crossing its fellow, is inserted near the tip of the other arytænoid cartilage. It is a muscle that is occasionally wanting; but when present, and both muscles act, their use is to pull the arytænoid cartilages towards each other.

ARYTENOIDEUS TRANSVERSUS, of Innes, Albinus, Winstow. Arytenoideus major of Douglas. An azygos, or single muscle of the glottis, that arises from the sideof one ary moud cartilage, from near its articulation with the cricoid to near its tip. The fib. es run across, and are inserted in the same manner into the other arytemoid cartilage. Its use is to shut the glotis, by bringing the two arytemoid cartilages, with their ligaments, nearer to each other.

ASAFŒTIDA. (From the Hebrew word asa, to heal.) Hingisch of the Persians, Altihi of the Arabians. By some thought to be the σιλρίο, vel, στος σιλρίο of Dioscorides, Theophratus, and Hippocrates. Laser et luserpitian of the Latins. Assaferida gum resin. The plant which affords this gum resin, is the Ferula assafetida of Linnaus:—folio alternatim sinuatis, obtusis. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digyna. It grows plentfully on the mountains in the provinces of Chorasaan and Laar in Persia.

The process of obtaining it is as tollows: the earth is cleared away from the top of the roots of the oldest plants; the leaves and stalks are then twisted away, and made into a covering, to screen the root from the sun; in this state the root is left for forty days, when the covering is removed, and the top of the root cut off transversely; it is then screened again from the sun for forty-eight hours, when the juice it exudes is scraped off, and exposed to the sun to harden. A second transverse section of the root is made, and the exudation suffered to continue for forty eight hours, and then scraped off. In this manner it is eight times repeatedly collected in a period of six weeks. The juice thus obtained has a bitter, acrid, pungent taste, and is well known by its peculiar nauseous smell, the strength of which is the surest test of its goodness. This odour is extremely volatile, and of course the drug loses much of its efficacy by keeping. It is brought to us in large irregular masses, composed of various little shining lumps, or grains, which are partly of a whitish colour, partly reddish, and partly of a violet hue. Those masses are accounted the best which are clear, of a pale reddish colour, and variegated with a great number of elegant white tears. This concrete juice consists of two-thirds of gum and one-third of resin, its taste and smell residing in the resinous part. It yields all its virtues to alcohol. Triturated with water, it forms a miky-like mixture, the resin being diffused by the medium of the gum. Distilled with water, it affords a small quantity of essential oil. It is the most powerful of all the fætid gums, and is a most valuable remedy. It is most commonly employed in hysteria, hypochondriasis, some symptoms of dyspepsia, flatulent

colics, and in most of those diseases termed nervous, but its chief use is derived from its antispasmodic effects; and it is thought to be the most powerful remedy we possess, for those peculiar convulsive and spasmodic affections, which often recur in the first of these diseases, both taken into the stomach and in the way of enema. It is also recommended as an emmenagogue, anthelmintic, antiasthmatic, and anodyne. Dr. Cullen prefers it as an expectorant to gum ammoniacum. Where we wish it to act immediately as an antispasmodic, it should be used in a fluid form, as that of tincture, from half a drachin to two drachms. When given in the form of a pill, or triturated with water, its usual dose is from 5 to 20 grs. When in the form of enema, two drachms are to be diffused in eight ounces of warm milk or water. It is sometimes applied externally as a plaster and stimulating remedy, and is much used in hysteria, hypochondriasis, dyspep-

Asaphatum. (From α, neg. and σαφες, clear.) An intercutaneous itch, generated in the pores, like worms with black heads: so called by reason of their minuteness: they are hardly visible.

ASAPHIA. (From α, neg. and σαφης, clear.) A defect in utterance or pronunciation

ASARABACCA. See Asarum.

Asari Folia. Asarabacca leaves. The leaves of the Asarum Europæum. See

ASARUM. (From  $\sigma$ , neg. and  $\sigma \alpha \mu \omega$ , to adorn, because it was not admitted into the ancient coronal wreaths.) Asarabacca.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Dodecandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the asarabacca.

rabacca.

Asarum Europeum of Linnxus, foliis reniformibus obtusis binis.

It is a native of England, but not very common. The leaves of this plant are extremely acrid, and are occasionally used, when powdered, as a sternutatory. For this purpose the leaves, as being less acrid than the roots, are preferred, and in moderate doses not exceeding a few grains, snuffed up the nose several evenings, produce a pretty large watery discharge, which continues for several days together, by which head-ache, tooth-ache, opthalmia, and some paralytic and soporific complaints have been effectually relieved.

Prior to the introduction of ipecacuanha, the leaves and root of this plant were frequently employed on account of their emetic power: the dose of the dried leaves was 20 grains; of the dried roots 10 grains. As they were occasionally violent in their operation, they have fallen into disuse.

ASARUM EUROPEUM. The systematic

name of the asarabacca of the shops. So Asarum.

Ascardes. The plural of ascaris. See Ascaris.

ASCARIS. (From uonico, to move about; so called from its continued troublesome motion.) There are several kinds of worms distinguished by this term; but those which claim a place here as belonging only to the human body, are:—

1. Ascaris vermicularis, the thread or maw worm, which is very small and slender, not exceeding half an inch in length:

they inhabit the rectum.

2. Ascaris lumbricoides, the long and round worm, which is a foot in length, and about the breadth of a goose-quill.

ASCENDENS OBLIQUUS. See Obliquus as-

cendeus.

Ascia. An axe or chissel. A simple bandage; so called from its shape in position. Galen.

ASCITES. (From 2020s, a sack, or bottle: so called from its bottle-like protuberancy.) Dropsy of the belly. A tense, but scarcely elastic, swelling of the abdomen from accumulation of water. Cullen ranks this genus of disease in the class cachexiae, and order intumescentiae. He enumerates two species:—

1 Ascites abdominalis, when the water is in the cavity of the peritonaum, which is known by the equal swelling of the parietes of the abdomen.

2. Ascites saccatus, or encysted dropsy, in which the water is encysted, as in the ovarium; the fluctuation is here less evident, and the swelling is at first partial.

Ascites is often preceded by loss of appetite, sluggishness, dryness of the skin, oppression at the chest, cough, diminution of the natural discharge of urine, and costiveness. Shortly after the appearance of these symptoms, a protuberance is perceived in the hypogastrium, which extends gradually, and keeps on increasing, until the whole abdomen becomes at length uniformly swelled and tense. The distension and sense of weight, although considerable, vary somewhat according to the posture of the body, the weight being felt the most on that side on which the patient lies, whilst at the same time, the distension becomes somewhat less on the opposite side. In general the practitioner may be sensible of the fluctuation of the water, by applying his left hand on one side of the abdomen, and then striking on the other side with his right. In some cases it will be obvious to the ear. As the collection of water becomes more considerable, the difficulty of breathing is much increased, the counte-nance exhibits a pale and bloated appearance, an immoderate thirst arises, the skin is dry and parched, and the urine is very scanty, thick, high coloured, and deposits a

lateritious sediment. With respect to the pulse, it is variable, being sometimes considerably quickened, and at other times, slower than natural. The principal difficulty which prevails in ascites, is the being able to distinguish with certainty, when the water is in the cavity of the abdomen, or when it is in the different states of encysted dropsy. To form a just judgment, we should attend to the following circumstances: When the preceding symptoms give suspicion of a general hydropic diathesis; when at the same time, some degree of dropsy appears in other parts of the body; and when from its first appearance the swelling has been equally diffused over the whole belly, we may generally presume that the water is in the cavity But when an ascites of the abdomen. has not been preceded by any remarkable cachectic state of the system, and when, at its beginning, the tumour and tension had appeared in one part of the belly more than another, there is reason to suspect an encysted dropsy. Even when the tension and tumour of the belly have become general, yet if the system or the body in general appear to be little affected; if the patient's strength be little impaired; if the appetite continue pretty entire, and the natural sleep be little interrupted; if the menses in females continue to flow as usual; if there be yet no anasarca, or though it may have already taken place, if it be still confined to the lower extremities, and there be no leucophlegmatic paleness or sallow colour in the countenance; if there be no fever, nor so much thirst and searcity of urine as occur in a more general affection: then according as more of these different circumstances take place, there will be the stronger grounds for supposing the ascites to be of the encysted kind.

Aser. A pustule like a millet seed.

Asegon. Asegon. Asegon. Dragon's blood. ASCLEPIAS. (From Asclepias, its discoverer; or from Asculapius, the god of medicine.) The herb swallow-wort. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

Ascleptas vinceroxicum. The systematic name for the vincetoxicum of the pharmaco-

paias. See l'incetoxicum.

Asclerios. (From Asclepias, its inventor.) A dried smegma and collyrium de-

scribed by Galen.

Ascoma. (From arms, a bottle.) The eminence of the pubes at the years of maturity; so called from its shape.

Ash. Sec Fraxinus.

Asones. (From afa, to nauseate.) A nausea or loathing, or a fever with much sense of heat and nausea. Areteus.

ASIATICUM BALSAMUM. Balm of Gilcad. ASINUS. The ass. Its milk is much esteemed in medicine. See Asses' milk.

ASININUM LAC. "Asses' milk.

Asiri. (From a, neg. and ourse, food.)

Asitia. Those are so called who take no food far want of appetite.

ASJOGAM. (Indian) A tree growing in Malahar and the East Todies, whose juice is used against the colic.

ASPADIALIS A suppression of urine

from an imperforated methra.

ASPALATHUM. The aromatic aloe.

ASPARAGUS. (Ασπαραχώ, a young shoot, before it unfolds its leaves.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Hexandria, Order,

Monogynia. Asparagus.
2. The pharmacopoulal name of the com-

mon sparage, or sparrow-grass.

Asparagus officinalis of Linnæus. The root has been esteemed as a diuretic. It is mostly employed as a food, but it contains very little nourishment.

Aspasia. (From α, for αμα, together, and σπαα, to draw.) A constrictive medicine for the pudendum muliebre. Capivac.

ASPERA ARTERIA. (So called from the inequality of its cartilages) Sec Trachea.

ASPERULA. (A diminutive of asper, the seeds being rough.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Tetrandria. Order, Monogynia. Woodroof.

ASPERULA OBORATA. The systematic name for the officinal matrisylva. See Matrisylva.

ASPHALITIS. A kind of trefoil: the last vertebra of the loins.

ASPHODELUS. (From αστικ, a serpent, and διιλες, fearful; because it destroys the venom of serpents; or from στοδιλος, ashes, because it was formerly sown upon the graves of the dead) Asphodel.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Hexandria. Order,

Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the daf-

fodil, or branched asphodel.

Aspholelus rannosus, of Linnæus:—caule nudo, foltis ensiformibus, carinatis, levibus. The plant was formerly supp sed to be efficacious in the cure of sordid ulcers. It is now wholly laid aside.

Asphonetus namosus, The systematic name for the officinal asphodelus. See As-

phodelus.

ASPHYXIA. (From α, priv. and σφυξε, a pulse.) The state of the body, during life, in which the pulsation of the heart and arteries cannot be perceived. There are several species of asphyxia enumerated by different authors. See Syncope,

Astidiscus. (From agric, a buckler.) The sphincter muscle of the anus was formerly so called from its shape. Calius

Aurelianus.

ASPLENIUM. (From a, priv. and others the spleen; because it was supposed to remove disorders of the spleen.) The herb spleen-wort.

The name of a genus of plants in the Lin-

næan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order. Filicis.

ASPLENIUM RUTA MURARIA. The systematic name for the ruta muraria of the pharmacopæias. See Ruta muraria.

ASPLENIUM SCOLOPENDRIUM. The systematic name for the scolopendrium of the pharmacopæias. See Scolopendrium.

ASPLENIUM TRICHOMANES. tematic name for the trichomanes of the

pharmacopæias. See Trichomanes. A shrub found on the coast of Guinea, whose leaves are supposed to disperse buboes.

Assarctida. See Assofatida.

Assala. The nutmeg.

ASSANUS. A weight consisting of two drachms.

ASSANABACCA. See Asarum.

Assanium. A Roman measure of twelve ounces

See Articulation. ASSARTHROSIS.

Asse. A loathing of food, from a con-

flux of humours. Hippocrates.

Asses' Milk. This is preferred to cows' and other kinds of milk in phthis cal cases, and where the stomach is weak; as containing less desginous particles, and being more easily converted into chyle.

Assimplation. (Assimilatio, from ad, and similie, to make like to.) The conversion of the food into nuriment.

Assistentes. (From ad. and sisto, to stand near.) A name of the prostate gland; so called because it lies near the bradder.

(From acaomia, to nauseate, or from assare, to burn.) Asodes. A continual fever attended with a loathing of food. Sauvages cells it Tritæphya assodes; it is arranged by Cullen under the tertian remittents.

Assos. A name given formerly to alumen.

ASTACUS MARINUS. (From a, neg. and sala, to distil; so called from the hardness and dryness of its shell.) The lobeter. The black tips of the claws of this fish, and of the sea crab, and the stony concretions in the heads of the astacus fluviatill s, called crab's eyes, form some of the absorbent preparations of the shops

ASTACUS FLUVIATILIS. The officinal crab, crevis, or cray fish.

ASTAPIS. (From 7aque uva, passa) raisin.

ASTARZOF. The name of an ointment of litharge, house-leek, &c. Haracelsus.

ASTCHACHILOS A malignant ulcer, by some called araneus.

ASTEANTIUM. (From asup, a star.) tericum. The herb pellitory: so called from its star-like form.

ASTHENIA. (From α, priv. and σθενος, strength.) Extreme debility. The asthenic diseases form one great branch of the Brunonian hypothesis.

ASTHENOLOGY. (From a, priv. and ob: yes, strength, and royes, a treatise) The doctrine of diseases arising from debility disciples of the Brunonian school, as they denominate themselves, maintain peculiar opinions on this subject.

ASTHMA. (From ασθμαζω, to breathe with difficu.ty) Difficult respiration, returning at intervals, with a sense of stricture across the breast, and in the lungs; a wheezing, hard cough, at first, but more free towards the close of each paroxysm, with a discharge of mucus, followed by a remission. It is ranked by Cullen in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. are three species of asthma:-

1. Asthma spontaneum, when without

any manifest cause.

2. Asthma plethoricum, when it arises from plethora.

3. Asthma exanthematicum, originating from the repulsion of some acrid hu-

Asthma rarely appears before the age of puberty, and seems to attack men more frequently than women, particularly those of a full habit, in whom it never fails, by frequent repetition, to occasion some de-gree of emaciation. In some instances, it arises from an hereditary predisposition, and in many others, it seems to depend upon a particular constitution of the lungs. Dyspepsia always prevails, and appears to he a very prominent feature in the predisposition. Its attacks are most frequent during the heats of summer in the dogdays, and in general commence at midnight. On the evening preceding an attack of asthma the spirits are often much affected, and the person experiences a sense of fulness about the stomach, with lassitude, drowsiness, and a pain in the head. On the approach of the succeeding evening, he perceives a sense of tightness and stricture across the breast, and a sense of straitness in the lungs, impeding respiration. The difficulty of breathing continuing to increase for some length of time, both inspiration and expiration are performed slowly and with a wheezing noise; the speech becomes difficult and uneasy, a propensity to coughing succeeds, and the patient can no longer remain in a horizontal position, being as it were threatened with immediate suffocation. These symptoms usually continue till towards the approach of morning, and then a remission commonly takes place; the breathing becomes less laborious and more full, and the person speaks and coughs with greater ease. If the cough is attended with an expectoration of mucus he experiences much re-lief, and soon falls asleep. When he awakes in the morning, he still feels some degree of tightness across his breast, although his breatling is trobably more free and easy, and he cannot bear the least motion, without rendering this more difficult and uneasy; neither can he continue in bed, unless his head and shoulders are raised to a considerable height. Towards evening, he again becomes drowsy, is much troubled with flatuiency, in the stomach, and perceives a return of the difficulty of breathing, which continues to increase gradually, till it becomes as violent as on the night before. After some nights passed in thi. way, the fits at length moderate, and suffer more considerable remissions, particularly when they are attended by a copious expectoration in the mornings, and that this continues from time to time throughout the day; and the disease going off at last, the patient enjoys his usual rest by night, without further disturbance.

ASTITES. (From ad, and sto, to stand near.) A name given by the ancients to the prostate glands, because they are situa-

ted near the bladder.

ASTRAGALUS. (Asprazaus, a cockal, or die; because it is shaped like the die used in ancient games.) Ballisfæs os : aristrios : talus : quatrio : tetroros : cavicula

cavilla: diabebos: peza.

1. The name of a bone of the tarsus, upon which the tibia moves. Ancle-bone; also called the sling-bone, or first bone of the foot. It is placed posteriorly and superiorly in the tarsus, and is formed of two parts, one large, which is called its body, the other small, like a process. The part where these two unite is termed the neck.

2. The Linnard system. Class, Linnard system, Milk-vetch. 2. The name of a genus of plants in, the Class, Diadelphia.

ASTRAGALUS EXCAPUS. Stemless milk vetch. The root of this plant, Astragalus acaulis excapus leguminibus lunatis, foliis villosis of Linnæus, is said to cure confirmed syphilis, especially when in the form of nodes and nocturnal pains.

ASTRAGALUS TRAGACANTHA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the gum tragacanth. See Tragacantha.

ASTRANTIA VULGARIS. From astrum, a star; so called from the star-like shape of Astrantia nigra. The herb its flowers.) sanicle masterwort. A rustic purge.

ASTRAPE. (From a spanla, to corruscate.) Galen reckons it among the Lightning.

remote causes of epilepsy.

(From astringo, to bind.) ASTRICTA. When applied to the belly, it signifies costiveness; thus alvus astricta.

Astringents. See Adstringents.

ASTRONOMIA. (From asgov, a star, and romos, a law.) Astronomy, or the knowledge of the heavenly bodies. Hippocrates ranks this and astrology among the necessary studies of a physician,

ASUAR. Indian myrobalans, or purging

ASUGAR. Ærugo æris, or verdigrise. Asvoli. Fuligo, or soot, an antispasmodic. ATAC. Nitre.

(From a, neg. and rasou, to order.) Want of regularity in the symptoms of a disease, or of the functions of an animal body,

(Arab.) . A tenesmus : a dis-

ease of the eyes.

ATAXMIR. (Arab.) Removal of preternatural hairs growing under the natural ones on the eye-lids.

ATEBRAS. A chymical subliming vessel. ATECNIA. (From α, neg. and τικτω, to ing forth.) Venereal impotency: ina-Venereal impotency: inabring forth.) bility to procreate children.

ATHAMANTA CRETENSIS. The systematic name for the daucus creticus of the phar-

macopæias. See Daucus creticus.

ATHAMANTA OREOSELINUM. tematic name for the officinal oreoselinum.

See Oreoselinum,

ATHANASIA (From a, priv. and Javaros. death; so called because its flowers do not wither easily.) The immortal plant. A name given to tansey: because when stuffed up the nose of a dead corpse, it is See Tanacesaid to prevent putrefaction. tum. It means also immortality. The name of an antidote of Galen, and another of Oribasius: it is the name also of a collyrium described by Ætius, and of many other compositions.

A chymical di-ATHANOR. (Arab.)

gesting furnace.

ATHARA. (From αθηρ, corn.) A panada, or pap for children, made of bruised corn.

ATHENA. A plaster in much repute among the ancients.

ATHENATORIUM. A thick glass cover formerly used for chymical purposes.

ATHENIONIS CATAPOTIUM. The name of a pill in Celsus's writings.

ATHENIPPON. Athenippum. nes. The name of a collyrium.

ATHEROMA. (Abuquez, pulse, pap.) An encysted tumour that contains a soft substance of the consistence of a poultice.

ATHONOR. (Arab.) A chymical furnace. ATHYMIA. (From a, neg. and Suuos, urage.) Pusillanimity. Despondence courage.) synonymous with melancholia.

ATINCAR. (Arab.) Borax.
ATLAS. (From ατλαω, to sustain, because it sustains the head; or from the fable of Atlas, who was supposed to support the world upon his shoulders.) The name of the first cervical vertebra. This vertebra differs very much from the others. (See Vertebra.) It has no spinous process which would prevent the neck from being bent backwards, but in its place it has a small eminence. The great foramen of this is much larger than that of any other verte-Its body, which is small and thin, is nevertheless firm and hard. It is somewhat like a ring, and is distinguished into its great arch, which serves in the place of its body, and its small posterior arch. The atlas is joined superiorly to the head b.

ginglymus; and inferiorly, to the second all deliquescent salts, possess this cervical vertebra, by means of the inferior. The greater number of animal at oblique processes and the odontoid process by trochoides.

ATMOSPHERE. (From Δμος, vapour and σφαιμα, a globe. The elastic invisible fluid which surrounds the earth to an unknown height and encloses it on all sides.

Neither the properties nor the composition of the atmosphere seem to have occupied much the attention of the ancients,

Aristotle considered it as one of the four elements, situated between the regions of water and fire, and mingled with two exhalations, the dry and the moist: the first of which occasioned thunder, lightning, and wind; while the second produced rain, snow, and hail.

The opinions of the ancients were vague conjectures, until the matter was explained by the sagacity of Hales, and of those philosephers who followed his career.

Boyle proved beyond a doubt, that the atmosphere contained two distinct sub-

stances :-

1. An elastic fluid distinguished by the name of air.

2. Water in a state of vapour.

Besides these two bodies it was supposed that the atmosphere contained a great variety of other substances which were continually mixing with it from the earth, and which often altered its properties and rendered it noxious or fatal—Since the discovery of carbonic acid gas by Dr. Black, it has been ascertained that this elastic fluid always constitutes a part of the atmosphere.

The constituent parts of the atmosphere,

therefore, are :-

1. Air.

2. Water.

3. Carbonic acid gas.
4. Unknown bodies.

For the properties, composition and ac-

count of the first, See Air.

2. Water.—That the atmosphere contains water, has been always known. The rain and dew which so often precipitate from it, the clouds and fogs with which it is often obscured, and which deposit moisture on all bodies exposed to them, have demonstrated its existence in every age. Even when the atmosphere is perfectly transparent, water may be extracted from it in abundance by certain substances. Thus if concentrated sulphuric acid be exposed to air, it gradually attracts so much moisture, that its weight is increased more than three times: it is converted into diluted acid, from which the water may be separated by distillation. Substances which have the property of abstracting water from the atmosphere, have received the epithet of hygroscopic, because they point out the presence of that water. Sulphuric acid, the fixed alkalies, muriat of lime, nitrat of lime, and in general

all deliquescent salts, possess this property. The greater number of animal and vegeta-Many of them take water from moist air, but give it out again to the air when dry. These bodies augment in bulk when they receive moisture, and diminish again when they part with it. Hence some of them have been employed as hygrometers or measurers of the quantity of moisture contained in the air around them. This they do by means of the increase or diminution of their length, occasioned by the addition or abstraction of moisture. This change of length is precisely marked by means of an index The most ingenious and accurate hygrometers, are those of Saussure and Deluc. In the first, the substance employed to mark the moisture is a human hair, which by its contractions and dilatations is made to turn round an index. In the second, instead of a hair, a very fine thin slip of whalebone is employed. The scale is divided into 1000. The beginning of the scale indicates extreme dryness, the end of it indicaies extreme moisture. is graduated by placing it first in air made as dry as possible by means of salts, and afterwards in air saturated with moisture. This gives the extremes of the scale, and the interval between them is divided into 100 equal parts.

The water, which constitutes a component part of the atmosphere, is chymically combined with air; but it exists in two different states. A small portion is held in solution in the state of water, but by far the greater proportion is in the state of an elastic fluid, whose specific gravity is to that of air as 10 to 12, and chymically combined with air in the same manner as one gas is combined with another. As the quantity of the water contained in the atmosphere varies considerably, it is impossible to ascertain its amount with any degree

of accuracy.

3. Carbonic acid gas. - The existence of carbonic gas as a constituent part of the atmosphere, was observed by Dr. Black immediately after he had ascertained the nature of that peculiar fluid. If we expose a pure alkali or alkaline earth to the atmosphere, it is gradu: lly converted into a carbonat by the absorption of carbonic acid gas. This fact, which had been long known, rendered the inference that carbonic acid gas existed in the atmosphere unavoidable as soon as the difference between a pure alkali and its carbonat had been ascertained to depend upon that Not only alkalies and alkaline carths absorb carbonic acid when exposed to the air, but several of the metallic oxydes

Carbonic acid gas not only forms a constituent part of the atmosphere near the surface of the earth, but at the greatest beights which the industry of man has been able to penetrate. Saussure found it at the top of Mount Blanc, the highest point of the old continent; a point covered with eternal snow, and not exposed to the influence of vegetables or animals. Lime water diluted with its own weight of distilled water, formed a pellicle on its surface after an hour and three quarters exposure to the open air on that mountain; and slips of paper moistened with pure pot-ash, acquired the property of effervescing with acids after being exposed an hour and a half in the same place. This was at a height no less than 15,668 feet above the level of the sea. Humbolt has more lately ascertained the existence of this gas in air, brought by Mr. Garnerin from a height not less than 4280 feet above the surface of the earth, to which height he had risen in an airballoon. This fact is a sufficient proof that the presense of carbonic acid in air does not depend upon the vicinity of the earth.

Now as carbonic acid gas is considerably heavier than air, it could not rise to great heights in the atmosphere unless it entered into combination with the air. We are warranted, therefore, to conclude that carbonic acid is not merely mechanically mixed, but it is chymically combined with the other constituent parts of the atmosphere. It is to the affinity which exists between carbonic acid and air that we are to ascribe the rapidity with which it disperses itself through the atmosphere, notwithstanding its great specific gravity. Fontana mixed 20,00 cubic inches of carbonic acid gas with the air of a close room, and yet half an hour after he could not discover the traces of carbonic acid in that Water impregnated with carbonic acid, when exposed to the air, very soon loses the whole of the combined gas. And when a phial full of carbonic acid gas is left uncorked, the gas, as Bergman first ascertained, very soon disappears, and the phial is found filled with common air.

It is owing to this strong affinity between air and carbonic acid gas, that it is so difficult to detect the presence of that gas in air by the common tests. Atmospheric air does not render lime water turbid, though agitated with it ever so long, or made to pass through it in ever so great a quantity. Neither has it any effect upon the most delicate vegetable blues. The great quantity of air with which it is combined, envelopes it in such a manner that these bodies are not powerful enough to abstract it. We must employ for that purpose substances which have a very strong affinity for that acid, as the alkalies, milk of lime, &c. These substances detect its presence by acquiring the property of effervescing with acids.

The difficulty of separating this gas from air has hitherto prevented the possibility of

determining with accuracy the relative quantity of it in a given bulk of air; but from the experiments which have been made, we may conclude with some degree of confidence, that it is not very different from 0.01. From the experiments of Humbolt, it appears to vary from 0.005 to 0.01. This variation will by no means appear improbable, if we consider that immense quantities of carbonic acid gas must be constantly mixing with the atmosphere, as it is formed by the respiration of animals, by combustion, and several other processes which are going on continual-ly. The quantity, indeed, which is daily formed by these processes is so great, that at first sight it appears astonishing that it does not increase rapidly. The consequence of such an increase would be fatal, as air containing 0.1 of carbonic acid extinguishes light and is noxious to animals. But there is reason to conclude, that this gas is decomposed by vegetables as rapidly

4. Bodies found in the atmosphere.—From what has been advanced, it appears that the atmosphere consists chiefly of three distinct elastic fluids united together by chymical affinity; namely, air, vapour, and carbonic acid gas; differing in their proportions at different times and in different places; the average proportion of each is

98.6 air

1.0 carbonic acid 0.4 water

## 100.0

But besides these bodies which may be considered as the constituent parts of the atmosphere, the existence of several other bodies has been suspected in it. It is not meant in this place to include among those bodies electric matter, or the substance of clouds and fogs, and those other bodies which are considered as the active agents in the phenomena of meteorology, but merely those foreign bodies which have been occasionally found or suspected in air. Concerning these bodies, however, very little satisfactory is known at present, as we are not in possession, of instruments sufficiently delicate to ascertain their presence. We can indeed detect several of them actually mixing with air, but what becomes of them afterwards we are unable to say.

1. Hydrogen gas is said to have been found in air situated near the crater of volcanoes, and it is very possible that it may exist always in a very small proportion in the atmosphere; but this cannot be ascertained till some method of detecting the presence of hydrogen combined with a great proportion of air be discovered.

2. Carbonated hydrogen gas is often emitted by marshes in considerable quantities during hot weather. But its presence has never been detected in air; so that in all probability it is again decomposed by

some unknown process.

3. Oxygen gas is emitted abundantly by plants during the day. There is some reason to conclude that this is in consequence of the property which plants have, of absorbing and decomposing carbonic acid gas. Now as this carbonic acid gas is formed at the expense of the oxygen of the atmosphere, as this oxygen is again restored to the air by the decomposition of the acid, and as the nature of atmospheric air remains unaltered, it is clear that there must be an equilibrium between these two processes; that is to say, all the carbonic acid formed by combustion must be again decomposed, and all the oxygen abstracted must be again restored. The oxygen gas which is thus continually returning to the air, by combining with it, makes its component parts always to continue in the same

4. The smoke and other bodies which are continually carried into the air by evaporation, &c. are probably soon deposited again, and cannot therefore be considered with propriety as forming parts of the at-mosphere. But there is another set of bodies, which are occasionally combined with air, and which, on account of the powerful action which they produce on the human body, have attracted a great deal of attention. These are known by the name

of contagion.

That there is a difference between the atmosphere in different places, as far as respects its effects upon the human body, has been considered as an established point in all ages. Hence some places have been celebrated as healthy, and others avoided as pernicious, to the human constitution. It is well known that in pits and mines the air is often in such a state as to suffocate almost instantaneously those who attempt to breathe it. Some places are frequented by peculiar diseases. It is known that those who are much in the apartments of persons ill of certain maladies, are extremely apt to catch the infection; and in prisons and other places, where crowds of people are confined together, when diseases once commence, they are wont to make dreadful havoc. In all these cases it has been supposed that a certain noxious matter is dissolved by the air, and that it is the action of this matter which produces the mischief.

This noxious matter is in many cases readily distinguished by the peculiarly disagreeable smell which it communicates to No doubt this matter differs according to the diseases which it communicates, and the substance from which it has originated. Morveau lately attempted to ascertain its nature; but he soon found the chymical tests hitherto discovered al-

together insufficient for that purpose. He has put it beyond a doubt, however, that this contagious matter is of a compound nature, and that it is destroyed altogether by certain agents, particularly by those gaseons bodies which readily part with their oxygen. He exposed infected air to the action of various bodies, and he judged of the result by the effect which these bodies had in destroying the fetid smell of the air. The following is the result of his experiments.

1. Odorous bodies, such as benzoin, aromatic plants, &c. have no effect whatever.

2. Neither have the solutions of myrrh, benzoin, &c. in alkahol, though agitated in infected air. 3. Pyrolignous acid is equally inert. 4. Gunpowder, when fired in infected air, displaces a portion of it; but what remains still retains its fetid odour. 5. Sulphuric acid has no effect; sulphurous acid weakens the odour, but does not destroy it. 6. Acetous acid diminishes the odour, but its action is slow and incomplete. 7. Acetic acid acts instantly, and destroys the fetid odour of infected air completely. 8. The fumes of nitric acid, first employed by Dr. Carmichael Smith, are equally efficacious. atic acid gas, first pointed out as a proper agent by Morveau himself, is equally effectual. 10. But the most powerful agent is oxy-muriatic acid gas, first proposed by Mr. Cruickshanks, and now employed with the greatest success in the British navy and military hospitals.

Thus there are four substances which have the property of destroying contagious matter, and of purifying the air: but acetic acid cannot easily be obtained in sufficient quantity, and in a state of sufficient concentration to be employed with advantage. Nitric acid is attended with inconvenience, because it is almost always contaminated with nitrous gas. Muriatic acid and oxymuriatic acid are not attended with these inconveniences; the last deserves the preference, because it acts with greater energy and rapidity. All that is necessary is to mix together two parts of salt with one part of the black oxide of manganese, to place the mixture in an open vessel in the infected chamber, and to pour upon it two parts of sulphuric acid. The fumes of oxy-muriatic acid are immediately exhaled, fill the chamber, and destroy the conta-

Атосита. (From a, neg. and Toxos, offspring; from τικτω, to bring forth.) bility, to bring forth children. Difficult

ATONIC. Relaxed, diminution strength, weakness, debility.

ATONY. (From a, neg. and resva, to extend.) A defect of muscular power.

ATRABILIARIE CAPSULE. See Glandule renales.

ATRABILIS. Black bile, or melancholy. ATRACHELUS. (From α, priv. and τρα-χηλος, the neck.) Short-necked.

ATRAGENE. Viorna. Clematis arthra-gene of Theophrastus. The Clematis vitalba of Linnaus. The traveller's joy: a common shrub in our hedges. It is said to have caustic qualities and to raise a blister when applied to the skin.

ATRAMENTUM SUTORIUM. A name of

green vitriol.

ATRASIA. (From α, neg. and τιτραω, to perforate.) Atresia. Imperforation. disease where the anus or genitals have not their usual orifice.

ATRETARUM. (From a, neg. and TPAW, to perforate.) A suppression of urine from the menses being retained in the vagina.

ATRICES. (From a, priv. and Ing, hair.) Small tubercles about the anus upon which hairs will not grow. Vaselius.

ATRICI. Small sinuses in the rectum, which do not reach so far up as to perfo-

rate into its cavity.

ATRIPLEX FŒTIDA. Atriplex olida. Vulvaria. Garosmum. Raphex. Chanopodium fætidum. Blitum fætidum. ing orach. The very fetid smell of this plant, Chenopodium vulvaria: foliis integerrimis rhombeo-ovatis, floribus conglomeratis axilaribus, of Linnæus, induced physicians to exhibit it in hysterical diseases, It is now superseded by more active preparations,

ATRIPLEX HORTENSIS. The Systematic name for the atriplex sativa of the pharma-

copæias. See Arriplex sativa.

ATRIPLEX SATIVA. The herb and seed of this plant, Atriplex hortensis caule erecto herbaceo, foliis triangularibus, of Linnæus, have been exhibited medicinally as antiscorbutics, but the practice of the present day appears to have totally rejected them.

ATROPA. (From ATPOTOS, the goddess of Destiny; so called from its fatal effects.)

The deadly night-shade. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria.

der, Monogyniæ.

The systematic ATROPA BELLADONNA. name for the belladonna of the pharmaco-

pæias. See Belladonna.

ATROPA MANDRAGORA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the radix mandagoræ of the pharmacopæias. Mandragora.

ATROPHIA. Sec Atrophy.

ATROPHY. (From a, neg. and τρεφω, to nourish.) Atrophia. Marasmus. Nervous This disease is marked by consumption. a gradual wasting of the body, unaccompanied either by a difficulty of breathing, cough, or any evident fever, but usually attended with a loss of appetite and impaired digestion. It is arranged by Cullen in the class cachexia, and order macrores. There are four species :-

 When it takes place from too copious evacuations, it is termed atrophia inanitorum; by others called tabes nutricum; -sudatoria ;- à sanguifluxu, &c.

2. When from famine, atrophia famelico-

3. When from corrupted nutriment, atrophia cacochymica.

4. And when from an interruption in the digestive organs, atrophia debitium.

The atrophy of children, is called paidatropia. The causes which commonly give rise to atrophy, arc a poor diet, unwholesome air, excess in venery, fluor albus, severe evacuations, continuing to give suck too long, a free use of spirituous liquors, mental uneasiness, and worms; but it frequently comes on without any evident cause. Along with the loss of appetite and impaired digestion, there is a diminution of strength, the face is pale and bloated, the natural heat of the body is somewhat diminished, and the lower extremities are ædematous. Atrophy, arise from whatever cause it may, is usually very difficult to cure, and not unfrequently terminates in dropsy.

ATTENUANTS. (Attenuantia, sc. medicamenta; from attenuo, to make thin.) Diluents. Those substances are so termed, which possess a power of imparting to the blood a more thin and more fluid consistence than it had previous to their exhibition; such are, aqua, serum lactis, &c.

ATTOLLENS AUREM. (.Attollens ; from attollo, to lift up.) Attollens auriculæ of Albinus and Douglas; Superior auris of Winslow, and Attollens auriculan of Cowper. A common muscle of the ear, which arises, thin, broad, and tendinous, from the tendon of the occipito-frontalis, from which it is almost inseparable, where it covers the aponeurosis of the temporal muscle; and is inserted into the upper part of the ear, opposite to the antihelix. Its use is draw the ear upwards, and to make the parts into which it is inserted, tense.

ATTOLLENS OCULI. One of the secti-muscles which lie upon the upper part of the

globe and pulls up the eye.

ATTONITUS MORBUS. (From attono, to surprise; so called because the person falls down suddenly.) Attonitus stupor. The apoplexy and epilepsy.

ATTRACTION. (From attraho, to at-

Affinity.) tract.

The terms attraction, or affinity, and repulsion, in the language of modern philosophers, are employed merely as the expression of the general facts, that the masses or particles of matter have a tendency to approach to, or to recede from one another, and to unite to, or repel each other, under certain circumstanAll bodies have a tendency or power to attract each other more or less, and it is this power which is called attraction.

Attraction is mutual, it extends to indefinite distances. All bodies whatever, as well as their component elementary particles, are endued with it. It is not annihilated, at how great a distance soever we suppose them to be placed from each other; neither does it disappear though they be arranged ever so near each other.

The nature of this reciprocal attraction, or at least the cause which produces it, is altogether unknown to us. Whether it be inherent in all matter, or whether it be the consequence of some other agent, are questions beyond the reach of human understanding; but its existence is neverthe-

less certain.

Proofs of attraction.

That the power of attraction really exists is obvious from the slightest view of the phenomena of nature. It is proved with mathematical certainty that the celestial bodies, which constitute the solar system, are urged towards each other by a force which preserves them in their orbits. It is further proved beyond any doubt, that this planetary attraction is possessed not only by the heavenly bodies as wholes, but that it also extends to the smaller particles of which they are formed, as may be evinced by means of the following experiments.

First.—If we place two or more globules of mercury on a dry glass or earthen plate, and push them gently towards each other, the globules will attract each other, and form one mass or sphere greater in bulk but precisely the same in nature.

Secondly.—If a plate of clean glass, perfectly dry, be laid on a large globule of mercury, the globule, notwithstanding the pressure applied to it, continues to preserve its spherical form; if we gradually charge the plate with weights carefully, the globule will be depressed and become thinner and thinner; but if we again remove the weights from the plate, the mercury will instantly recover its globular figure and

push up the glass before it.

In both these experiments we see that there exists an attraction between the particles of mercury; in the first, the globules which are in contact with the plate of glass leave this substance completely, they attract each other and form a sphere greater in bulk. A mere inert fluid would in any case retain the figure it once possessed. It could not be endued with a globular form unless a real reciprocal attraction among its particles, took place, which in the latter experiment is still more striking, for it there is not only superior to gravitation, but actually overcomes an external force.

Thirdly.-If a glass tube of a fine bore

be immersed in water, contained in any vessel, the fluid will ascend to a certain height within the tube above its level, and its elevation in several tubes of different sizes will be reciprocally as the diameter of their bores.

This kind of attraction which takes place as well in vacuo as in the open air, has been called capillary attraction. It is this attraction which causes water to rise in sponge, cloth, sugar, sand, &c. for all these substances may be considered as fine

tubes in which the fluid ascends.

Remark.—The ascension of fluids in glass tubes of a fine bore succeeds best when the inside of the tube has been previously moistened, which may conveniently be done by blowing through it with the mouth. And if the water be coloured with a little red or black ink, its ascension will be more obvious, particularly if the tube be held

against a sheet of white paper.

Fourthly.—If two plates of glass previously wetted, be made to meet on one side, and be kept open at the other, at a small distance, by the interposition of a shilling, or any other thin substance, and then immersed in water, the fluid will ascend between the two plates unequally. Its upper surface will form a curve, in which the heights of the several points above the surface of the fluid will be to one another reciprocally, as their perpendicular distance from the line in which the plates meet. The ratio of this attraction is therefore as the squares of the increments with which the plates open.

Here then we have two other instances that an attraction prevails among the particles of bodies. For in both cases part of the fluid has left the contiguous mass, contrary to the laws of gravitation. It is drawn up as it were, or attracted by the

tube or plate of glass.

Fifthly.—If we immerse a piece of tin, lead, bismuth, silver, or gold, in mercury, and draw it out again immediately, the mercury will attract the metal, and the latter will carry with it a portion of the former which will stick to it so obstinately as to be inseparable by mere friction.

There exists therefore an attraction between the different metals brought in con-

tact with each other.

Sixthly—If a small stick be dipt in water or any other fluid, and drawn out again, a drop will be found hanging at the end of it of a spherical form. The drop is spherical, because each particle of the fluid exerts an equal force in every direction, drawing other particles towards it on every side as far as its power extends.

Thus the very formation of drops obviously demonstrates that there must exist a cause which produces that effect. This cannot be gravity, for agreeable to experience that is rather an obstacle to the formation of drops; since by the weight of the particles, large globules resting on solid bodies are flattened, and their regular

spherical form prevented.

To explain this phænomenon there remains only the power of attraction, acting between the particles of the liquid body; for if it is supposed that the particles of a substance reciprocally attract each other with equal force, and their aptitude for being moved upon one another be great enough to overcome any impediment to their motion, it follows by the principles of mechanics, that the equilibrium of the attractive forces can only take place when the mass has received a globular form.

Hence it is that all liquid bodies assume a spherical figure when suffered to fall

through the air, or form drops.

Division of attraction.

Though we are unable to discover the cause of the mutual attraction, experience has proved to us that this agency follows certain conditions or laws; for similar phenomena always present themselves, whenever the circumstances of experiment are the same.

Observation has taught us that attraction takes place between bodies of the same kind, and bodies of a different kind. The first is called attraction of aggregation, also corpuscular attraction; molecular attraction; and attraction of cohesion, or the cohesive power.

The latter is termed chymical attraction, chymical affinity, or affinity of composition.

ATTRACTION OF AGGREGATION.
Corpuscular attraction, or attraction of cohesion or aggregation, is that power by means of which the similar particles of bodies attract each other, and become united into one mass, without changing in the least the chymical properties they possessed before their union. The bodies may be in a solid, fluid, or aeriform state.

This attraction is different in different bodies. It is always in an inverse ratio to the power of repulsion, or the quantity of caloric interposed between the particles of

the acting bodies.

It becomes obvious from this, that the agency of attraction of aggregation consists in a mere successive and constant accumulation of similar particles into one mass; and that it produces adherence of surface, or apparent contact in the ratio of the surface.

This force is inherent in all the particles of all bodies (caloric and light perhaps excepted;) we never find the particles of bodies in a detached state, but constantly in masses of greater or smaller magnitude, made up of an indefinite number of particles united together by virtue of the force of cohesion.

The simplest case of the exertion of the attraction of aggregation is that, where two bodies placed in mutual contact with each other form a direct union without changing their chymical properties: thus if different particles of sulphur be melted together, they form a uniform mass or whole, the particles of which are held together by virtue of the power of attraction of aggregation, but the properties of the body are not altered.

The same effect takes place when pieces of the same metal, or particles of resin, wax, &c. are united in a similar manner.

The force of this attraction in solid bodies may be measured by the weight necessary to demolish it. Thus if a rod of metal, glass, wood, &c. be suspended in a perpendicular direction, and weights be attached to its lower extremity till the rod is broken by them, the weight attached to the rod just before it broke is the measure of the cohesive force of the rod.

Laws of attraction of aggregation.

1. The agency of attraction of aggregation acts only at insensible distances; its force increases as the distance of the bodies presented to each other decreases, and as the surfaces of apparent contact are more numerous: thus, if we take two sections of a leaden ball, having each a flat and smooth surface, and press them forcibly together, they will cohere, and a considerable effort is necessary to force them asunder: so also two plates of glass wetted with a little water to fill up their inequalities, when laid together, will cohere; and two pieces of marble having each a flat, smooth, and well polished surface, when moistened and slipt upon each other with a gentle pressure, will unite, and a considerable force is required to separate them. But if the two substances placed together, be not sufficiently smooth or polished, it will be in vain to try to cause them to adhere together, for this reason that the particles touch each other only in a few points; whereas on the contrary the particles of the former flat and smooth surfaces touch each other in many points. It has been noticed that a silk-worm's thread can be interposed, but not two.

The pressure of the atmosphere has no influence on these experiments, for they succeed equally well in vacuo as in the

open air.

It is on this account that carpenters when they intend to glue pieces of wood together, plane the surfaces perfectly smooth before they apply the glue: and that the surfaces of metals are scraped clean before they are soldered, &c.

Hence the attraction of aggregation always vanishes whenever the distance is measureable, and becomes exceedingly great whenever the distances is exceedingly diminished; but the particular rate which this power follows, is still unknown,

as we have no method of measuring either the distance at which it acts, or its relative intensity.

2. Attraction of aggregation acts differently in different bodies; according to the degree of force with which it acts between the particles of matter, the bodies appear

under different forms.

It is on this account that rock-crystal, flint, diamond, and various other precious stones are extremely hard, for the attraction of aggregation unites the particles of these bodies with a great degree of force. Hence a considerable mechanical effort is

necessary to disunite them.

In blocks of marble, chalk, lime-stone, &c. the particles are held together with a force considerably less. In these bodies it prevents all relative motion among the particles themselves, and hence the motion of one particle is followed by the motion of the whole mass; or if that is impossible, the cohesion is destroyed altogether, and the piece breaks.

The integrant parts of wax, tallow, suet, or lard, may be made to change their situations, with a less degree of force than the

former.

In these substances the motion of one particle of the body is not necessarily followed by that of all the rest, neither does that motion destroy the cohesion, nor break them.

The particles of water, spirit, and ether, move or slide over each other very readily; hence their resistance is considerably less.

And lastly, vapours, the air of the atmosphere, and all the gasses, yield to the slightest possible impulse.

3. Attraction of aggregation may be annihilated by every effort which tends to

separate the particles of bodies.

It need hardly be mentioned that all mechanical forces, such as grinding, cutting, filing, rasping, pounding, breaking, &c. are of this nature.

In all these cases the force applied must be more than equal to the force of the attraction; and as it was stated before, that the attraction of aggregation acts with different degrees of force between the particles of different bodies, so different degrees of force are necessary to destroy that attraction in different bodies; and hence it is that chalk is more easily reduced to powder than flint; wood is easier broken than lead; lead easier than iron, &c.

CHYMICAL AFFINITY.

Chymical affinity, or affinity of composition, is that power, by means of which the particles of bodies, whether simple or compound, attract each other so intimately as to produce a uniform whole, totally inseparable by mechanical efforts, and whose characteristic properties are often different, and sometimes contrary to those of its constituent parts.

It is obvious from this, that the particles of those bodies which are united by virtue of chymical affinity, form not a mere aggregate, but an entire new body, which can only be altered by the action of another

chymical power.

In considering this kind of affinity, it will be necessary to state;—In what manner it takes place between the particles of different bodies;—In what proportion they are capable of combining;—Under what conditions;—With what degree of force they unite;—And what takes place when a variety of different substances are made to act upon each other at the same time, under certain circumstances and in different proportions.

Hence chymical affinity is of greater importance than affinity of aggregation, for it takes place in all the complex operations

of chymistry.

Instances of chymical affinity.

To prove that chymical affinity acts differently from attraction of aggregation; that it takes place between the ultimate constituent parts of bodies; and that it produces substances possessing properties, frequently very different and sometimes contrary to those of the constituent parts, the following experiments may serve.

1. Put into a crucible placed in a coal fire, equal parts by weight of sulphur and mercury; stir the two substances together for a few minutes, and when the sulphur is melted, pour the contents out on a marble slab, or a piece of glass previously warmed

and greased.

The substance obtained by this means is a sulphuret of mercury, in which the mercury and sulphur are united by virtue of chymical affinity; for the compound has neither the colour, the splendour, the inflammability, the volatility, nor the specific gravity of either of its constituent parts; nor can the sulphur and mercury be separated by mechanical means; they are therefore chymically united.

2. If we melt together two very malleable and ductile metals, for instance, tin and iron, in equal quantities, the compound produced will have totally lost the properties which its constituent parts possessed before their union, for the alloy formed will be a brittle metal which may easily be

broken by the blow of a hammer.

3. Put two or three teaspoonfuls of an aqueous infusion of red cabbage or syrup of violets, into a wine glass of water, mix it well, and put half the mixture into another glass. By adding a few drops of sulphuric acid to one of the glasses and stirring it, the blue will be changed to a crimson; and by adding an alkali; for instance, potash, to the other glass, the blue fluid will be changed into a green.

If we drop carefully down the sides of the glass into the green obtained in this experiment, a few drops of sulphuric acid, crimson will be perceived at the bottom, purple in the middle, and green at the top. On adding a little alkali to the other glass, containing the crimson, these colours will appear in an inverted order.

4. When equal parts of muriate of ammonia and slaked lime, both substances destitute of odour, are intimately blended in a stone mortar, a very pungent gas (am-

monia) becomes evolved

Water impregnated with ammonia and concentrated muriatic acid, both fluids of a strong odour, when mixed together in proper proportions, instantly lose their odour, and form a fluid void of smell, (mu-

riate of ammonia.)

6. Into a saturated solution of muriate of lime, let fall gradually concentrated sulphuric acid, a quantity of pungent vapour will become disengaged, (muriatic acid gas,) and from the two fluids will thus be produced an almost solid compound, called sulphate of lime.

7. Let equal parts of fresh crystallized acetat of lead and acidulous sulphate of alumine and potash, be rubbed together intimately in a stone mortar, the saline mixture will soon become soft, and lastly

A like effect is produced by treating in a similar manner equal parts of crystallized nitrate of ammonia and sulphate of soda.

A solid alloy of mercury and bismuth, and another composed of lead and mercury, on being triturated together, instantly become fluid.

It is obvious from this, that when chymical combination takes place, the com-pound which is formed does not possess properties merely intermediate between those of its component parts, but has acquired others more or less new. This however does not hold good in all cases. There are various combinations in which the properties of bodies are only slightly altered.

Laws of chymical affinity.

Observation has shown that affinity of composition offers certain invariable phenomena, which being founded on a great number of facts are regarded by chymists as laws, and may be reduced under the following heads:

Law I - Chymical affinity can exert its action between a number of bodies, simple or compound, and unite them chymically

into one whole.

Law II .- The efficacy of chymical affinity is in an inverse ratio to that of attrac-

tion of aggregation.

Law III .- The agency of chymical affinity i influenced by temperature; its action is either accelerated, retarded, prevented, or rendered efficacious.

Law IV .- Chymical affinity is accompanied by a change of temperature at the in-

stant of its action.

Law V.—The agency of chymical affinity existing between two or more bodies may be dormant, until it is called into action by the interposition of another body which frequently exerts no energy upon any of them in a separate state.

Law VI.-The ratio of the energy of chymical affinity acting between various bodies, is different in different substances.

Law VII.—The agency of chymical affinity is either limited, or unlimited in cer-tain bodies; in other words, chymical af-finity is capable of uniting bodies in definite, or in indefinite proportions.

Law VIII .- The energy of the chymical affinity of different bodies is modified in proportion to the ponderable quantities of the bodies placed within the sphere of ac-

Such are the leading laws which regulate chymical affinity; they may be demonstrated by experiments.

I. Chymical affinity can exert its action between a number of bodies simple or compound, and unite them chymically into one whole;

There are an infinite variety of compounds, consisting of three, four, five or more simple substances in nature; and art can also effect combinations in which there are many simple bodies chymically united into one whole.

It frequently happens that various separate bodies presented to each other in a fluid, unite and form a single mass, which possesses all the characters of a homogeneous compound, and which retains these characters till its composition has been al-

tered by chymical means.

A considerable number of triple salts are known, which consists of three different substances; for instance, the common alum of commerce consists of sulphuric acid united to alumine and potash or soda. The salt formerly called microcosmic salt, or phosphate of soda and ammonia, consists of phosphoric acid united to soda and am-When the oxygenated murimonia, &c. ate of mercury is precipitated by the precisc quantity of carbonate of soda which is requisite to effect its decomposition, the precipitate obtained contains muriatic acid, carbonic acid, and oxyd of mercury in

It is a well known fact, that two, three, or more metals may be fused together so as to produce compounds whose properties are widely different from those of the con-

stituent parts.

Melt together in an iron ladle or crucible. eight parts of bismuth, five of lead, and three of tin, the fusibility of the metals will thus be altered, for the alloy melts at 212° Fahr. A spoon or any other utensil formed of this compound will therefore melt in water kept boiling.

If in a similar manner an alloy be made of lead, tin, bismuth, and mercury, their proportions being two, three, five, and one, the compound produced melts at a heat even less than that of boiling water.

A composition of lead, zinc, and bismuth, in equal parts may be kept in fusion upon

paper over a lamp.

II. The efficacy of chymical affinity is in an inverse ratio to that of corpuscular at-

The cohesion of the particles of a body is owing to the mutual affinity existing between them. It is this force which must be overcome by the action of the substance which has a tendency to combine with those particles chymically. Chymical affinity therefore does not become stronger as the affinity of aggregation becomes weaker, it becomes only more efficacious; the absolute powers remain the same; the effect produced by that agency increases, because the resistance opposed to it decreases.

Remark.—It is from this law that it was formerly inferred that some or at least one of the bodies should be in a state of fluidity. This however is by no means necessary. It is in general true, that the weaker the attraction of aggregation is, the more easily chymical affinity takes place, as may be evinced by means of the following experiments:

Let any quantity of dry carbonate of soda and tartareous acid be mingled together, and put the mixture into a wineglass, no chymical change will be produced; but if water be added, or either of the salts be previously dissolved, a violent effervescence ensues, and a chymical union is obtained.

The water added is of use merely to overcome the resistance which arises from the cohesion of the particles of the salts intended to be brought into the sphere of action, or to increase their mutual contact.

If we let fall a crystal, or lump of fluor spar (fluate of lime) into concentrated sulphuric acid, no sensible action will take place, both the sulphuric acid and the fluate of lime remain unaltered; but if the former be reduced to powder, and then brought into contact with the acid, a considerable action instantly takes place, the sulphuric acid unites to one of the constituent parts of the fluor spar, namely, to the lime, and its other constituent part, the fluoric acid, becomes disengaged in the state of white vapour, or fluoric acid gas.

If crystallized sulphate of alumine, or sulphate of soda, and acetate of lead are brought into contact with each other, the individuality of these bodies will not be destroyed, that is to say, no chymical change will take place; but if they be intimately rubbed together in a mortar, the

two solids will act upon each other and form a fluid.

It is obvious therefore that in order to facilitate chymical affinity, the attraction of aggregation must be broken; the bodies intended to be chymically united must not be presented to each other in their mass of contact, but mechanically divided, or reduced to the smallest moleculæ possible; hence liquids combine with more facility than solids, or even than a solid and a liquid, and in like manner vapours combine with rapidity and ease.

III. The agency of chymical affinity is influenced by temperature. Its action is either accelerated, retarded, prevented,

or rendered efficacious :-

If we expose phosphorus in an open vessel to the action of the atmosphere, a chymical union will take place between the phosphorus and one of the constituent parts of the atmosphere, namely, the oxygen gas; the phosphorus will gradually (but very slowly) disappear and become converted into a fluid called phosphorus acid.

But if we heat the vessel containing the phosphorus, the latter will take fire, and become converted into a yellowish white substance, which in a short time is changed into an acid analogous to the former.

If equal quantities of muriate of ammonia and carbonate of magnesia are mixed with six or eight parts of water, and siffered to stand for some time exposed to the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, a mutual decomposition of the two salts will take place. For if the mixture, and the fluid which passes, are left to evaporate spontaneously, muriate of magnesia, and carbonate of ammonia will be obtained. On the contrary,

If equal quantities of muriate of magnesia and carbonate of ammonia be exposed to a temperature of 200° in about four parts of water, the products obtained are, muriate of ammonia and carbonate of

magnesia.

If muriate of soda and sulphate of magnesia be mixed together in any proportion, and exposed to a temperature below zero, they decompose each other, and muriate of magnesia and sulphate of soda are formed, but no decomposition takes place at a temperature above 30°.

Muriate of soda and acidulous sulphate of alumine and potash, exhibit precisely

the same phenomena.

If ardent spirit and a solution of salt and water be mixed together, the compound formed is a real chymical union; but if we carefully heat the fluid, the caloric applied will be divided between the three ingredients according to their respective affinities; the union will be broken, for the ardent spirit will first be-

come volatilized, and the union of the salt and water remain unaltered. On increasing the temperature, the water will escape in the form of vapour, and the salt will be left behind.

There are numerous cases in which an increase of temperature is essentially necessary to determine bodies to unite. If mercury be exposed to oxygen gas at the common temperature of the atmosphere, the corpuscular attraction subsisting between its particles is sufficient to prevent combination. But if the mercury be heated to a certain degree, the force which kept its particles united will become annihilated, and it then combines with the oxygen which is present.

Again, if the oxyd of mercury thus formed be exposed to a higher degree of temperature, the union is demolished, and the quick-silver re-appears in its metallic state.

Hence it is obvious that the action of caloric favours the union of the oxygen and mercury, in consequence of the diminution of the mutual affinity of the parts; but at length, by augmenting this difference, it again breaks the union, or renders the combination impossible.

That increased temperature augments the power of chymical union, the solutions of salt and water afford instances of.

A larger quantity of salt is soluble in a given quantity of water at a high, than at a low temperature, and this larger quantity of salt is again separated by cooling.

IV. Chymical affinity is accompanied by a change of temperature at the instant of

its action :-

When equal parts of concentrated sulphuric acid and ardent spirit are mingled together, the mixture in a few minutes becomes so hot as to render the vessel insupportable to the hands.

If four parts of sulphuric acid of commerce, and one part, by weight, of water, be mixed together, each at the temperature of 50°, the mixture immediately acquires a temperature of about 300°.

All the dense acids, ammonia, and ardent spirit, when mixed with water, have the property of raising its temperature remarkably: and the same is the case when alkalis are introduced into concentrated On the contrary, in many instances

cold is produced :-

Take one ounce and a half of muriate of ammonia and a like quantity of nitrate of potash; reduce each of these salts separately to a powder, and blend them inti-mately together: having done this, mix them gradually in a glass basin, or other thin glass vessel, with four ounces of wa-The result will be, that the cold produced will sink a thermometer immersed in it, to 36° Fahr. A new edition of the same quantity of salts will cool it to 14°,

which therefore will freeze water in a glass tube that is immersed in it, without the use of snow or ice. If the water used in a first process be used to reduce other water and salts to the temperature of about 32°, and these be applied to the performance of a second experiment, the temperature may be lowered to 4° below 0°.

A number of experiments have lately been made to produce artificial cold by means of such freezing mixtures. The most complete set of this kind are those of

Pepys, Lowitz and Walker.

V. The agency of chymical affinity between two or more bodies may lie dormant, until it is called into action by the interposition of another body, which frequently exerts no energy upon any of them in a separate state.

From this law originates what was formerly called disposing affinity, or that case in which two or more bodies are incapable of uniting, until the agency is called into action by the addition of a third body, which exerts no sensible affinity upon either of them. This may be proved in the following manner.

Water is a compound of hydrogen and oxygen; phosphorus is a simple body according to our present state of knowledge. If these be presented to each other, no chymical union will take place; but if we add to them an alkali, and then apply heat, the water will become decomposed; that is to say, part of the phosphorus will unite to the oxygen of the water, and form phosphoric acid, and the other part will be dissolved in the hydrogen gas and appear as phosphorated hydrogen.

Here the alkali acts as the substance requisite to favour the mutual action, or to

give the disposing affinity.

If iron and water be brought into contact with each other no perceptible change will be produced; but if a little sulphuric acid be added to the water and iron, a violent effervescence will take place, the water will become decomposed, hydrogen gas will be evolved, and the iron become dissolved in the acid.

In this case the sulphuric acid is the condition necessary to accelerate the chymical

action.

VI. The ratio of the energy of chymical affinity acting between various bodies, is

different in different substances.

This is the most important law of chymical attraction. As beginners will find it rather difficult to understand what passes in this more complicated agency, they must remember, that the combination which is effected between two or more bodies by virtue of chymical affinity becomes broken whenever we present to the compound another body, which has an attraction to one of the constituent parts of the compound, superior to that attraction

by which they were held together: the bodies, therefore, between which the strong. est a trac ion prevails, combine, and the

rest are disengaged, thus :-

If muratic acid be poured either on pure barytes, or on its carbonate, the barytes will be dissolved and the compound will be muriate of barytes, which compound is held together by the force of affinity existing between the muriatic acid and the barytes. On letting fall into this solution a few drops of sulphuric acid, an immediate change of principles takes place; the whole quantity of the muriatic acid which was combined with the barytes bccomes disengaged, and the sulphuric acid unites to the barytes with a force equal to their affinity, minus that of the muriatic

Again, if pure silver be dissolved in pure nitric acid, the silver will rem in united to the acid, till another body is presented to it which has a greater torce of attriction to one of the constituent ports of the compount; for instance, if mercury be added to this solution of silver, the mercury will be dissolved, and the silver becomes precipitated or disengaged The supernatant fluid will then be a solution of mercury in nitric acid.

If to the before obtained solution of mercury in nitre acid, a piece of heet lead be presented, the lead will be dissolved, and the mercury become precipitated. The fluid will then be a solution of lead in

If in this solution of lead, a thin slice of copper be suspended, the copper will be dissolved, and the lead will become disen-The fluid now is a solution of cop-

per in nitric acid

If in this solution of copper, a thin sheet of iron be kept immersed, the iron will be dissolved, and the copper become precipitated. The fluid now is a solution of iron in nitric acid

If to this solution of iron, a piece of zinc be presented, the zinc will be dissolved, and the iron become precipitated. The solution then consists of zinc and nitric

acid.

If to this solution of zinc in nitric acid some ammonia be gradually added, the ammonia will join to the acid, and the zinc will be precipitated. The solution will then be nitrate of ammonia.

I to this solution of nitrate of ammonia, some time-water be added, the ammonia will become disengaged (and manifest it-

self by a pungent odour) and the solution will be nitrate of lime.

If to this solution of nitrate of lime some oxalic acid be added, the lime will be precipit ted, and what now remains will be merel nitric acid.

We see from these experiments, that

different bodies have different degrees of affinity for one and the same substance, which can only be learnt from observation and experiments.

VII. The agency of chymical affinity is either limited or unlimited; in other words, chymical affinity is capable of uniting bodies in definite, or in indefinite pro-

portions :--

Experience has convinced us that in all bodies there are certain precise limits of combinations beyond which their action cannot pass, namely a minimum, and a maximum; it remains still to be ascertained how bodies can combine within these limits.

If we attend to what is known at present, we are forced to acknowledge that this law comprehends several modifications, which may be arranged under the following

classes.

1. Chymical affinity unites several bodies in any proportion whatsoever; their combination is therefore unlimited; for instance,

If water and ardent spirit be mingled together in any quantity, a chymical combination ensues; for the compound obtained has always a specific gravity different from the mean specific gravity of the fluids combined. Its bulk is likewise not the arithmetical mean of the fluids in a separate state.

The same is the case when liquid acids and water, or acids and ardent spirit, are combined together.

2 Chymical affinity combines several bodies to a certain extent or maximum

To this class belong all those bodies

which are capable of saturation.

If we take a quantity of any of the dense acids diluted with water, for instance, sulphuric acid, and let fall into it a solution of an alk di, for example soda, by a little at a time, and examine the mixture after every addition of the alkali, we find for a considerable time it will exhibit the properties of an acid, it will have a sour taste, and convert vegetable blue colours into red; but if we continue to add greater quanti-ties of soda, these acid properties will gradually diminish, and at last disappear At that point the combination altogether is at an end, it has reached its maximum in this case; for if we continue to add more alkali, the mixture will gradually acquire alkaline properties; it will convert blue vegetables into green; it will have a urisous or alkaline taste, &c. properties will become stronger, the greater the quantity of the soda is which is

Again, take muriatic acid, and let fall into it gradually carbonate of lime, or magnesia; an effervescence will take place, for a chymical union ensues between the acid and the lime, or magnesia, and the tarbonic acid, the other constituent of these bodies, becomes disengaged. But if we continue the addition of the line, or magnesia, until it produces no turther effervescence, no chymical union will be obtained; the lime will fall to the bottom innaltered, for the combination is at its maximum.

It is on this account that water can only dissolve a certain quantity of salt; ardent spirit a certain quantity of resin, &c.

The union of oxygen and hydrogen be-

longs likewise to this class,

3. Chymical affinity is capable of uniting different bodies in two, three, or more proportions; each of these combinations produces compounds, possessing peculiar properties.

This peculiarity of combination is highly

important.

It is owing to this circumstance that both nature and art produce substances of the same principles only combined in different proportions, which possess peculiar properties, widely different from each other.

An instance of this law may be seen in

the following experiment:

Introduce one ounce of copper filings into four ounces of muriatic acid, contained in a medicine-phial of eight ounces capacity, cork it well, and let it stand undisturbed; the acid will soon acquire a greenish colour, which becomes deeper in proportion as the copper becomes dissolved; but in a few days if the bottle be now and then agitated, the colour vanishes, and the solution at last becomes colourless.

If we now invert the bottle in mercury, or water, and remove the cork under that fluid, a quantity of the mercury will rush in: an evident proof that part of the air contained in the phial has disappeared.

If we examine the remaining air, we shall find that it is incapable of supporting flame, and that it is in arly deprived of all its oxygen. If we now open the phial, the solution becomes again green and colourless as before.

The rationale of these phenomena is this: The quantity of oxygen which is present in the confined quantity of air in the empty part of the phial, combines with the copper to a certain degree, which then becomes soluble in the acid, and exhibits the green solution.

This oxyd is gradually decomposed, more copper is dissolved, and the solution becomes colourless. If more oxygen be admitted, the solution becomes green again

as before.

VIII. The energy of the chymical affinity of different bodies is modified in proportion to the ponderable quantities of the substances placed within the sphere of action.

It is obvious, from this, that the denomination of elective affinity is erroneous; since it supposes the union of one en ire substance with another, in preference to a tund. But this is not the case; a mere division of action takes place in instances of this kind; that is to say, the substances ac according to the quantity existing within the sphere of activity. The excess of quantity is capable of compensating for the deficiency of the force of affinity.-When, therefore, a compound body of two substances is acted on by a third, that part of the compound which is the subject of combination, is divided between the two remaining, not only in proportion to their respective degrees of affinity, but also according to their ponderable quantities, so that by varying this in cither, the effect produced will be varied.

Thus Berthollet has proved, that in all cases a large quantity of a body is capable of abstracting a portion of another, from a small portion of a third, how weak soever the affinity between the first and second of these bodies may be, and how strong soever the affinity between the second and third. Thus potash is capable of abstracting part of the acid from oxalate of lime, phosphate of lime, and carbonare of lime. Soda and lime decompose partially sulphate of potash. Nitric acid subtracts part of the base from oxalate of lime, &c.

The following experiment, advanced by Berthollet, will prove this more clearly.

If equal parts, by weight, of sulphate of barytes and potash be boiled, in a small quantity of water, to dryness, it will be found that the sulphuric acid has been divided between the two bases in the compound ratio of their mass, and their force of affinity. The greater part of the sulphate of barytes will be found undecomposed; a small quantity or barytes will be found at liberty; most of the potash will also be uncombined, but a certain portion will be united with the sulphuric acid which the barytes has lost, in the form of sulphate of potash.

It is not merely in the instance stated here that this division of one body between two others, according to their respective masses and affinities, takes place, there being scarcely any example to the contrary.

And as the affinities of bodies vary with their masses, it is obvious that, when we speak of the affinities of bodies, we ought to consider them as always acting in certain determinate proportions.

AUANTE. (From 2020'22, to dry.) A dry disease, proceeding from a fermentation in the stomach, described by Hippocrates de Morbis.

ATAPSE. The same.

Archen. (From 20,262, to be proud.) The neck, which, in the posture of pride is made stiff and erect.

Auditory nerve. See Nervus auditorius and Portio mollis.

Auditory passage. See Meatus auditorius externus and internus.

Augustum. An epithet given to several compound medicines.

Auliscos. (From aulos, a pipe.) A catheter, or clyster-pipe.

Aulos. The same.

AURA. (From αω, to breathe.) Any

subtile vapour, or exhalation.

AURA EPILEPTICA. A sensation which is felt by epileptic patients, as if a blast of cold air ascended from the lower parts towards the heart and head.

AURA SEMINIS. The extremely subtile and vivifying portion of the semen virile, that ascends through the Fallopian tubes, to impregnate the ovum in the ova-

rium.

AURA VITALIS. So Helmont calls the vital heat.

AURANTII BACCÆ. Seville oranges. See

AURANTII CORTEX. See Aurantium.

AURANTIUM. (So called ab aureo colore, from its golden colour, or from Arantium, a town of Achaia.) Aurantium hispalense. Malus aurantia major. Malus aurantia. Aurantium vulgare. Malus aurantia vulgaris. Mala aurea. Chrysomelea. Nerantia. Martianum pomum. Poma aurantia. Seville orange. This plant is the citrus aurantium of Linnæus:-petiolis alutis foliis acuminatis. Class, Polyadelphia. Order, Icosandria. The China and Seville orange are both only varieties of the same species; the latter is met with in our pharmacopæias; and the flowers, leaves, wellow rind, and juice, are made use of for different medical purposes.

The flowers, flores naphæ, arc highly odoriferous, and are used as a perfume; they are bitter to the taste; they give their taste and smell both to water and to spirit, but most perfectly to rectified spirit of wine. The water which is distilled from these flowers, is called aqua florum naphæ. In distillation, they yield a small quantity of essential oil, which is called oleum vel essentia neroli: they are brought from Italy and France. Orange flowers were, at one time, said to be a useful remedy in convulsive and epileptic cases; but experience has not confirmed the virtues attribu-

ted to them.

The leaves have a bitterish taste, and vield, by distillation, an essential oil; indeed, by rubbing them between the fingers and the thumb, they manifest considerable fragrance. They have been applied for the same purposes as the flowers, but without success.

The yellow rind of the fruit, freed from the white fungous part, has a grateful aromatic flavour, and a warm, bitterish taste. Infused in boiling water, it gives out nearly all its smell and taste; cold water extracts the bitter, but very little of the flavour. In distillation, a light, fragrant, essential oil rises, without the bitter. Its qualities are those of an aromatic and bitter. It has been employed to restore the tone of the stomach, and is a very common addition to combinations of bitters, used in dyspepsia. It has likewise been given in intermittents, in a dose of a drachm, twice or thrice a day. It is also much celebrated as a powerful remedy, in menorrhagia, and immoderate uterine evacuations. Its expressed oil is essence of Bergamot.

The juice of Seville oranges is a grateful acid, which, by allaying heat, quenching thirst, promoting various excretions, and diminishing the action of the vascular sanguiferous system, proves extremely useful in both ardent and putrid fevers; though the China orange juice, as impregnated with a larger proportion of sugar, becomes more agreeable, and may be taken in larger quantities. The Seville orange juice is particularly serviceable as an antiscorbutic, and alone will prevent or cure scurvy in the most apparently desperate circumstances. In dyspepsia, putrid bile in the stomach, both lemon and orange juice are highly useful.

AURANTIA CURASSAVENTIA. Aurantium Curassavense. Curassoa, or Curassa apples, or oranges. The fruit so called seem to be the immature oranges, that by some accident have been checked in their growth. They are a grateful aromatic bitter, of a flavour very different from that of the peel of the ripe fruit, and without any acid; what little tartness they have when fresh, is lost in drying. Infused in wine, or brandy, they afford a good bitter for the stomach. They are used to promote the discharge, in issues, whence their name of issue peas, and to give the flavour of hops to hear.

AURICULA. (Dim. of auris, the ear.) The external ear, upon which are several eminences and depressions, as the helix, antihetix, tragus, antitragus, conche auricule, schapha, and lobulus.

AURICULA JUDÆ. Fungus sambucinus Agaricus. Auricula forma. Jew's ears. A membranaceous tungus, Peziza auricula; concava rugosa auriformis, of Linnæus, which resembles the human ear. Its virtues are adstringent, and when employed, (by some its internal use is not thought safe,) it is made into a decoction, as a gargle for relaxed sore throats.

AURICULA MURIS. See Pilosella.

AURICULE CORDIS. The auricles of the

heart. Sec Heart.

AURICULARIS. (Auricularis, sc. digitus: from auris, the ear.) The little finger; so called because people generally put it into the ear, when the hearing is obstructed.

Auriga. (A wagoner. Lat.) A bandage for the sides; so called because it is made like the traces of a wagon horse. Galen.

(Ab aureo colore: from its yellow colour.) The jaundice. See Icterus.

AURIPIGMENTUM. (From aurum, gold, and pigmentum, paint; so called from its colour and its use to painters. Yellow orpunent. Sec Arsenic.

AURIS. (From aura, air, as being the The ear, or organ of medium of hearing.)

hearing.) See Ear.

Auris Levator See Levator auris.
Auriscalpium. (From auris, the ear, and scalpo, to scrape.) An instrument for

cleansing the ear.

The wax of the ears. AURIUM SORDES. AURIUM TINNITUS. A ringing noise in the ears.

Aurugo. The jaundice.

AURUM. Gold.

AURUM HORIZONTALE. Oil of cinnamon and sugar.

AURUM LEPROSUM. Antimony.

AURUM MUSIYUM. A preparation of tin, sulphur, sal-ammoniac, and quick-silver.

AURUM POTABILA. Gold dissolved and mixed with oil of rosemary, to be drank.

AURUS BRAZILIANSIS. Calamus aromaticus.

AUTHEMEIION. (From autos, himself, and nusga, a day.) A medicine which gives relief, or is to be administered the same

AUTOLITHOTOMUS. One who cuts him-

self for the stone.

The healing power of AUTOCRATEIA. nature. Hippocrates.

AUTOPSIA. (From autoc, himself, and

οπίομαι to see.) Ocular evidence.

Autoprinos. (From αυτος, itself, and συζος, wheat.) Bread made with the meal

of wheat, from which the bran has not been removed. Galen Avenacy. A Molucca tree, of a caustic

Avante. Indigestion. AVANSIS.

AVELLANA. (From Abella, or avella, a town in Campania, where they grew.) The hazel nut.

AVELLANA CATHARTICA. Barbadoes nuts.

A purgative.

quality.

AVELLANA MEXICANA. Cocoa and cho-

AVELLANA PURGATRIX. Garden spurge. The pyramidal AUXILIARII MUSCULI. muscles of the abdomen.

AVENA. (From aveo, to covet; because cattle are so fond of it.) The oat.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Triandria. Order, Dygynia.

The pharmacopæial name of the oat. Avena sativa of Linnaus. It is the seed which is commonly used, and called the

There are two kinds of oats: the black and the white. They have similar virtues, but the black are chiefly sown for horses. They are less farmaceous, and less nourishing, than rice, or wheat; yet afford a sufficient nourishment, of easy digestion, to such as feed constantly on them. In Scotland, and some of the Northern counties of England, cats form the chief bread of the inhabitants. They much used in Germany; but, in Norway, oat bread is a luxury, among the common people. Gruels, made with the flour, or meal, called oatmeal, digest easily. have a soft mucilaginous quanty, by which they obtund acrimony, and are used for common drink and food in fevers, inflammatory disorders, coughs, hoarseless, roughness, and exulceration of the fauces; and water-gruels answer all the purposes of Hippocrates' ptisan. Externally, poul-tices, with oatmeal, vinegar, and a very little oil, are good for sprains and bruises. Stimulant positices, with the grounds of strong beer, mixed up with oatmeal, are made for tumours, &c. of a gangrenous tendency.

AXI

The systematic name AVENA SATIVA. for the avena of the pharmacoperas. Avena.

Avens, common. See Avena.

Avens, common.

AVICENNIA TOMENTOSA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the Anacardium orientale of the pharmacopanas.

See Anacardium orientale. AVIGATO PEAR. This delicious fruit, the produce of the Laurus persea of Linnæus, when ripe, melts in the mouth like marrow, which it greatly resembles in flavour. It is supposed to be the most nutricious of all the trop cal fruits, and grows in vast abundance in the West Indies and New Spain. The unripe fruit have but little taste; yet, being very salubrious, are often eaten with salt and pepper. The sailors, when they arrive at the Hayannah, and those parts, purchase them in great quantities; and, chopping them into small pieces, with green capsicums and a little salt, regale themselves heartily with them. They are esteemed also for their antidysenteric qualities, and are prepared in a variety of ways for the tables of the rich.

AXILLA, (Axilla, atzil, Heb. Scaliger deduces it from ago, to act; in this manner, ago, axo, axa, axula, axilla.) The cavity under the upper part of the arm, called

the arm-pit.

AXILLARY ARTERIES. Arteria axillares. The axillary arteries are continuations of the subclavians, and give off, each of them, in the axilla, four mammary arteries, the subscapular, and the posterior and anterior circumflex arteries, which ramify about the joint

AXILLARY NERVE. Articular nerve. branch of the brachal plaxus, and sometimes of the radial nerve. It runs outwards and backwards, around the neck of the humerus, and is lost in the mucies of the scapuia.

AXILLARY VEINS. Venæ axillares. The axillary veins receive the blood from the veins of the arm, and evacuate it into

the subclavian vein.

Axis. (From ago, to act.) See Denta-

AXUNGIA. (From axis, an axle-tree, and unguo, to anoint.) Hig's lard.
Axungia curata. Purified hog's lard.

AXUNGIA DE MUMMIA. Marrow.

Azac (Arab.) Gum ammoniac. AZAMAH. Native cinnabar. Vermil-

liou. Azen. A fine kind of camphire.

AZOT. (From α, priv. and ζεω, to live; because it is unfit for respiration.) Nitrogen.

AZOT, GASEOUS OXYD OF. See Nitrogen,

gaseous exyd of.

AZOTH. An imaginary universal remedv.

Azun. Alum.

AZURIUM. Quicksilver, sulphur, and sal-ammoniac.

Azygess (From a, priv. and Zujos, a yoke ) The os phenoides was so called, because it has no tellow.

Azygos. (From a, priv. and Zoyos, a yoke; because it has no fellow.) single muscles, veins, bones, &c. are so called.

Azygos Mongagni. A muscle of the mouth.

A process of h e AZYGOS PROCESSUS. os sphænoides.

Palato-staphilinus of AZYGOS UVULE. Douglas. Staphilinus, or Epistaphilinus of Winslow. A muscle of the uvula, which arises at one extremity of the suture which joins the palate bones, runs down the whole length of the velum and uvula, resembling an earth-worm, and adhering to the tendons of the circumflext. It is inserted into the tip of the uvula. Its use is to raise the uvula upwards and forwards, and to short-

AZYGOS YEIN. Vena azygos. Vena sine pari. This vein is situated in the right cavity of the thorax, upon the dorsal vertebræ. It receives the blood from the vertebral, intercostal, bronchial, pericardiac, and diaphragmatic veins, and evacuates it into the vena cava superior.

B

B ABUZICARIUS. (From βαδαζω, to speak inarticulately) The incubus, or nightmare; so called because, in this disorder, the person is apt to make an inarticulate and confused noise.

BACCA MONSPELIENSIS. See Baccharis. BACCALIA, (à baccharum copia, because it abounds in berries.) The bay, or

laurel-tree. See Saponaria BACCE BERMUDENSES.

cucula. BACCE JUNIPERI. Juniper berries. See Juniperus

BACCE LAURI. Laurel berries, See Laurus.

BACCE NORLANDICE. The fruit of the Rubus arcticus of Linnxus : foliis alternatis, caule incrmi unifloro. They are recommended by Linnærs as possessing antiseptic, refrigerant, and antiscorbutic qualities.

BACCE PISC YFORIE. See Cocculus in-

dicus

BACCHARIS, (From bacchus, wine; from its fragrance resembling that liquor.) Bacchar. Bacca monspeliensis. Corryza tertia Dioscoridis, Eupatorium. The plant so called is the Inula dysenterica of Linnæus. Ploughman's spikenard, Great fleabane. It is sweet-scented, and the roots smell like cinnamon, and are said to powerfully enumenagogue, and the leaves moderately astringent.

BACHER'S PILLS. Pilule tonica Bacheri. A celebrated medicine in France, employed for the cure of dropsies. Their principal ingredient is the extract of melampodium,

or black hellebore.

(From bacchus, wine; be-BACCHIA cause it generally proceeds from hard drinking and intemperance.) Gutta rosucea. A name given by Linnaus to a pinipled face.

BACCULI. Is used, by some writers, for a particular k nd of lozenges, shaped into little short rolls. Hildanus likewise uses it for an instrument in surgery.

BACOBA. The Banana.

BADIAGA. A kind of sponge usually sold in Russia, the powder of which is said to t ke away the livid marks of blows and bruises within a few hours. It is only described by Bauxbaum, and its nature is not properly understood.

Badian semen. The seed of a tree which grows in China, and smells like aniseed. The Chinese (and Dutch, in imitation of them) sometimes use the badiane to give their tea an aromatic taste. See Anisum stellatum.

BADIZA AQUA. See Bath water,

BADRANUM SEMEN. Indian aniseed. BABUCCA. (Indian.) A species of cap-

BADZCHER. An antidote.

REOS. (Brioc.) In Hippocrates it means few; hut in P. Ægineta, it is an epithet for

a poultice.

BAGNIGGE WELLS. A saline mine-ral spring in London, resembling the Epsom mineral. In most constitutions, three half-pints is considered a full dose for purging.

BAGNIO. (From bagno, Ital.) A bathing

or sweating house.

BAHEI COYOLLI. Ray takes it to be the

Areca, or Funfel.

BAREL SCHULLY. An Indian-tree; the Genista spinosa Indica; a decoction of the roots of which is dirretic. The leaves, boiled and sprinkled in vinegar, have the same effect, according to Ray.

BALAC. White lead.

BALA. The plentain tree.

BALIENA MACROCEPHALA. (Bahawa from βαλλω, to cast. from its power in a sting up water; and μακουκφαλος; from μακρος, long, and modals " head; from the length of its head.) The systematic name of a species of whale.

BALALINUM OLEUM. Oil of the ben-nut. BALANOCISTANUM. (From Baharos, 2 nut, and nagaror, a chestnut; so called from its therous root.) The bunium bulbocastanum, or earth-nut.

Balanus. (From Banda, to BALANOS. east; because it sheds its fruit upon the

ground ) 1. An acorn.

2. Hippocrates, in his Treatise de Affectionibus, expresses by it the oak.

3 Theophrastus uses it sometimes, to express any glandiferous tree.

4. From the similitude of form, this word is used to express suppositories and pessaries.

5. A name of the glans penis.

BALAUSTIUM. (Fron Baxios, various, and ava, to dry; so called from the variety of its colours, and its becoming soon dry; or from Brasara, to germinate.) Ra-A large rose-like flower, of a red colour, the produce of the plant from which we obtain the granatum. See Granatum.

BALBUTIES. (From Balaza, to stammer; or from balbel, Heb. to stammer.) A defect of speech; properly, that sort of stammering where the patient sometimes hesitates, and immediately after, speaks precipitately. It is the Psellismus Balbunens of Cullen.

BALISTA. (From βαλλω, to cast.) The astragulus, a b oe of the toot, was formerly called os balis x, because the ancients used to cast it from their shings.

Balmoney. See Meum athamanticum. Balm. See Melissa.

Balm of Gilead. See Moldavica, Balm of Mecca. See Balsamum Gilea-

Balm, Turkey. See Moldavica.

BILLOTE. (From Exhlor, to send forth, and ss. wros, the ear; because it sends forth flowers like ears) Ballota Stinking horehound. A nettle-like plant. bullote nigra of Linnaus

BALNEUM. A bath, or bathing-house.

See Bath.

BALVEUM ANIMALE. The wrapping any part of an animal, just killed, round the body, or a limb.

BALNEUM ARENÆ. A sand-bath for chymical purposes. See Bath.

BALNEUM CALIDUM. A hot-bath. See Bath.

BALNEUM FRIGIDUM. A cold bath. See Bath.

BALNEUM MARIÆ. Balneum maris.

A warm-water both. See Bath BALNEUM MEDICATUM. A bath

impregnated with drugs.

BALNEUM SICCUM. Balneum cinereum. A dry bath, either with ashes, sand, or iron filings.

BALNEUM SULPHUREUM. A sulphur bath

BALNEUM TEPIDUM. A bath heated from 93 to 96 or 98 deg. of Fahrenheit's thermometer

BALNEUM VAPORIS. A vapout bath.

Biloon. (Ballon or balon, French) A large glass receiver in the form of a hollow globe. For certain chymical operations ballons are made with two necks, placed opposite to each other; one to receive the neck of a retort, and the other to e ter the neck of a second balloon: this apparatus is called enfiladed balloons. Their use is to increase the whole space of the receiver, because any number of these may be adjusted to each other. The only one of these vessels which is generally used, is a small ohlong balloon with two necks, which is to he luted to the retort, and to the receiver, or great balloon; it serves to remove this receiver from the body of the furnace, and to hinder it from being too much heated.

BALSAM. (Balsamum. From baal samum, Hebrew.) The term balsam was anciently applied to any strong-scented, natural vegetable resin of about the fluidity of treacle; inflammable, not miscible with water, without addition, and supposed to be possessed of many medical virtues. All the turpentines, the Peruvian

balsam, copaiba balsam, &c. are examples of natural balsams. Besides, many medicines compounded of various resins, or oils, and brought to this consistence, obtained the name of balsam. Latterly, however, the term has been restricted to those resins which contain the Benzoic acid. Of these only three are commonly known, the gum benzoin, balsam of Tolu, or Peru, and storax.

Balsam Apple, Male. The fruit of the momordica elaterium of Lionæus. It is the fæcula of the fruit of this plant, which af-

fords the elaterium of the shops.

Balsam, artificial. Compound medicines are thus termed which are made of a balsamic consistence and fragrance. They are generally composed of expressed or ethereal oils, resins, and other solid bodies, which give them the consistence of butter. The basis, or body of them, is expressed oil of nutmeg, and frequently wax, butter, &c. They are usually tinged with cinnabar and saffron.

Balsam Canary. See Moldavica.

Balsam of Canada. See Balsamum Canadense.

Balsam of Copaivæ. See Balsamum Copaivæ.

Balsam, Natural. A resin, which has not yet assumed the concrete form, but still continues in a fluid state, is so called, as common turpentine, balsamum copaiva, peruvianum, tolutanum, &c.

Balsam, Peruvian. See Balsamum Peru-

vianum,

Balsam of sulphur. See Balsamum sulphuris.

Balsam of Tolu. See Balsamum tolutanum. Balsam, Turkey. See Moldavica.

BALSAMATIO. (From balsamum, a balsam.)

The embalming of dead bodies.

BALSAMEA. (From balsamum, balsam.) The balm of Gilead fir; so called from its odour. See Balsamum canadense.

BALSAMELEON. (From balsamum, balsam, and shower, oil.) Balm of Gilead, or

BALSAMICA. (Balsamica, sc. medica-

true balsamum Judaicum.

Balsam oleum. Balm of Gilead.

menta; from βαγσαμον, balsam.) Balsamics. A term generally applied to substances of a smooth and oily consistence, which possess emollient, sweet, and generally aromatic qualities. Hoffman calls those medicines by this name, which are hot and acrid, and also the natural balsams, stimulations.

dicines by this name, which are hot and acrid, and also the natural balsams, stimulating gums, &c. by which the vital heat is increased. Dr. Cullen speaks of them under the joint title of balsamica et resinosa, considering that turpentine is the basis of all balsams.

BALSAMIFERA BRAZILIENSIS. The balsam copaiba tree.

BALSAMIFERA INDICANA. The Peruvian balsam tree.

BALSAMITA MAS. (From balsamum.) Balsamita major. Tanacetum hortense. Costus hortorum. Costomary, or alecost. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopæias, is the Tanacetum balsamiti of Linnæus:—foliis ovatis, integris serratis.

A fragrant-smelling herb, somewhat like that of mint; formerly esteemed as a corroborant, carminative, and emmenagogue.

BALSAMITA FEMINEA. See Ageratum. BALSAMITA LUTEA. The polygonum per-

sicaria of Linnæus. See Persicaria.

BALSAMITA MINOR. Sweet maudlin.

BALSAMITA MAJOR. See Balsamita

mas.

BASAMUM. (From baal samen, Heb.
the prince of oils.) A balsam. See Bul-

sam.

Balsamum Ægyptiacum. See Balsamum Gileadense.

BALSAMUM AMERICANUM. See Balsamum Peruvianum.

BALSAMUM ANODYNUM. A preparation made from tacamalacca, distilled with turpentine and soap liniment, and tincture of opium.

BALSAMUM ALPINUM. See Balsamum

Gileadense.

BALSAMUM ANTIAONII. A remedy formerly applied to cancer.

Balsamum arc.el. A preparation composed of gum-elemi and suet.

BALSAMUM ASIATICUM. See Balsamum Gileadense.

Balsamum Braziliense. See Balsamum copaibæ.

BALSAMUM CANADENSE. Canada balsam. Balsam of Canadan fir. One of the purest turpentines, procured from the *Pinus balsamea* of Linnæus, and imported from Canada. For its properties, see *Turpentines*.

BALSAMUM CEPHALICUM. A distillation

of oils, nutmeg, cloves, amber, &c.

Balsamum commendatoris. A composition of storax, benzoe, myrrli, aloes, &c.

BALSAMUM COPAIBÆ. (Many of the Americans call all odoriferous resins and sweet-scented gums, copal; and the word iba, or iva, is the name for a tree; hence copaiva) Balsamum Braziliense. Balsamum de copaibu. Balsamum capivi. Copaiba.

Copaiba balsam is a yellow resinous juice, of a moderately agreeable smell, and a bitterish biting taste, very permanent on the tongue. The tree which affords it, is the Copaifera officinalis of Linnaus. Class, Decandria. Order, Mongynia. It is obtained by making deep incisions near its trunk, when the balsam immediately issues, and, at the proper season, flows in such abundance, that sometimes, in three hours, twelve pounds have been procured. The older tree

afford the best balsam, and yield it two or three times in the same year. balsam supplied by the young and vigorous trees, which abound with the most juice, is crude and watery, and is, therefore, accounted less valuable. While flowing from the tree, this balsam is a co our- Gileadense. less fluid; in time, however, it acquires a yellowish tinge, and the consistence of oil; but, though by age it has been found thick, like honey, yet it never becomes solid, like other resinous fluids. By distillation in water, the oil is separated from the resin; and, in the former, the taste and smell of the balsam are concentrated. If the operation is carefully performed, about one-half of the balsam rises into the receiver, in the form of oil. The balsam unites with fixed and volatile oils, and with spirit of wine. It is given in all diseases of the urinary organs, when no inflammation is present. In gleets, and in gonorrhoa, it was once a favourite remedy, but is now disused. In diseases of the kidneys it is still employed, though less frequently than usual; and in hamorrhoids it is occasionally trusted. The dose is from 20 to 30 drops, twice or three times a day, mixed with water, by means of an egg, or other mucilage. The balsam of copaivæ is occasionally adulterated with turpen ine, but its virtues are not greatly injured by the fraud.

BALSAMUM EMBRYONUM. A preparation of aniseed.

BALSAMUM GENUINUM ANTIQUORUM. See Balsamum Gileadense.

BALSAMUM GILEADENSE. Balsamum genninum antiquorum Balsamelæon. Aguptiacum balsamum. Balsamam Asiati-Balsamum Judiacum. Balsamum Baisantum è Mecca Bals.:mum Syriacium. Oleum balsami. Opobulsamum. Xyrobalsamum Balsam, or balin of Galead. A resinous juice, obtained by m. king incisions into the bark of the Amyris Gilea. densis of Linnaus: - folis ternaus integerrimis, pedunculis unifloris lateralibus. Class, Octandria. Order, Monogynia. The tree grows spontaneously, particularly near to Mecca, on the Asiatic side of the Red Sea. The juice of the fruit is termed carpobalsafium in the pharmacopæits, and that of the wood and branches xylobalsamum. The best sort is a spontaneous exadation from the tree, and is held in so high estimation by the Turks, that it is rarely, if ever, to be met with genuine among us. The medicinal virtues of the genuine balsam of Gilead, have been highly rated, undoubtedly with much exaggeration. The common balsam of Mecca is scarcely used; but its qualities seem to be very similar to those of the balsam of Tolu, with perhaps more acrimony. The dose is from 15 to 50 drops.

BALSAMUM GUALACINUM. Balsam of

Peru and spirits of wine.

BALSAMUM GUIDONIS. The same as balsamum anodynum.

A balsam BALSAMUM HUNGARICUM. prepared from a coniferous tree on the Carpathian mountains.

BALSAMUM JUDAICUM. See Balsamum

BALSAMEM LOCATELLI. (Locatelli; so called from its inventor Lucatellus.) Balsamum Lucatelli. A preparation made of oil, turpentine, wax, and red saunders; now disused; formerly exhibited in coughs of long standing.

BALSAMUM MAS. The herb costmary.

See Balsamitamas.

BALSAMUM E MECCA. See Balsamum

BALSAMUM MEXICANUM. See Balsamum Peruvianum.

BALSAMUM NOVUM. A new balsam from

a red fruit in the West Indics.

Balsamum oboriferum. A preparation

of oil, wax, and any essential oil.

BALSAMUM PERUVIANUM. (From its country, Peru.) Putzochill. Indian, Mexican, and American balsam. Carbareiba is the name of the tree from which, according to Piso and Ray, it is taken. It is the Myroxylon peruiferum of Linnæus, which grows in the warmest provinces of South America, and is remarkable for its clegant appearance. Every part of the tree abounds with a resinous juice; even the leaves being full of transparent resinous points, like those of the orange-

Balsam of Peru is of three kinds; or rather, it is one and the same balsam, having three several names: 1. The balsam of incision; 3. The dry balsam; 3. The balsam of lotion. The virtues of this balsam, as a cordial, pectoral, and restorative stimulant, and tonic, are by some thought to be very great. It is given with advantage from 5 to 10 or 15 drops for a dose, in dyspepsia, atonic gout, in consumptions, asthmas nephritic complaints, obstructions of the viscera, and suppressions of the menses. It is best taken dropped upon sugar. The yelk of an egg, or mucilage of gum-arabic, will, indeed, dissolve it; it may, by that way, be made into an emulsion; and it is less acrid in that form than when taken singly. It is often made an ingredient in boluses and electuaries, and enters into two of the officinal compositions: the tinetura balsami Peruvian compositi, and the trochisci glycyrrhyzx. Externally, it is recommended as a useful application to relaxed ulcers, not disposed to heal.

PALSAMUM PERSICUM. A balsamum composed of storax, benzoe, myrrh, and alics.

This balsam, BALSAMUM BACKASIRA. which is inodorous when cold, but of a smell approaching to that of Tolu balsam when heated, is brought from India in gourd-shells. It is slightly bitter to the taste, and adheres to the teeth, on chewing. It is supposed to be one of the factitious balsams, and is scarcely ever prescribed in this country.

BALSAMUM SAMECH. A factitious balsam, composed of tartar, dulcified by spirits of

BALSANUM SAPONACEUM. A name given to the preparation called opodeldoc.

BALSAMUM SATURNI. The remedy so named is prepared by dissolving the acetate of lead in oil of turpentine, and digesting the mixture till it acquires a red colour. This is found to be a good remedy for cleansing foul ulcers; but it is not acknowledged in our dispensatories.

BALSANUM STYRACIS BENZOINI. Gumbenjoin is so called See Benzoinum.

BALSAMUM SUCCINI. Oil of amber.

BALSAMUM SULPHURIS. A solution of sulphur in oil.

BALSAMUM SULPHURIS ANISATUM. Balsam

of sulphur, and oil of aniseed.

BALSAMUM SULPHURIS BARBADENSE, Sulphur boiled with Barbadoes tar.

BALSAMUM SULPHURIS CRASSUM. Thick balsam of sulphur.

Balsamum sulphuris Terebinthinatum. This is made by digesting the sulphur with oil of turpentine, and, in the latter, adding the oil of aniseed. They are now confined to veterinary medicine.

BALSAMUM SULPHURIS SIMPLEX. Sulphur

boiled with oil.

BALSAMUM SYRIACUM. The balm of Gilead. See Balsamum Gileadense.

BALSAMUM TOLUTANUM. Balsam of Tolu. The tree Toluifera balsamum of Linnæus, from which this balsam is procured, grows in South America, in the province of Tolu, behind Carthagena, whence we are supplied with the balsam, which is brought to us in little gourd-shells. The balsam is obtained by making incisions into the bark of the tree, and is collected into spoons, which are made of black wax, from which it is poured into proper vessels. It thickens, and in time becomes concrete: it has a fragrant odour, and a warm sweetish taste. It dissolves entirely in alcohol, and communicates its odour and taste to water, by boiling. It contains acid of benzoin. This is the mildest of all the balsams. It has been used as an expectorant; but its powers are very inconsiderable, and it is at present employed principally on account of its flavour somewhat resembling that of lemons. It is directed, by the pharmacopæias, in the syrupus Tolutanus, tinctura Tolutana, and syrupus balsamicus.

BALSAMUM TRAUMATICUM. Vulnerary balsam. A form of medicine prescribed in the London Dispensatory, intended to supply the place of the tincture commonly called Friar's balsam, so famous for curing

old ulcers. The London College have named it Tiectura Benzoini composita.

Balsamum universale. A name given to the unguentum saturninum of old pharmacopæias.

Balsamum Verum. See Balsamum Gilea-dense.

BALSAMUM VIRIDE. Linseed-oil, turpentine and verdigrise, mixed together.

BALSAMUM VITE HOFFMANNI. Beaume de vie. An artificial balsam, so named from its inventor, and composed of a great variety of the warmest and most grateful essential oils, such as nutmegs, cloves, lavender, &c. with balsam of Peru, dissolved in highly rectified spirit of wine; but it is now greatly abridged in the number of ingredients, and but little used.

BALZOINUM. The gum benjamin.

BAMBALIO. (From βαμβαίνω, to speak inarticulately.) A person who stammers, or lisps.

Banboo. (Indian.) The young shoots of the arundo bambos of Linnæus, which are prepared by the natives of both Indies with vinegar, garlic, pepper, &c. into a very excellent pickle, which promotes the appetite, and assists digestion.

Bamia Moschata. See Abelmoschus.

Bamier. The name of a plant common in Egypt, the husk of which they dress with meat, and, from its agreeable flavour, make great use of it in their ragouts.

BAN ARBOR. The coffee-tree.

BANANA. (Indian.) Banuneira. Ficoides. Ficas Indica. Musa fructu cucumerino breviori. Senoria. Pacaira. The Banana, or Plantain-tree. The most remarkable species of this genus of plants are,

The paradisaica, or plantain.
 The musa sapientum, or banana-tree.

Both are among the most important productions of the earth. The first sort is cultivated in all the islands of the West-Indies, where the fruit serves the Indians for bread; and some of the white people also prefer it to most other things, especially to the yams and cassada bread. This tree is cultivated, on a very extensive scale in Jamaica; without the fruit of which, Dr. Wright says, the island would scarcely be habitable, as no species of provision would supply their place. Even flour, or bread itself, would be less agreeable, and less able to support the laborious negro, so as to enable him to do his business, or to keep health. Plantains also fatten horses, cattle, swine, dogs, fowls, and other do-mestic animals. The leaves, being smooth and soft, are employed as dressings after blisters. The water from the soft trunk is astringent, and employed by some to check diarrhœas. Every other part of the tree is useful in different parts of rural economy. The leaves are used as napkins and tablecloths, and are food for hogs. The second sort, musa sapientum, or banana-tree, differs from the paradisiaca, in having its stalks marked with dark purple stripes and spots. The fruit is shorter, straighter, and rounder; the pulp is softer, and of a more luscious taste. It is never eaten green; but, when ripe, it is very agreeable, either eaten raw or fried in slices, as fritters, and is relished by all ranks of people in the West Indies. Both the above plants were carried to the West Indies from the Canary Islands; whither, it is believed, they had been brought from Guinea, where they grow naturally.

See Banana.

Bancia. The Elaphoboscum, or wild

BANDAGE. Deligatio. Fascia. apparatus consisting of one or several pieces of linen, or flannel, and intended for covering or surrounding parts of the body for surgical purposes. Bandages are either simple or compound. The chief of the simple are the circular, the spiral, the uniting, the retaining, the expellent, and the creeping. The compound bandages used in surgery, are the T bandage, the suspensory one, the capistrum, the eighteen-tail bandage, and others to be met with in surgical treatises.

BANDURA. A plant which grows in Ceylon, whose root is said to be astringent.

BANGUE. Bange. A species of opiate in great use throughout the East, for its intoxicating qualities. It is the leaf of a kind of wild hemp, growing in the countries of the Levant, and made into powder, pills, or conserves.

Banica The wild parsnip. Banilia. See Vanilla.

See Vanilla. BANILAS

BAOBAB. Bahobab. A species of the genus of plants called by Linnaus Adansonia. It grows mostly on the west coast of Africa, from the Niger to the kingdom of Benin. The bark is called lalo; the negroes dry it in the shade, then powder and keep it in little cotton bags, and put two or three pinches into their food. It is muciliaginous, and powerfully promotes perspiration. The mucilage obtained from this bark is a powerful remedy against the epidemic fevers of the country that produces these trees; so is a decoction of the dried leaves. The fresh fruit is as useful as the leaves, for the same purposes.

BAPTICA coccus. Kermes berries.

BAPTISTERIUM. (From Bxx70, to immerge.) A bath, or repository of water, to wash the body.

BAPTISTRUM. (From Barla, to dye.) A species of wild mustard; so called from

its reddish colour.

Banac. (From borak, Arabian, splendid.) Barach panis. Nitre. According to Rulandus, nitrum salis.

BARAS. (Arabian.) In M. A. Severimus, it is synonymous with Alphus, or Louce.

BARATHRUM. (Arabian.) Any cavity or hollow place.

BARBA. (From barbarus, because wild nations are usually unshaven.) 1. The beard of man.

2. Some vegetables have the specific name of barba, whose ramifications are

bushy, like a beard, as barba jovis, &c.

BARBA ARONIS. The arum.

BARBA CUPRIE. The ulmaria.

BARBA HIRCI. The tragopogou.

BARBA JOVIS. Jupiter's beard, or the

silver bush. Also a name of the semper-vivum majus, and of a species of anthyllis. 4-

The fruit of the BARBADOES CHERRY Malphigia glabra of Linnæus, resembling

the inferior of our cherries.

Barbadoes nut. See Ricinus major.

BARBADOES TAR. (So named from the island from which it is chiefly procured.) The use of this article in medicine is limited to its external application, at times, in paralytic cases.

BARBAREA. (From St. Barbary, who is said to have found its virtues.) The leaves of this plant, Erisymum barbaræa: foliis lyratis, extimo subrotundo of Linnæus, may be ranked among the the antiscorbutics .-They are seldom used in practice.

An obsolete BARBARIA. Barbaricum.

term formerly applied to rhubarb.

BARBAROSSÆ PILULA. Barbarossa's pill. An ancient composition of quicksilver, rhubarb, diagridium, musk, amber, &c. It was the first internal mercurial medicine which obtained any real credit.

BARBARUM. The name of a plaister in

Scribonius Largus.

BARBATINA. A Persian vermifuge seed. BARBEL. Barbo, And obling fish resembling the pike, the eating of whose roe often brings on the cholera morbus.

Barberry. See Berberis.

BARBOTA. The barbut. A small riverfish. It is remarkable for the size of its liver, which is esteemed the most delicate

part of it.

BARDANA. (From bardus, foolish; because silly people are apt to throw them on the garments of passengers, having the property of sticking to whatever they touch) Arctium. Betonica. Britannica. Ilaphis. Burdock. The plant so called in the pharmacopæias, is Arctium lappa: -foliis cordatis, inermibus, petiolatis, of It grows wild in uncultivated Linnæus. grounds. The seeds have a bitterish subacrid taste: they are recommended as very efficacious diuretics, given ei her in the form of emulsion, or in powder, to the quantity of a drachm. The roots taste sweetish, with a slight austority and bitterness: they are esteemed aperient, diuretic, and sudorific; and are said to act without irritation, so as to be safely ventured upon in acute disorders. Decections of them have of late been used, in rheumatic, gouty, venereal, and other disorders; and are preferred by some to those of sarsaparilla. Two ounces of the roots are to be boiled in three pints of water, to a quart; to this, two drachms of vitriolated kali have been usually added. Of this decoction, a pint should be taken every day, in scorbutic and rheumatic cases, and when intended as a diuretic, in a shorter period.

BAREGE WATER. The small village of Barege, celebrated for its thermal waters, is situated on the French side of the Pyrenees, about half way between the Mediterranean and the Bay of Biscay. The hot springs are four in number. They have all the same component parts, but differ somewhat in their temperature, and in the quantity of sulphur, the hottest being most strongly penetrated wi h this active ingredient. The coolest of these waters raises Fahrenheit's thermometer to 73 deg.; the hottest to 120 deg. Barege waters are remarkable for a very smooth soapy feel; they render the skin very supple and pliable, and dissolve perfectly well soap and animal lymph; and are resorted to as a bath in resolving tumours of various kinds, rigidities, and contractions of the tendons, stiffness of the joints, left by rheumatic and gouty complaints, and are highly serviceable in cutaneous eruptions. Internally taken, this water gives considerable relief in disorders of the stomach, especially attended with acidity and heart-burn, in obstinate cholics, jaundice, and in gravel, and other affections of the urinary organs. BARILLA. (Bariglia, the place where

it was formerly produced ) Bariglia. Ba-Anatvon. Natron Anaton. Nitrum antiquorum. Aphronitrum. Baurach. Sal alkalinus fixus fossilis Carbonas sode impurus. Sub-carbonas sodæ impurus. Soda Barilla is the term given, in commerce, to the impure mineral alkali, or imperfect carbonate of soda, imported from Spain and the Levant. It is made by burning to ashes different plants that grow on the seashore, chiefly of the genus salsola of Linneus, and is brought to us in hard porous masses, of a speckled brown colour. Kelp, a still more impure alkali, made in this country by burning various sea-weeds, is sometimes called British barilla. The marine plants, collected for the purpose of procuring baralla in this country, are the salsola kali, salicornia Europæa, zostera maritima, triglochen maritimum, chenopo-

phium, dipsacus fullonum, &c. &c.

BARK. A term very frequently employed to signify, by way of eminence,

Peruvian bark. See Cinchona.

gallica, cryngium maritimum, sedum tele-

dium maritimum, atriplex portulacoides and littoralis, plantago maritima, tamarix

Bark, Carribæan. See Cinchona Jamai.

Bark, Jamaica. See Cinchona Jamaicensis.

Bark, Peruvian. See Cinchona.
Bark, red. See Cinchona rubra.

Bark yellow. See Cinchona flava. Barley. See Hordeum. Bayley caustic. See Cavidilla.

Bayley, caustic. See Cavidilla.
Barley, pearl. See Hordeum perlatum.
Barm A name given to yeast.

BARNET WATER. It is of a purging kind, of a similar quantity to that of Epsom, and about half its strength.

BAROMETER. (From £agar, weight, and µrrgor, measure.) An instrument to determine the weight of the air; it is commonly called a weather-glass.

BARONES. Small worms; called also

Nepones.

Baroptis. A black stone, said to be an antidote to venomous bites.

BAROS. (Bagos.) Gravity.
1. Hippocrates uses this word to express by it, an uneasy weight in any part.

2. It is also the Indian name for a species of camphire, which is distilled from the roots of the true cinnamon-tree.

BARRENNESS. The same as sterility. BARTHOLINIANE GLANDULE. See Sub-

ingual glands.

BARYCOIA. (From Bzgυς, heavy, and axaww, to hear.) Deafness, or difficulty of hearing.

BARYOCOCCALON. (From βαζυς, heavy, and κρακαλος, a nut; because it gives a deep sound.) A name for the stramonium.

BARYPHONIA. (From βαξυς, dull, and φωνη, the voice.) A difficulty of speaking. BARYTES. (From βαξυς, beavy; so called because it is very ponderous.) Cauk. Calk. Terra ponderosa. Baryt. Ponde-

rous earth. Heavy earth.

Barytes does not exist pure in nature. It is always found in combination with sulphuric or carbonic acid. United with the sulphuric acid, it forms the mineral called sulphate of barytes, or baroselenite. It is found in Staffordshire, Derbyshire, &c. When united to carbonic acid, it is called erated barytes, or carbonate of barytes, found at Anglezark, near Chorley, in Lancashire. Both combinations are met with regularly crystallized and amorphous.

Pure barytes has a much stronger affinity than any other body for sulphuric acid; it turns blue tincture of cabbage green. It is entirely infusible, by heat alone, but melts when mixed with various carths. Its specific gravity is 4.000. It changes quickly in the air, swells, becomes soft, and falls into a white powder, with the aquisition of about one-fifth of its weight. This slaking is much more active and speedy than that of lime. It combines with phosphorus, which compound decomposes water rapidly. It unites to sulphur by the

dry and humid way. It has a powerful attraction for water, which it absorbs with a hissing noise and consolidates it strongly. It is soluble in twenty times its weight of cold, and twice its weight of boiling water. Its crystals are long four-sided prisms of a satin-like appearance. It is a deadly poi-

son to animals.

Method of obtaining pure Barytes.—1. Take native carbonate of barytes; reduce it to a fine powder and dissolve it in a sufficient quantity of diluted nitric acid; evaporate this solution till a pellicle appears, and then suffer it to crystallize in a shallow basin. The salt obtained is nitrate of barytes; expose this nitrate of barytes to the action of heat in a china cup, or silver crucible, and keep it in a dull red heat for at least one hour, then suffer the vessel to cool, and transfer the greenish solid contents, which are pure barytes, into a well stopped bottle. When dissolved in a small quantity of distilled water, and evaporated, it may be obtained in a beautiful crystaline form.

In this process the nitric acid, added to the native carbonate of barytes, unites to the barytes, and expels the carbonic acid, and forms nitrate of barytes; on exposing this nitrate to heat, it parts with its nitric acid, which becomes decomposed into its constituents, leaving the barytes behind.

2. Pure harytes may likewise be obtained from its sulphate. For this purpose, boil powdered sulphate of barytes in a solution of twice or three times its weight of carbonate of potash, in a Florence flask, for about two hours; filter the solution and expose what remains on the filter to the

action of a violent heat.

In this case the sulphuric acid of the barytes unites to the potash, and the carbonic acid of the latter, joins to the barytes; hence sulphate of potash and carbonate of barytes are obtained. The former is in solution and passes through the filter; the latter is insoluble, and remains behind. From this artificial carbonate of barytes, the carbonic acid is driven off by heat.

BASAAL. (Indian.) The name of an Indian tree. A decoction of its leaves, with ginger, in water, is used as a gargle in disorders of the fauces. The kernels of the

fruit kill worms. Ray's Hist.

BASALTES. (In the Æthiopic tongue, this word means iron, which is the colour of the stone.) A heavy and hard kind of stone, chiefly black, or green. It frequently contains iron, has a flinty hardness, is insoluble by acids, and is fusible by fire. The most remarkable property of this substance is its figure, being never found in strata, like other marbles, but always standing up in the form of regular angular columns, composed of a number of joints, one placed upon and nicely fitted to another, as if formed by the hands of a skilful architect. Some regard this fusible substance as a volcanic production, others

have supposed that it was formed of water. The Giant's Causeway, in the county of Antrim, in Ireland, and the rock of Percniere, near St. Santdoux, in Auvergne, are formed of these stones. The distinctive characters of basaltes are, a regular form, hardness sufficient to give fire with steel; and a cinereous, gray colour, inclining to black.

(From Baravila to find BASANITES. out.) A stone said by Pliny, to contain a bloody juice, and useful in diseases of the liver; also a stone upon which, by some, the purity of gold was formerly said to be tried, and of which medical mortars were made.

Base, acidifiable. See Acid.

Base, acidifying. See Acid.
Basiatio. (From basio, to kiss.) nerial connection between the sexes.

BASIATOR. See Constrictor labiorum. See Basilicum.

BASILARE OS. (Basilaris; from Basileus, a king.) Several bones were so termed by the ancients; as the sphænoid and occi-

pital bones.

Basilary artery. BASILARIS ARTERIA.
An artery of the brain. So called because it lies upon the basilary process of the occipital bone. It is formed by the junction of the two vertebral arteries within the skull, and runs forwards to the sclla turcica along the pons varolii, which it supplies, as well as the adjacent parts, with blood.

Basilaris processus. Basilary process. See Occipital bone.

The great apo-BASILIARIS APOPHYSIS. physis of the os occipitis.

BASILICA MEDIANA. See Basilica vena.

Basilica Nux. The walnut.

BASILICA VENA. The large vein that runs in the internal part of the arm, and evacuates its blood into the axillary vein. The branch which crosses, at the head of the arm, to join this vein, is called the basilic median. They may either of them be opened in the operation of bloodletting.

Basilicon contment. Sec Basilicum un-

BASILICUM. (From Exouning, royal; so called from its great virtues.) The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopæias, is the Ocinum basilicum of Linnæus:—foliis ovatis glabris; calycibus ciliatis. It is supposed to possess nervine qualities, but is soldom employed but as a condiment to season high dishes, to which it imparts a grateful odour and

BASILICUM UNGUENTUM. Unguentum basilicum flavum. An ointment popularly so called from its having the ocymum basilicum in its composition. It came afterwards to be composed of wax, resin, &c. and is now called ceratum resing flave.

Bisilious Pelvis. The royal powder.

A preparation formerly composed of calomel, rhubarb, and jalap. Many compositions, were, by the ancients, so called, from their supposed pre-eminence.

Basilibion. An itchy ointment was

formerly so called by Galen.

Basilis. A name formerly given to collyriums of supposed virtues, by Galen.

Basiliscus. (From βασιλως, a king.) The basilisk, or cockatrice, a poisonous serpent; so called from a white spot upon its head, which resembles a crown. Also the philosopher's stone, and corrosive sublimate.

BASIO-CERATO-CHONDRO-GLOSSUS. See Hyoglossus.

BASIO-GLOSSUM. See Hyoglossus.

BASIO-PHARENGEUS. See Constrictor pharyngis medius.

BASIS. (From Bawa, to go: the support of any thing, upon which it stands or goes.)

1. This word is very frequently applied anatomically to the body of any part, or to that part from which the other parts appear, as it were, to proceed, or by which they are supported.

2. In pharmacy it signifies the princi-

pal ingredient.

Basis cerebri. A term applied for-

merly to the palatum.

Basis condis. The broad part of the heart is so called, to distinguish it from the apex, or point.

Bassi colica. The name of a medicine in Scribonius Largus, compounded of aromatics and honey.

Bastard pleurisy. See Peripneumonia notha.

BATATAS. (So the natives of Peru call the potato, which is a native of that country, from our word potato.) A species of night-shade, solanum tuberosum, Linn. Potatoes were first brought into Europe by Sir Francis Drake, 1486. and planted in London. They are said to be natives of Peru.

BATH. Balneum. Baths are of several

kinds.

I. A convenient receptacle of water, for persons to wash or plunge in, either for health or pleasure, is called a bath. These are distinguished into hot and cold; and are either natural or artificial. The natural hot baths are formed of the water of hot springs, of which there are many in different parts of the world; especially in those countries where there are, or have evidently been, volcanoes. The artificial hot baths consist either of water, or of some other fluid, made hot by art. The cold bath consists of water, either fresh or salt, in its natural degree of heat; or it may be made colder by art, as by a mixture of nitre, şal-ammoniac, &c. The chief hot baths in our country are those of Bath and Bristol, and those of Buxton and Matlock; which latter, however, are rather warm, or tepid, than hot. The use of these baths is found to be beneficial in diseases of the

head, as palsies, &c.; in cuticular diseases, as leprosies, &c.; obstructions and constipations of the bowels, the scurvy, and stone; and in many diseases of women and children. The cold bath, though popularly esteemed one of the most innocent reme. dies yet discovered, is not, however, to be adopted indiscriminately. On the contrary, it is liable to do considerable mischief in all cases of diseased viscera, and is not, in any case, proper to be used during the existence of costiveness. preventive remedy for the young, and as a general bracer for persons of a relaxed fibre, especially of the female sex, it often proves highly advantageous; and in general, the popular idea is a correct one, that the glow which succeeds the use of cold or temperate baths, is a test of their utility; while, on the other hand, their producing chilliness, head-ache, &c. is a proof of their being pernicious.

The Cold Bath.

The diseases and morbid symptoms, for which the cold bath, under one form or another, may be applied with advantage, are very numerous; and some of them deserve particular attention. One of the most import ant of its uses is in ardent fever: and, under proper management, it forms a highly valuable remedy in this dangerous disorder. It is highly important, however, to attend to the precautions which the use of this vigorous remedial process requires. "Affusion with cold water," Dr. Currie observes, " may be used whenever the heat of the body is steadily above the natural standard, when there is no sense of chilliness, and especially when there is no general nor profuse perspiration. If used during the cold stage of a fever, even though the heat be higher than natural, it brings on interruption of respiration, a fluttering, weak, and extremely quick pulse, and certainly might be carried so far as to extinguish animation entirely." The most salutary consequence which follows the proper use of this powerful remedy, is the production of profuse and general perspira-It is this circumstance that appears to give so much advantage to a general effusion of cold water in fevers, in preference to any partial application. The cold bath is better known, especially in this country, as a general tonic remedy in various chronic diseases. The general circumstances of disorder for which cold bathing appears to be of service, according to Dr. Saunders, are a languor and weakness of circulation, accompanied with profuse sweating and fatigue, on very moderate exertion; tremors in the limbs, and many of those symptoms usually called nervous; where the moving powers are weak, and the mind listless and indolent; but, at the same time, where no permanent morbid obstruction, or visceral disease, is present. Such a state of body is often the conseBATH. 103

quence of a long and debilitating sickness, or of a sedentary life, without using the exercise requisite to keep up the activity of the bodily powers. In all these cases, the great object to be fulfilled, is to produce a considerable reaction, from the shock of cold water, at the ex; ense of as little heat as possible; and when cold-bathing does harm, it is precisely where the powers of the body are too languid to bring on reaction, and the chilling effects remain unopposed. When the patient feels the shock of immersion very severely, and, from experience of its pain, has acquired an insuperable dread of this application; when he has felt little or no friendly glow to succeed the first shock, but on coming out of the bath remains cold, shivering, sick at the stomach, oppressed with head-ache, languid, drowsy and listless, and verse to food and exercise during the whole of the day, we may be sure that the bath has been too cold, the shock too severe, and no reaction produced at all adequate to the impression on the surface of the body.

There is a kind of slow irregular fever, or rather febricula, in which Dr. Saunders has often found the cold hath of singular service. This disorder principally affects persons naturally of a sound constitution, but who lead a sedentary life, and at the same time are employed in some occupation which strongly engages their attention, requires much exertion of thought, and excites a degree of anxiety. Such persons have constantly a pulse rather quicker than natural, hot hands, restless nights, and an impaired appetite; but without any considerable derangement in the digestive organs. This disorder will continue for a long time, in an irregular way, never entirely preventing their ordinary occupation, but rendering it more than usually anxious and fatiguing, and often preparing the way for confirmed hypochondriasis. Persons in this situation, are remarkably relieved by the cold-bath, and for the most part, bear it well; and its use should also, if possible, be aided by that relaxation from business, and that diversion of the mind from its ordinary train of thinking, which are obtained by attending a watering-place. The Doctor also found cold bathing hurtful in chlorosis, and observes, that it is seldom admissible in those cases of disease in the stomach which are brought on by high living, and constitute what may be termed the true dyspepsia.

The topical application of cold water, or of a cold saturnine lotion, in cases of local inflammation, has become an established practice; the efficacy of which is daily experienced. Burns of every description will bear a most liberal use of cold water, or even of ice; and this may be applied to a very extensive inflamed surface, without even producing the ordinary effects of general chilling, which would be

brought on from the same application to a sound and healthy skin. Another very distressing symptom, remarkably relieved by cold water, topically applied, is that intolerable itching of the vagina, which women sometimes experience, entirely unconnected with any general cause, and which appears to be a kind of herpes confined to that part. Cold water has also been used topically in the various cases of strains, bruises, and similar injuries, in tendinous and ligamentous parts, with success; also in rigidity of muscles, that have been long kept at rest, in order to favour the union of bone, where there appears to have been no organic injury, but only a deficiency of nervous energy, and in mobility of parts, or at most, only slight adhesions, which would give way to a regular exercise of the weakened limb. Another very striking instance of the powerful effects of topical cold, in stimulating a part to action, is shown in the use of cold, or even iced water, to the vagina of parturient women, during the dangerous hæmorrhages that take place from the uterus, on the partial separation of the placenta.

The Shower Bath.

A species of cold bath. A modern invention, in which the water falls, through numerous apertures, on the body. A proper apparatus for this purpose is to be obtained at the shops. The use of the shower bath applies, in every case, to the cold bath, and is of en attended with particular advantages. 1. From the sudden contact of the water, which, in the common cold bath, is only momentary, but which, in the shower bath may be prolonged, re-peated, and modified, at pleasure; and, secondly, from the head and breast, which are exposed to some inconvenience and danger in the common bath, being here effectually secured, by receiving the first shock of the water.

The Tepid Bath.

The range of temperature, from the lowest degree of the warm bath to the highest of the cold bath, forms what may be termed the tepid. In general, the heat of water which we should term tepid, is about 90 deg. In a medicinal point of view, it produces the greatest effect in ardent fever, where the temperature is little above that of health, but the powers of the body weak, not able to bear the vigorous application of cold immersion. cutaneous diseases, a tepid bath is often quite sufficient to produce a salutary relaxation, and perspirability of the skin.

The Warm Bath.

From 93 to 96 deg. of Fahrenheit, the warm bath has a peculiar tendency to bring on a state of repose, to alleviate any local irritation, and thereby induce sleep. It is, upon the whole, a safer remedy than the cold bath, and more peculiarly appli104 BATH.

cable to very weak and irritable constitutions, whom the shock produced by cold immersion would overpower, and who have sufficient vigour of circulation for an adequate reaction. In cases of topical inflammation, connected with a phlogistic state of body, preceded by rigor and general fever, and where the local formation of matter is the solution of the general inflammatory symptoms, experience directs us to the use of the warm relaxing applications, rather than those which, by exciting a general reaction, would increase the local complaint. This object is particularly to be consulted when the part affected is one that is essential to life. Hence it is that in fever, where there is a great determination to the lungs, and the respiration appears to be locally affected, independently of the appression produced by mere febrile increase of circulation, practitioners have avoided the external use of cold, in order to promote the solution of the fever; and have trusted to the general antiphlogistic treatment, along with the topically relaxing application of warm vapour, inhaled by the lungs. Warm bathing appears to be peculiarly well calculated to relieve those complaints that seem to depend on an irregular or diminished action of any part of the alimentary canal; and the state of the skin, produced by immersion in warm water, seems highly favourable to the healthy action of the stomach and bowels. Another very important use of the warm bath, is in herpetic eruptions, by relaxing the skin, and rendering it more pervious, and preparing it admirably for receiving the stimulant applications of tar ointment, mercurials, and the like, that are intended to restore it to a healthy state. The constitutions of children seem more extensively relieved by the warm bath than those of adults; and this remedy seems more generally applicable to acute fevers in them than in persons of a more advanced age. Where the warm bath produces its salutary opera-tion, it is almost always followed by an easy and profound sleep. Dr. Saunders strongly recommends the use of the tepid warm bath, or even higher, in the true menorrhagia of females. In paralytic affections of particular parts, the powerful stimulus of heated water is generally allowed; and in these cases, the effect may be assisted by any thing which will increase the stimulating properties of the water, as, for instance, by the addition of salt. In these cases, much benefit may be expected from the use of warm sea-baths. The application of the warm bath topically, as in pediluvia, or fomentations to the feet, often produce the most powerful effects in quieting irritation in fever, and bringing on a sound and refreshing repose. The cases in which the warm bath is likely to be attended with danger, are particularly those

where there exists a strong tendency to a determination of blood to the head; and apoplexy has sometimes been thus brought on. The lowest temperature will be required for cutaneous complaints, and to bring on relaxation in the skin, during febrile irritation; the warmer will be necessary in paralysis; more heat should be employed on a deep-seated part than one that is superficial.

The Vapour Bath. The vapour bath, called also Balneum laconicum, though not much employed in England, forms a valuable remedy in a variety of cases. In most of the hot natural waters on the Continent, the vapour bath forms a regular part of the bathing apparatus, and is there highly valued. In no country, however, is this application carried to so great an extent as in Russia, where it forms the principal and almost daily luxury of all the people, in every rank; and it is employed as a sovereign remedy for a great variety of disorders. The Hon. Mr. Basil Cochrane has lately published a Treatise on the Vapour Bath, from which, it appears, he has brought the apparatus to such perfection, that he can apply it of all degrees of temperature, partially or generally, by shower, or by stream, with a great force or a small one; according to the particular circumstances under which patients are so variously placed, who require such assistance. See Cochrane on Vapour Bath. Connected with this article, is the air-pump vapour-bath; a species of vapour bath, or machine, to which the inventor has given this name. This apparatus has been found efficacious in removing paroxysms of the gout, and preventing their recurrence; in acute and chronic rheumatism, palsy, cutaneous diseases, ulcers, &c. It has also been proposed in chilblains, leprosy, yaws, tetanus, amenorrhea, and dropsy.

II. When the vessels in which bodies are exposed to the action of heat, are not placed in immediate contact with the fire, but receive the required degree of heat by another intermediate body, such apparatus is termed a bath. These have been variously named, as dry, vapour, &c. Modern chymists distinguish three kinds:

1. Balneum arenæ, or the sand bath. This consists merely of an open iron, or baked clay, sand-pot, whose bottom is mostly convex, and exposed to the furnace. Finely sifted sea-sand is put into this, and the vessel containing the substance to be heated, &c. in the sand bath, immersed in the middle.

2. Balneum mariæ, or the water bath. This is very simple, and requires no particular apparatus. The object is, to place the vessel containing the substance to be heated, in another, containing water; which last must be of such a nature as to

be fitted for the application of fire, as a comment still, or kettic.

3. The vapour bath. When any substance is heated by the steam, or vapour, of boiling water, chymists say it is done

by means of a vanour bath.

III. Those applications are called dry baths, which are made of ashes, sait, sand, &c The ancients had miny ways of exciting a sweat, by means of a dry heat; as by the use of hot's ad, stove rooms, or artificial bagnios; and even from certain natural bot steams of the earth, received under a proper arch, or het-house, as we learn from Celsus. They had also another kind of both by insolation, where the body was expesed to the sun for some time, in order to draw forth the superfluous moisture from the inward parts; and to this day it is a practice, in some nations, to cover the body over with horse-dung, especially in prinful chronic diseases, Nev England, they make a kind of stove of turi, wherein the sick are shut up to bathe, or sweat. It was probably from a knowledge of this practice, and of the exploded doctrines of Celsus, that the noted empiric Dr. Graham drew his notions of the salutery effects of what he called earth bathing; a practice which, in the way he used it, eonsign d some of his patients to a perpetual mansion under the ground. The like name of dry bath, is sometimes also given to another kind of bath, made of kindled coals, or burning spirit of winc. The patient being placed in a convenient close chair, for the reception of the fume, which rises and provokes sweat in a plentiful manner; care being taken to keep the head out, and to secure respiration bath has been said to be very effectual in removing old obstinate pains in the limbs.

IV. Medicated baths are such as are saturated with various mineral, vegetable, or Thus we sometimes animal substances. have sulphur and iron baths, aromatic and milk baths. There can be no doubt that such ingredients, if duly mixed, and a proper temperature be given to the water, may, in certain complaints, be productive of effects highly beneficial. Water, impregnated with sulphate of iron, will abound with the bracing and sulphureous particles of that metal, and may be useful for strengthening the part to which it is applied, reinvigorating debilitated limbs, stopping various kinds of bleeding, restoring the menstrual and hæmorrhoidal discharges when obstructed, and, in short, as a substitute for the natural iron bath. There are various other medicated baths, such as those prepared with alum and quick-lime, sal-ammeniae, &c. by boiling them together, or separately, in pure rain water. These have long been reputed as eminently serviceable in paralytic, and all

disea es arising from nervous and muscular debitity.

BATH WATERS. Rathoniæ aquæ Solis aque. Radigue aque. The city of Bath has been cetebrated, for a long series of years, for its numerous hot springs, which are of a higher temperature than any in this kingdom, (from 112° to 116°,) and, indeed are the only natural waters winch we po sess that are at all hot to the touch; all the other thermal waters being of a heat below the animal temperature, and only deserving that appellation from being inveriably warmer than the general average of the next of common springs. By the erection of elegant baths, these waters are patieularly adapted to the benefit of invalids, who find here a variety of establishments, contributing equally to health, convenience, and annusement. There are three principal springs in the city of Bath, namely, those called the King's Bath, the Cross Bath, and the Hot Bath; all within a short distance of each other, and emptying themselves into the river Avon, after having passed through the several baths. Their supply is so copious, that all the large reservoirs used for bathing are filled every evening with fresh water, from their respective fountains. In their sensible and medicinal properties, there is but a slight difference. According to Dr Falconer, the former are-1. That the water, when newly drawn, appears clear and colourless, remains perfectly inactive, without bubbles, or any sign of briskness, or effervescence. 2. After being exposed to the open air, for some hours, it becomes rather turbid, by the separation of a pale yellow, ochery precipitate, which gradually subsides. 3 No odour is perceptible from a glass of the fresh water, but a slight pungency to the taste from a large mass of it, when fresh drawn; which, however, is neither fetid nor sulphureous. 4. When hot from the pump, it affects the mouth with a strong chalybeate impression, without being of a saline or pungent taste. And, fifthly, on growing cold, the chalybeate taste is entirely lost, leaving only a very slight sensation on the tongue, by which it ean scarcely be distinguished from common hard spring-water. The temperature of the King's Bath water, which is usually preferred for drinking, is, when fresh drawn in the glass, above 116 deg.; that of the Cross Bath, 112 deg. But, after flowing into the spacious bathing vessels, it is generally from 100 to 106 deg, in the hotter baths, and from 92 to 94 deg. in the Cross Bath; a temperature which remains nearly stationary, and is greater than that of any other natural spring in Britain. A small quantity of gas is also disengaged from these water, which Dr. Priestley first discovered to contain no more than

one-twentieth part of its bulk of fixed air. or carbonic acid. The chymical proper-ties of the Bath waters, according to the most accurate analysers, Doctors Lucas, Falconer, and Cibbs, contain so small a propertion of iron, as to amount only to one-twentieth or one-thirty-eighth of a grain in the pint; and, according to Dr. Gibbs, fifteer grains and a quarter of siliceous earth in the gallon. Dr Saunders estimates a gallon of the King's Bath water to contain about eight cub c inches of carbonic acid, and a similar quantity of air, nearly azotic, about righty grains of solid ingredients, one-balf of which probably consists of sulphat and muriat of soda, fifteen grains and a half of siliceous earth, and the remainder is selenite, carbonate of lime, and so small a portion of oxyd of iron as to be scarcely calculable. Hence he concludes, that the King's Bath water, is the strongest chalybeate; next in order, the Hot Bath water; and lastly, that of the Cross Bath, which contains the smallest proportions of chalybeate, gaseous and saline, but considerably more of the earthy particles; while its water, in the pump, is also two degrees lower than that of the It is likewise now ascertained, that these springs do not exhibit the slightest traces of sulphur, though it was formerly believed, and erroneously supported on the authority of Dr. Charleton, that the subtile aromatic vapour in the Bath waters, was a sulphureous principle, entirely similar to common brimstone.

With regard to the effect of the Bath waters on the human system, independent of their specific properties, as a medicinal remedy not to be imitated completely by any chymical process, Dr. Saunders attributes much of their salubrious influence to the natural degree of warmth peculiar to these springs, which, for ages, have preserved an admirable degree of uniformity of temperature. He thinks too, that one of their most important uses is that of an external application, yet supposes that, in this respect, they appear to differ little from common water, when heated to the same temperature, and applied under similar circumstances.

According to Dr. Falconer, the Bath water, when drunk fresh from the spring, generally raises, or rather accelerates the pulse, increases the heat, and promotes the different secretions. These symptoms, in most cases, become perceptible soon after drinking it, and will sometimes continue for a considerable time. It is, however, remarkable, that they are only produced in invalids. Hence we may conclude, that these waters not only possess heating properties, but their internal use is likewise attended with a peculiar stimulus, acting more immediately on the nerves.

One of the most salutary effects of the Bath water, consists in its action on the urmary organs, even when taken in moderate doses. Its operation on the bowels varies in different individuals, like that of all other waters, which do not contain any cathartic salt; but, in general, it is productive of costiveness: an effect resulting from the want of an active stimulus to the intestines, and probably also from the detern ination this water occasions to the skin, more than from any astringency which it may possess, for, if perspiration be suddenly checked during the use of it, a diarrhea is sometimes the consequence. Hence it appears that its stimulant powers are primarily, and more particularly exerted in the stomach, where it produces a variety of symptoms, sometimes slight and transient, but, occasionally, so considerable and permanent, as to require it to be discontinued. In those individuals with whom it is likely to agree, and prove beneficial, the Bath waters excite, at first, an agreeable glowing sensation in the stomach, which is speedily followed by an increase both of appetite and spirits, as well as a quick secretion of urine. In others, when the use of them is attended with head-ache, thirst and constant dryness of the tongue, heaviness, loathing of the stomach, and sickness; or if they are not evacuated, either by urine or an increased perspiration, it may be justly inferred that their further continuance is improper.

The diseases for which these celebrated waters are resorted to, are very numerous, and are some of the most important and difficult of cure of all that come under medical treatment. In most of them, the bath is used along with the waters, as an internal medicine. The general indications, of the propriety of using this medicinal water, are in those cases where a gentle, gradual, and permanent stimulus is required. Bath water may certainly be considered as a chalybeate, in which the iron is very small in quantity, but in a highly active form; and the degree of temperature is in itself a stimulus, often of considerable powers. These circumstances again point out the necessity of certain cautions, which, from a view of the mere quantity of foreign contents, might be thought superfluous Although, in estimating the powers of this medicine, allowance must be made for local prejudice in its favour, there can be no doubt but that its employment is hazardous, and might often do considerable mischief, in various cases of active inflammation; especially in irritable habits, where there exists a strong tendency to hectic fever; and even in the less inflammatory state of diseased and suppurating viscera; and, in general, wherever a quick pulse and dry tongue, indicate a de-

gree of general fever. The cases, therefore, to which this water are peculiarly suited, are mostly of the curonic kind; and by a steady perseverance in this remedy, very obstinate disorders have given way. The following, Dr. Saunders, in his Treatise on Mineral Waters, considers as the principal, viz. 1. Chlorosis, a disease which, at all times, is much relieved by steel, and will bear it, even where there is a considerable degree of feverish irritation, receives particular benefit from the Bath water; and its use, as a warm bath excellently contributes to remove that languor of circulation, and obstruction of the natural evacuations, which constitute the leading features of this common and troublesome disorder. 2. The complicated diseases, which are often brought on by a long residence in hot climates, affecting the secretion of bile, the functions of the stomach, and alimentary canal, and which generally produce organic derangement in some part of the hepatic system, of en receive much benefit from the Bath water, if used at a time when suppurative inflammation is not actually present. 3. Another and less active disease of the biliary organs, the jaundice, which arises from a simple obstruction of the gall-ducts, is still oftener removed by both the internal and external use of these waters. 4. In rheumatic complaints, the power of this water, as Dr. Charleton well observes, is chiefly confined to that species of rheumatism which is unattended with inflammation, or in which the patient's pains arc not increased by the warmth of his bed. A great number of the patients that resort to Bath, especially those that are admitted into the hospital, are affected with rheumatism in all its stages, and it appears, from the most respectable testimony, that a large proportion of them receive a permanent cure. (See Falconer on Bath Water in Rheumatic Cases.) 5. In gout, the greatest benefit is derived from this water, in those cases where it produces anomalous affections of the head, stomach, and bowels; and it is here a principal advantage to be able to bring, by warnth, that active local inflammation in any limb, which relieves all the other troublesome and dangerous symptoms. Hence it is that Bath water is commonly said to produce the gout; by which is only meant that, where persons have a gouty affection, shifting from place to place, and thereby much disordering the system, the internal and external use of the Bath water will soon bring on a general increase of action, indicated by a flushing in the face, fulness in the circulating vessels, and relief of the dyspeptic symptoms; and the whole disorder will terminate in a regular fit of the gout in the extremities, which is the crisis always to be wished for. 6. The colice pictonum, and

the paralysis, or loss of nervous power in particular limbs, which is one of its most serious consequences, is found to be peculiarly releved by the use of the Bath waters, more especially when applied externally, either generally, or upon the part affected.

The quantity of water taken daily, during a full cours, and by adults, is recommended by Dr. Falconer, not to exceed a pint and a half, or two pints : and in chlorosis, with irritable habits, not more than one pint is employed; and when the bath is made use of, it is generally two or three times a week, in the morning. The Bath waters require a considerable time to be persevered in, before a full and fair trial can be made. Coronic rhelmatism, habitual gout, dyspepsia, from a long course of high and intemperate living, and the like, are disorders not to be removed by a short course of any mineral water, and many of those who have once received benefit at the fountains, find it recessary to make an annual visit to them, to repair the waste in health during the preceding

BATH, CAUTERES. A sulphureous bath near Barege, which raises the mercury in Fahrenheit's t' ormaneter to 131 deg.

BATH ST. SAUVEUR'S. A sulpharcous and alkalme bath, in the valley adjoining Barege, the latter of which, raise Fahrenheit's thermometer as high as 131 deg. It is much resorted to from the South of France, and used chiefly externally, as a simple thermal water.

BATHMIS. (From \$\mu \text{exam} \text{, to enter.) } Bathmus. The seat, or base; the cavity of a bone, with the protuberance of another, particularly those at the articulation of the humerus and ulna, according to Hippocrates and Galen.

BATHONIE AQUE. Bath waters.

BATHRON. (From Laira, to enter.) Bathrum The same as bathmis; also an instrument used in the extension of fractured laubs, called scannum. Hippocrates. And described by Oribasius and Scultetus.

BATIA. A name formerly given to a

BATINON-MORON. (From βατος, a bramble, and μοζοι, raspberry. A raspberry.

BATRACHIUM. (From 2x7gxxxx, a frog; so called from its likeness to a frog.) The herb crow's foot, or ranunculus.

BATHACHUS. (From βατραχω, a frog; so called because they who are infected with it, croak like a frog.) An inflammatory tumour under the tongue.

BATTARISMUS. (From Batto, a Cyrenaman prince, who stammered.) Stammering; a defect in pronunciation. See Pselliemus.

BATTATA VIBGINIANA, See Potato.

BATTATA PEREGRINA. The cathartic potato; perhaps a species of ipomea. about two ounces of them are eaten at bed-time, they greatly move the belly the next morning

BATTARISMUS. Stammering with hesitation. The psellismus lixsitans of Cullen. A vessel for dis illation was

BAUDA. formerly so c.Hed.

Baulmoney See Meum athamanticum. BAURACH. (Arab. Bourach ) A name formerly applied to nitre, or any salt; hence it is that borax took its name, which is also thus called, as well as the mineral fixed alkaline salt.

BAXANA. (Indian.) A poisonous tree growing near Ormuz; called by Ray, ra-

Bau-cherry. See Lauro-cerasus.

Bay leaves. See Laurus.

BAY-LEAVED PASSION-FLOWER. plant so called is the Passiflora laurifolia of Linnxus. A native of Surmam, where the fruit grows to the size of a small lemon, which it greatly resembles. Its flavour is dencately acid, and much esteemed to quench thirst. It strengthens the stomach, and is a salutary fruit in gastric affections, fevers, &c.

BAY-SALT. A very pure salt, prepared from sea-water by spontaneous evaporation. BAZCHER. A Persian word for antidote. suck.)

(From BSanna, to BDELLA. Bdellerum. A horse-leech.

BDELLIUM. (From bedallah. Acab.) Madeleon. Bolchon. Balchus. Called by the Arabians, mokel. A gum-like, very impure myrrh. It is one of the weakest of the deobstruent gums. It was sometimes used as a pectoral and an emmenagogue. Applied externally, it is stimulant, and promotes suppuration. It is never met with in the shops of this country.

BDELLUS. (From & Sew, to break wind.) A di charge of the wind by the anus.

(From &S see, to break BDELYGMIA. wind ) Any filthy and nauseous odour.

BEAN. The common bean is the seed of the Vicia faba of Linnaus, a native of Egypt. There are many varieties. Beans are very wholesome and nutritious to those whose stomachs are strong, and accustomed to the coarser modes of living. delicate stomachs they produce flatulency, dyspepsia, cardialgia, &c. especially when old. See Legumina.

Bean, French. See Bean, kidney.

BEAN, KIDNEY. This seed is often called the French bean; it is the pericarpium of the phaseolus vulgaris of Linnæus, which, when young and well boiled, is casy of digestion, and delicately flavoured. These are less liable to produce flatulency than peas. Sec Legumina,

Bean. Malucca. See Anacardium orien-

tale.

Bean of Carthagena. See Bejuio.

Bean, St. Ignatius. See Nux comica s.

BEARD. The hair growing on the clin and adjacent parts of the face, in adults of the male sex. Bear's-breech. See Acanthus.

Bear's foot See Helleboruster. Bear's whortleberry. Uva ursi.

Becca. A fine kind of resin from the turpentine and mastich trees of Greece and Syria, formerly held in great r pute.

BECCABUNGA. (From buch bungen, water-herb, German, because it grows in rivulets.) Anagallis aquatica. Luver Germanicum. Ver onica aquatica. Cepau. Water-pumperne! nd brooklime. The plant which bears these names, is the Veronica beccabunga of Linnaus:-racemis lateralibus, folis ovatis planis, caule repente. It was formerly considered of much use in several diseases, and was applied externally to wounds and ulcers: but if it have any peculiar efficacy, it is to be derived from its antiscarbutie virtue. As a mild refrigerant juice, it is preferred where an acrimomous state of the fluids prevails, indicated by prurient eruptions upon the skin, or in what has been called the hot scurvy. To derive much advantage from it, the juice ought to be taken in large quantities, or the fresh plant eaten as food.

BECHA. See Bechica.

BECHICA. (From Eng., a cough.) Medicines to relieve a cough. The trochesci bechici albi, obsolete term. consist of starch and liquorice, with a small proportion of florentine orris made into lozenges, with mucilage of gum-traga-canth. They are a soft pleasant demul-cent. The trochisci bechici nigri, consist chiefly of the juice of liquorice, with sugar and gum-tragacanth.

BECHION. (From But, a cough: so called from its supposed virtues in relieving coughs Bechium. The herb colt's foot,

or tussilago.

BECUIBA NUX. (Indian.) A large nut growing in Brazil, from which a balsam is drawn that is held in estimation in rheuma-

(Arab.) BEDEGUAR. Bedeguar. The Cardius lacetus Syriacus is so called, and also the cynosbatos, or rosa canina.

BEDENGIAN. The name of the loveapples in Avicenna:

Bedstraw, lady's. See Aparine.

BEE. Apis mellifica. of Lunaus. This insect was formerly exhibited, after being dried and powdered, internally, as a diuretic. It is to the industry of bees we are indebted for those valuable articles, honey and wax. See Honey and Wax.

BEES' WAX. Cera. The production of the honey-comb: it is a hard compact substance, and of a clear yellow colour, much used for medical purposes externally, in the composition of ointments, cerates, and plaist rs.

Beet, red. See Beta rubra.

BEEF, WHITE. A viriety of red beet. The juice and powder of the root are good to exerte successing, and will bring away a considerable quantity of mucus.

BEGMA. (From Enough, to cough) A cough. Expectora ed mucus, according

to Hippocrate:

BEHEN ALBEM. (From behen, a finger, Ar., ) Jacea orientals patula tricoides lutea. The true white behen of the alcents Centaurea behen of Languis. The root possesses astrogent virtues.

Benev office in Autum. The spatling poppy:—Cucubalus behen of Linnaus, tormerly used as a cordial and al xipharmic.

BEHEN RUBBIUM. Limonium Lemonium majus. Behen Sea-lavender, or red behen. The Statice limonium of Lumauu. The roots possess astringent and strengthening qualities, but not in a very remarkable degree.

Bettelsan, Beidellopar, A species of Asclepias, used in Africa as a remedy for fever and the bites of serpents. The caustic luice which issues from the roots when wounded, is used by the negroes to destroy

venereal and simitar swellings.

Beauto, Habilla de Carthagena. Bean of Carthagena. A kind of bean in South America, famed for being an effectual antidote againt the poison of all serpents, if a small quantity is eaten immediately. This bean is the peculiar product of the jurisdiction of Carthagena.

Bela-Ave courex. (Indian) Belae. A bark of Madagascar, said to be of considerable efficacy in the care of diar-

rheas.

BELEMNOIDES. (From Esparon, a dart, and sofos, form; so named from their dart-like shape.) Belemoides. Beloides. The styloid process of the temporal bone, and the lower end of the ulna, were formerly so called.

Beleson. (Indian.) Belilia. The Mussends frondosa of Lineaus, a decoction of

which is, according to Ray, cooling.

BELLADONNA (From bella donna, Italian, a handsome iady; so called because the ladies of Italy use it, to take away the too florid colour of their faces.) Solamm melonocerasus Solamm lethale, Atropa belladonna of Linnxus:—caule herbace, foliis ovatis integris. This plant has been long known as a strong poison of the narcotic kind, and the berries have furnished many instances of their fatal effects, particularly upon children that have been tempted to eat hem. The leaves were first used internally, to discuss scirrhous and cancerous tumo irs; and from the good efficts attending their use, physicians were induced to employ them internally, for the same disorders; and there are a consi-

detable number of well authenticated facts, which prove them a very serviceable and important remedy. The dose, at first, should be small; and gradually and cautiously increased. If we grains are considered a powerful dose, and apt to produce dimness of sight, verugo, &c.

Bellere. See Myrobalani bellerici. Belleregi. See Myrobalani bellerici. Belnileg. See Myrobalani bellerici.

Bellenica. See Myrobalani bellerici. Bellenicaes. (From bellis, a daisy, and

edoc, form ) See Bellis major.

BELLIS. (à bello colore, from its fair colour,) The name of a genus of plants in the Lunneon system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. The daisy.

Bellis major. Buphthalmum majus Leucanthemum unigare. Bellidusi les. Consolida media Oculus bovis. Ox-eye daisy Mandin-wort. The pharmacopæal name for the Chrysantnemum leucanthemum of Lamwus:—fo.iis amptexicaulibus, oblongis supernè sevratis, infernè demans. The flowers and herb were formetly estremed in asthmatic and phthisical discusses, but have now deservedly faller into disuse.

Bellis Mivor. Bellis. The common daisy. The Bellis percents of Lunaus:—scape nude, or braise-wort, was formerly directed in pharmacopeias by this name. Although the leaves and flowers are rather actid, and are said to core several species of wounds, they are never employed by

modern surgeons.

Bellis Perennis. The systematic name of the common daisy. See Bellis menor.

Belloculus. (From bellus, fair, and oculus, the eye.) A precious stone, resembling the eye, and formerly supposed to be useful in its disorders.

Bellon. The Devonshire colic, or colica pictomin.

BELLONARIA. (From Bellona, the goddess of war.) An herb which, if eaten, makes people mad, and act outrageously, like the votaries of Bellona.

Bellutta Tslampacam (ladian.) A tree of Malabar, to which many virtues are

BELMUSCHUS, A name given to the Abel-

Beloere. (Indian.) An evergreen plant of America, whose seeds purge moderately, but the leaves roughly.

BELONOIDES. Beloides. The same as

belemnoides.

Belulcum. (Fram Belos, a dart, and elike, to draw out.) A surgeon's instrument for extracting thorns, or darts.

BELLUZZAR, Beluzaar. The Chaldee word for antidote.

nu manuante.

Belzoe. See Benzoinum. Belzoinum. See Benzoinum,

Beneurini. An Indian shrub used in gout.

BEM-TAMARA. (Arab.) The faba Ægyp-

BEN. (Arab.) Glans unguentaria. Been Balanus mirepsica. Coattis. oily acorn, or ben-nut. A whitish nut, about the size of a small filberd, of a roundish triangular shape, including a kernel of the same figure, covered with a white skin. It is the fruit of the Guilandina moringa of Linnæus:—intermis, foliis, sub-pinnatis, foliolis inferioribus ternatis. They were formerly employed to remove ob-structions of the prima via. The oil af-forded by simple pressure, is remarkable for its not growing rancid in keeping, or, at least, not until it has stood for a number of years; and, on this account, it is used in extricating the aromatic principle of such odoriferous flowers as yield little or no essential oil in distillation. The unalterability of this oil would render it the most valuable substance for cerates, or liniments, were it sufficiently common. It is actually employed for this purpose in many parts of Italy.

BEN MAGNUM. Monardus calls by this name, the avellana purgatrix, which purges

and vomits violently.

BEN TAMARA. The Egyptian bean.

BENATH. (Arab.) Small pustules pro-

duced by sweating in the night.

BENEDICT. (From benedico, to bless.) A specific name prefixed to many compositions and herbs on account of their supposed good qualities; as benedicta herba, benedicta aqua, &c.

BENEDICTA AQUA. Lime water was formerly so cailed: also, a water distilled from serpyllum, and, in Schroeder, it is the

name for an emetic.

BENEDICTA AQUA COMPOSITA.

pound lime water.

BENEDICTA HERBA. Scc Caryophyllata. BENEDICTA LAXATIVA. A compound of turbeth, scammony, and spurges, with some warm aromatics.

BENEDICTUM LAXATIVUM. Rhubarb, and sometimes the lenitive electuary.

BENEDICTUM LICTUM. A term applied to Guaiacum.

Antimonial wine. BENEDICTUM VINUM. BENEDICTUS CARDUCS. Sec Carduus benedictus:

BENEDICTUS LAPIS. A name for the phi-

losopher's stone.

BENEOLENTIA. (From bene, well and oleo, to smell.) Sweet-scented medicines, as gums, &c.

BENG. A name given by the Mahomedans to the leaves of hemp, formed into pills, or conserve. They possess exhilarating and intoxicating powers.

BENGALE RADIX. (From Bengal, its

native place.) See Cassumuniar.

BENGAL QUINCE. This fruit, which is the produce of the Erateva marmelos of Linnaus, of spontaneous growth in several

parts of India, is about the size of an orange, and covered with a hard bony shell, containing a yellow viscous pulp, of a most agreeable flavour; this is scooped out, and being mixed with sugar and orange, is brought to the tables of the grandees in India, who eat it as a great delicacy. It is also esteemed as a sovereign remedy against dysentery.

BENGALLE INDORUM. (From Bengal,

its native place.) Sec Cassuminiar.

Bengi Eiri. A species of evergreen, Indian ricinus, which grows in Malabar.

Beuit herb. See Caryophyllata.

Benjul Arbor. See Benzoinum, Benjamin. See Benzoinum.

Benjamin flowers. See Benzoic acid. BENZOAS. A benzoate. A salt formed by the union of benzoic acid, with an alkaline, earthy, or metallic base; as benzoate of alumine, &c.

Benzoe. See Benzoinum.

BENZOE AMYGDALOIDES. See

BENZOIC ACID. Acidum benzoicum. Flores benzoes. Flores benzoini Benjamin

flowers. This acid exists in several balsams, but principally in the concrete balsam, called benzoin. (See Benzoinum.) Chymists have obtained it from this balsam in various ways, either by sublimation, which gives beautiful foliated crystals, but requires to be repeated thrice, and pressed between bibulous paper after each sublimation, to obtain them white and free from any adherent essential oil: or, by forming some of its soluble compounds, and afterwards decomposing them, so as to precipitate the acid; or, by simply boiling the benzoin in water, which dissolves the acid, and, as it, cools, allows it to separate again. The London Pharmacopæia directs it to be obtained thus:-Take of benzoin, a pound and a half: fresh lime, four ounces: water, a gallon and a half: muratic acid, four fluid-ounces. Rub together the benzoin and lime; then boil them in a gallon of the water, for half an hour, constantly stirring; and, when it is cold, pour off the liquor. Boil what remains, a second time, in four pints of water, and pour off the liquor as before. Mix the liquors, and boil down to half, then strain through paper, and add the muriatic acid gradually, until it ccases to produce a precipitate. Lastly, having poured off the liquor, dry the powder in a gentle heat; put it into a proper vessel, placed in a sand bath; and by a very gentle fire sublime the benzoic acid.

The Edinburgh Pharmacopæia forms a benzoate of soda, precipitates the acid by sulphuric acid, and afterwards crystallizes it by solution in hot water, which dissolves a larger quantity than cold.

Benzoic acid has a strong, pungent, arc-

BES 11:

untic, and peculiar odour. Its crystals are ductile, not pulverizable; it sublimes in a moderate heat, forming a white irritating smoke. It is soluble in about twenty-four times its weight of boiling water, which, as it cools, precipitates 19-20ths of what it had previously dissolved. It is soluble in alcohol.

Benzoic acid is very seldom used in the cure of diseases; but now and then it is ordered as a stimulant against convulsive coughs and difficulty of breathing. The dose is from one grain to five.

It combines with alkaline, metallic, and earthy bodies; and forms BENZOATES.

BENZOIFERA. Benzoinum.

BENZOINUM. (From the Arabic term benzoah.) Benjoinum. Assa dulcis. Assa odorata. Liquor cyreniacus. Balzoinum. Benzoin. Benjui. Benjuin. Gumbenjamin. This substance is classed, by modern chymists, among the balsams. There are two kinds of benzoin: benzoe amygdaloides, which is formed of white tears, resembling almonds, united together by a brown matter; and common benzoin, which is brown and without tears. The tree which affords this balsam, formerly called Laurus henzoin. Benzoifera. Arbor benici, is the Styrax benzoin, foliis oblongis acuminatis, subtus tomentosis, racenus compositis longitudine foliorum of Dryander, from which it is obtained by incisions. The benzoin of the shops is usually in very large brittle masses When chewed, it imparts very little taste, except that it impresses on the palate a slight sweetness; its smell, especially when rubbed or heated, is extremely fragrant and agreeable. It has rarely been used medicinally in a simple state, but its preparations are much esteemed against inveterate coughs and phthisical complaints, unattended with much fever; it has also been used as a cosmetic, and in the way of fumigation, for the resolution of indolent tumours. The acid of benzoin is employed in the tinctura camphoræ composita, and a tincture is directed to be made of the balsam.

Benzoes flores. See Benzoic acid.
Benzoini magisterium. Magistery or precipitate of giim-benjamin.

BERBERIS. (Berberi, wild. Arab. used

by Averrhoes and the officinal writers.)
1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Monogynia. The barberry, or pepperidge bush.

2. The pharmacopæial name for the common barberry, or pepperidge bush. Oxycantha Galeni. Spina acida Crespi-

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This tree, Berberis vulgaris of Linnæus:

—pedunculis racemosis, spinis triplicibus,
is a native of England. The fruit or berices, which are gratefully acid, and moderately adstringent, are said to be of great

use in biliary fluxes, and in all cases where heat, acrimony, and putridity of the humours prevail. The filaments of this shrub possess a remarkable degree of irritability; for on being touched near the base with the point of a pin, a sudden contraction is produced, which may be repeated several times.

BERBERIS GELATINA. Barberries boiled in sugar.

Betheris Vulgaris. The systematic name for the berberis of the pharmacopoias. See Berberis.

BEREDIRAS. An ointment.

Benevice. (The city from whence it

was formerly brought.) Amber.

BEHENICUM. (From \$\rho\_{\text{tgw}}\$, to bring, and \$\rho\_{\text{tgw}}\$, victory.) A term applied by the old Greek writers to nitre, from its supposed power in healing wounds.

BERENI SECUM. Mugwort. See Arte-

misia vulgaris.

BERGAMOTE. A species of citron. Citrus mella rosa of Lamarck; and a variety of the citrus medica of Linnæus. It was produced, at first, casually, by an Italian grafting a citron on a stock of a bergamot pear-tree; whence the fruit produced by this union, participated both of the citron tree and the pear-tree. The essence prepared from this fruit is called essence of bergamote and essentia de cedra.

BERIBERI. (An Hindostane word signifying a sheep.) Beriberia. A species of palsy, common in some parts of the East Indies, according to Bontius. In this disease, the patients lift up their legs very much in the same manner as is usual with sheep. Bontius adds that this palsy is a kind of trembling in, which there is deprivation of the motion and sensation of the hands and feet, and sometimes of the body.

Bermudas berry. See Saponaria nucula.

Bennarvi. An electuary.

BERRIONIS. A name for colophory, or black rosin.

Bens. Formerly the name of an exhilarating electuary.

BERULA GALLICA. Upright water pars-

nip.

BERTTION. (From Berytius, its inventor A collyrium described by Galen.

BES. An eight-ounce measure.

Besacuan. An obsolete term for a sponge.

Besasa. Formerly applied to wild rue. Besbase. An old name for mace.

BESENNA. (Arab.) Muscarum Fungus. Probably a sponge, which is the nidus of some sorts of flies.

Bessanfn. (Arab.) A redness of the external parts, resembling that which precedes the leprosy; it occupies the face and extremities. Avicenna.

BESTO. A name in Oribasius for Saxi-

frage.

BETA. (So called from the river Betis, in Sprin, where it grows naturally; or, according to Blanchard, from the Greek letter fora, which it is said to resemble when turgid with seed.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnann eystem. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia. The beet

2. The pharmacepoial name of the com-

mon beet.

Beta rulgaris of Linnxus :- floribus congestis The root of this plant is frequently eaten by the French; it may be considered as nutritious and antiscorbutic, and forms a very elegant pickle with vinegar. The root and leaves, although formerly employed as laxatives and emoflients, are new forgotten. A considerable quantity of sugar may be obtained from the root of the beet. It is likewise said, that if beet roots be dried in the same manner as malt, after the greater part of their juice is pressed out, very good beer may be made from them. It is occasionally used to improve the colour of claret.

Beta vulgaris. The systematic name

for the beet of the pharmacopæias.

BETELE. Bethle. Betle. Betelle. An oriental plant, like the tail of a lizard. It is chewed by the Ladians, and makes the teeth black; is cordial and exhilarating, and in very general use throughout the East. It is supposed to be the long pepper

BETONICA (Corrupted from Vettonica, which is derived from the Veetones, an

ancient people of Spain.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class. Didynamia. der, Gymnospermia. Betony.

2. The pharmacopæial name for

wood betony.

Betonica purpurea. Vetonica cordi. Betonica officinalis of Linnæus:-spica interrupta, corollarum labii lacinia intermedia emarginata, common in our woods and heaths. The leaves and tops of this plant have an agreeable, but weak smell; and to the taste they discover a slight warmth, accompanied with some degree of adstringency and bitterness. The powder of the leaves of betony, snuffed up the nose, provoke sneezing; and hence it is sometimes made an ingredient in sternutatory powders. Its leaves are sometimes smoked like tobacco. The roots differ greatly, in their quality, from the other parts; their taste is very bitter and nauseous; taken in a small dose, they vomit and purge violently, and are supposed to have somewhat in common with the roots of hellebore. Like many other plants, formerly in high medical estimation, betony is now almost entire neglected. Antonius Musa, physician to the Emperor Augustus, filled a whole volume with enumerating its virtues, stating it as a remedy for no less than forty-seven disorders: and hence in Italy the proverbial compliment, You have

more virtues than betony.

B TONICA AQUATICA. Scroplin oria aquatica Grea er wat r-fig vort. W. er-betony The leaves of this pt rt, Screphularia aquatica ( Larrat :- folis cortatis obtus's, petiolatis, decurrentibus; caule membranis angulato; racemis terminalibus, are celebrated s correctors of the ill flavour They were, also, ferrietly in o, senno high estimation against piles, tumours of the scrop) ulous pature, inflammations, &c.

BITONICA PAULI A Species of vero-

The systematic BETONICA VULGARIS. name of the betonica of the pharmacopaias. See Betonica

Betony, water. See Betonica aquatica. BETULA. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linguan system. Cl'ss, Monoecia. Order, Terrendria. Alder and birch.

2 The thermacer will name of the white Betula alba et Lunaus :- foliis birch.

ovatis, acuminatis serrans.

The juice, leaves, and bark of this tree, have been employed medicinally If the tree be bored early in the spring, there issues, by degrees, a large quantity of limpid, watery, sweetish j ice: it is said that one tree will afferd from one to two gallons a day. This jnice is esteemed as an antiscorbutic, oechstruent, and diuretic. The leaves and back are used externally as resolvents, detergents, and antiseptics.

BETULA ALBA. The systematic name for the betula of the pharmacopæias.

BETCLA ALNOS. The systematic name for the alnus of the pharmacopæias. See

Brx. (From βησσω, to cough.) A cough. BEXUGO. The root of the . Ematitis Peruviana of Casper Bauhin; one drachm of which is sufficient for a purge.

BEXAGUILLO. A name given to the white ipecacuanha, which the Spaniards bring from Peru, as the Portuguese do the brown from Brazil.

BUZAHAN. The fossile bezoar.

BEZETTA CORVIER Succus heliotropii. Lacmus sen tornæ. Lacca carulea. Litmus. The juice of the Croton tinctorium; folis rhombeis repandis, capsulis pendulis, caule herbaceo of Lirnwus It is much used by chymists as a test. Sec Tests.

BEZOAR (From pazahar, Persian, a destroyer of poison.) Lapis bezoardicus. Bezoard. A preternatural or morbid concretion formed in the bedies of land-animals. Several of these kinds of substances were formerly celebrated for their medicinal virtues, and distinguished by the names of the countries from whence they came, or the animal in which they were found. They were considered as high alexirharmics, in so much so, that other medicines, possessed, or supposed to be possessed of alexinharmic powers, were called bezoar-

dies; and so efficacions were they once thought, that they were bought for ten times their weight in gold. These virtues, however, are in the present day justly denied them, as they produce no other effects than those common to the saline particles which they contain, and which may be given to greater advantage from other sources. A composition of bezoar with absorbent powders, has been much in repute, as a popular remedy for disorders in children, by the name of Gascoigne's powder and Gascoigne's ball; but the real be-zoar was rarely, if ever, used for these, its price offering such a temptation to counterfeit it. Some have employed, for this purpose, a resinous composition, capable of melting in the fire and soluble in alco-hol; but Newmann supposed that those nearest resembling it, were made of gypsum, chalk, or some other earth, to which the proper colour was imparted by some vegetable juice. We understand, however, that tobacco pipe clay, tinged with ox-gall, is commonly employed, at least for the Gascoigne's powder; this giving a vellow tint to paper, rubbed with chalk, and a green to paper rubbed over with quicklime; which are considered as proofs of genuine bezoar, and which a vegetable juice would net effect.

BEZOAR BOVINUM. the bezoar from the ox.

BEZOAR GERMANICUM. The bezoar from the alpine goat.

BEZOAR HYSTRISIS. Lapis porcinus. Lapis malacensis. Pedro del porce. The bezoar of the Indian porcupine. Said to be found in the gall-bladder of an Indian porcupine, particularly in the province of Malacca. This concrete differs from others; it has an intensely bitter taste; and on being steeped in water for a very little time, impregnates the fluid with its bitterness, and with aperient, stomachic, and, as it is supposed, with alexipharmic virtues. How far it differs in virtue from the similar concretions found in the gall-bladder of the ox, and other animals, does not appear.

BEZOAR OCCIDENTALE. Occidental bezoar. This concretion is said to be found in the stomach of an animal of the stag or goat kind, a native of Peru, &c. It is or a larger size than the oriental bezoar, and sometimes as large as a hen's egg; its surface is rough, and the colour green, grey-

ish, or brown.

BEZOAR OUIENTALE. Lapis bezoar orientalis. Oriental bezoar stone. This concretion is said to be found in the pylorus, or fourth stomach of an animal of the goat kind, which inhabits the mountains of Persia. It is generally about the size of a kidney bean, of a roundish or oblong figure, smooth, and of a shining olive or dark greenish colour.

BEZOAR MICHOCOSMICUM. The calculus found in the human bladder.

Bezoar porcinum. See Bezoar hystricis.

BEZOAR SIMLE. The bezoar of the monkey.

BEZOARDICA RADIX. See Contrayerva.

BEZOARDICUM JOVIALE. Bezoar with tin-It differed very little from the Antihecticum Poterii.

BEZOARDICUM LUNALE. A preparation of antimony and silver.

BEZOARDICUM MARTIALE. A prepara-

BEZOARDICUM MINERALE, A preparation of antimony, made by adding nitrous acid to butter of antimony.

BEZOARDICUM SATURNI. A preparation of autimony and lead.

Perocentry and lead.

BEZOARDICUS PULVIS. The powder of the oriental bezoar.

BEZOARTICUM MINERALE. An inert calx

of antimony.

BEZOARTICUS SPIRITUS NITRI. The dis-

tillled acid of the bezoarticum minerale.

Bezoas. A common chymical epithet.

Blæon. Wine of sun-raisins and sea-

water.
BIBINELLA. See Pimpinella.

BIBITCARYS. (Bibitorius, sc. musculus; from bibo, to drink; because by drawing the eye inwards towards the nose, it causes those who drink to look into the cup.) See Rectus internus oculi.

BICEPS. (From bis, twice, and coput, a head.) Many muscles have this denomination, from their having two distinct heads, or origins.

BICEPS BRACHII. See Biceps flexor cubiti.

Bicers cruris. See Biceps flexor cru-

BICEPS CUBITI. See Biceps flexor cubiti.

BICEPS EXTURNUS. See Triceps extensor cubiti.

BICEPS FLEXOR CRURIS. cruris of Albinus. Biceps of Winslow. Douglas, and Cowper, and Ischio-femoroperonien of Dumas. A muscle of the leg, situated on the hind part of the thigh. It arises by two distinct heads; the first, called longus, arises, in common with the semitendinosus, from the upper and posterior part of the tuberosity of the os ischi-The second, called brevis, arises from the linea aspera, a little below the termination of the glutæns maximus, by a fleshy acute beginning, which soon grows broader as it descends to join with the first head, a little above the external condyle of the os femoris. It is inserted, by a strong tendon, into the upper part of the head of the fibu-Its use is to bend the leg. This muscle forms what is called the outer hamstring; and, between it and the inner, the

Q \*

nervus popliteus, arteria and vena poplitea, are situated.

BICEPS FLEXOR CUBITI. Biceps brachii of Albinus. Coraco-radialis, seu biceps of Winslow. Biceps internus of Douglas. Biceps internus humeri of Cow-Scapulo coracoradial of Dumas. A muscle of the fore-arm, situated on the fore part of the os humeri. It arises by two heads. The first and outermost, called longus, begins tendinous from the upper edge of the glenoid cavity of the scapula, passes over the head of the os huneri within the joint, and, in its descent without the joint, is enclosed in a groove near the head of the os humeri, by a membranous ligament that proceeds from the capsular ligament and adjacent tendons. The second, or innermost head, called brevis, arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the coracoid process of the scapula, in common with the coracobrachialis muscle. A little below the middle of the fore-part of the os humeri, these heads unite. It is inserted by a strong roundish tendon into the tubercle on the upper end of the radius internally. Its use is to turn the hand supine, and to bend the fore-arm. At the bending of the elbow, where it begins to grow tendinous, it sends off an aponeurosis, which covers all the muscles on the inside of the fore-arm, and joins with another tendinous membrane, which is sent off from the triceps extensor cubiti, and covers all the muscles on the outside of the fore-arm, and a number of the fibres, from opposite sides, decussate each other. It serves to strengthen the muscles, by keeping them from swelling too much outwardly, when in action, and a number of their fleshy fibres take their origin from it.

BICEPS INTERNUS. See Biceps flexor

BICHICHIE. An epithet of certain pectorals, or rather troches, described by Rhazes, which were made of liquorice, &c.

Bichos. A Portuguese name for the worms that get under the toe of the people in the Indies, which are destroyed by the oil of cashew nut

BICORN (Bicornis: from bis, twice, and cornu a norn.) An epithet sometimes applied to the os hyoides, which has two processes, or horns; and likewise, in former times, to muscles that had two terminations.

BICUSPIS. (Bicuspis: from bis, twice, and cuspis, a spear.) The name of those teeth which have double points, or fangs.

See Teeth.

BIDENS. (From bis, twice, and dens, a tooth; so called from its being deeply

serrated, or indented.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqualis.

BIFURCATED. (Bifurcus: from bis, twice, and furca, a fork.) A vessel, or nerve is said to bifurcate when it divides into two branches; thus the bifurcation of the aorta, &c.

BIGASTER. (Bigaster: from bis, twice, and vasne, a belly.) A name given to

muscles which have two bellies.

BINERNIUS. (From bis, double, and hernia, a disease so called.) Having a hernia, or rupture on each side of the scro-

BILADEN. A name of iron.

BILE. (Bilis. Nævius derives it from bis, twice, and lis, contention; as being supposed to be the cause of anger and dispute.) The gall. A bitter fluid, secreted in the glandular substance of the liver; in part flowing into the intestines, and in part regurgitating into the gall-bladder. The secretory organ of this fluid is the penicilli of the liver, which terminate in very minute canals, called biliary ducts. The biliary ducts exonerate their bile into the ductus hepaticus, which conveys it into the ductus communis choledochus, from whence it is in part carried into the duodenum. The other part of the bile regurgitates through the cystic duct (see Gall bladder,) into the gall-bladder: for hepatic bile, except during digestion, cannot flow into the duodenum, which contracts when empty; hence it necessarily regurgitates into the gall-bladder. The branches of the vena portæ contribute most to the secretion of bile; its peculiar blood, returning from the abdominal viscera, is supposed to be, in some réspects, different from other venal blood, and to answer exactly to the nature of bile. It is not yet ascertained clearly whether the florid blood, in the hepatic artery, merely nourishes the liver, or whether, at the same time, it contributes a ther, at the same time, it contains the forma-tion of bile. It has been supposed, by physiologists, that cystic bile was secreted by the arterial vessels of the gall-bladder; but the fallacy of this opinion is proved by making a ligature on the cystic duct of a living animal. From what has been said, it appears that there are, as it were, two kinds of bile in the human body : 1. Hepatic bile, which flows from the liver into the duodenum: this is thin, of a faint vellow colour, inodorous, and very slightly bitter, otherwise the liver of animals would not be eatable, 2. Cystic bile, which regurgitates from the hepatic duct into the gallbladder, and there, from stagnating, becomes thicker, the aqueous part being absorbed by lymphatic vessels, and more acrid from concentration. Healthy bile is of a yellow, green colour; of a plastic consistence, like thin oil, and when very much agitated, it froths like soap and water: its smell is fatuous, somewhat like

musk, especially the putrefying or eva-porared bile of animals: its task is bitter. The constituent principles of bite are: 1. Water, which constitut the greatest part of line. 2. In albaminous principle, precipitated by alcohol and inmeral acids. 3. A resinous principle, obtained by evaporating a fincture made of alcohol and bile. 4. A colouring principle, which adheres to the resinous part, and gives the colour to 5. Soda, in its caustic state: hence healthy bue does not effervesce with acids, and affords a neutral salt. 6. A phosphated calx. The primary uses of this fluid, so important in the animal economy, are: 1. To extricate the chyle from the chyme: thus chyle is never observed in the duodenum bef re the cuyme has been mixed with the bile: and thus it is that oil is extricated from linea by the bile of animals. 2 By its acridity it excites the peristaltic motion of the intestines; hence the bowels are so inactive in people with jaundice. imparts a yellow colour to the excrements; thus the white colour of fæces in jaundice, in which disease the flow of bile into the duodenum is entirely prevented. prevents the abundance of mucus and acidity in the primæ viæ; hence acid, pituitous, and verminous saburra are common from deficient or inert bile.

BILIAHY DUCT. Ductus biliosus. The very vascular glandules, which compose almost the whole substance of the liver, terminate in very small canals, called biliary ducts, which at length form one trunk, the ductus hepaticus. Their use is to convey the bile, secreted by the liver, into the hepatic duct: this uniting with a duct from the gall-bladder, forms one common canal, called the ductus communis choledochus, which conveys the bile into the intestmal

BILIMBI, (Indian.) Biting-bing of Bontius. The malus indica :- fructu pentagono of Europeans. It is carefully cultivated in the gardens of the East-Indies, where it flowers throughout the year. The juice of the root is cooling and drank as a cure for fevers. The leaves hoiled and made into a cataplasm with rice, are famed in all sorts of tumours, and the juice of the fruit is used in almost all external heats, dipping linnen rags in it, and applying them to the parts. It is drank, mixed with arrack, to cure duarrhwas; and the dried leaves, mixed with hetel leaves and given in arrack, are said to promote delivery. The ripe fruit is eaten as a delicacy, and the unripe made into a pickle for the use of the table

Billious. A term very generally made use of, to express diseases which arise from too copius a secretion of bile: thus bilious colic, bilious diarrhoa, bilious fever, &c.

See Bile.

BILIS ATRA. Black bile. The supposed cause among the ancients of melancholy.

BILIS CYSTICA. Bilis fellea. Cystic bile. The bile when in the gail-bladder is so called to distinguish it from that which is found in the liver.

BILIS HEPATICA. Hepatic bile. The bile when it has not entered the gall-bladder.

BILDBUS. (From bis, double, and lobus, the end of the ear.) Having two lobes, resembling the tips of ears.

BIMESTRIS. (From bis, twice, and mensis, month.) Two months old.

Bindweed, See Convolvulus major.

BINGALLE See Casumunar.

BINOCULUS. (From binus, double, and oculus, the eye.) A bandage for securing the dressings on both eyes.

BINSICA. A disordered mind. Helmont. BINSICA. MORS. The binsical, or that death which follows a disordered mind.

BIOLYCHNIUM, (From Bios, life, and λυχνων, a lamp.) Vital heat: an officinal nostrum.

BIOTE. (From Bus, life.) Life. Light food. BI THANATI (From Bus, life, and Javalos, death.) Those who die a violent death, or suddenly, as if there were no space between life and death.

BIPEMULLA. See Pimpinella. BIPENELLA. See Pimpinella. BIRA. Malt liquor or beer. BIRAO Stone parsley. Birch tree. See Betula.

BIRDSTONGUE. A name given to the seeds of the Fraxinus excelsior of Linnaus.

BIRSEN. (Heb. an aperture) A deep ulcer, or imposimme in the breast.

Birthwort, climbing. See Aristolochia

Biscocrus. (From bis, twice, and coquo, to boil.) Twice dressed. It is chiefly applied to bread much baked, as biscuit.

BISCUTELLA. Mustard.
BISCHMAS. A name formerly given to clary, or garden clary.

Bishop's weed. Sec Animi.

Bislingua. (From bis, twice, and lingua, a tongue; so called from its appearance of being double-tongued; that is, of having upon each leaf a less leaf.) The Alexandrian laurel.

BISMALVA. (From vismalva quasi viscum malva, from its superior viscidity.) The water or marsh-mallow.

BISMUTH. (Bismut, Germ.)

A metal which is found in the earth in very few different states, more generally native or in the metallie state. Native bismuth is met with in solid masses, and also in small particles dispersed in and frequently deposited on different stones, at Schreeberg in Saxony, Sweden, &c. Sometimes it is crystallized in four-sided tables, or indistinct cubes. It exists combined with oxygen in the oxyd of bismuth (bismuth othre), found in small particles, dispersed, of a blucish or vellowish-gray colour, needle-shaped and

capillary; sometimes laminated, forming small cells. It is also though more seldom united to sulphur and iron in the form of a sulphuret in the martial sulphurated bismuth ore. This ore has a yellowish-gray appearance, resembling somewhat the martial pyrites. And, it is sometimes combined with arsenic.

Properties.—Bismuth is of a silver-white colour inclining to red. It soon tarnishes and becomes iridescent. It is brittle and can easily be reduced to small particles. It is soft enough to be cut with a knife. It has a lamellated texture. Its specific gravity is 9.800. It requires less lieat for fusion than any other metal, tin excepted, melting by a heat = 460 deg. Fahr. It can be volatilized by heat and escapes in the state of grayish-white vapour. It readily unites with mercury and with sulphur. When fused, it exhibits on cooling, cubical figures on the surface. It is soluble in sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids. The solution in nitric acid is decomposable by mere dilution with pure water. It inflames in oxygenated muriatic acid gas. It is capable of combining with the greatest number of the metals; and when in certain proportions, promotes their fusibility remarkably. It speedily becomes black by sulpinurated hydrogen gas.

BISMUTHUM. (From bismut. German.)

See Bismuth.

Bistort See Bistorta.

BISTORTA. (From bis, twice, and torqueo, to bend; so called from the contor-

tions of its roots.) Bistort.

Polygonum bistorta of Linnxus :- caule simplicissimo monastachio, foliis ovatis in petiolum decurrentibus. This plant is a native of Britain. Every part manifests a degree of stipticity to the taste, and the root is esteemed to be one of the most powerful of the vegetable adstringents, and frequently made use of as such, in disorders proceeding from a laxity and debility of the solids, for restraining alvine fluxes, after due evacuations, and other preternatural discharges both serous and sanguineous. It has been sometimes given in intermitting fevers; and sometimes also, in small doses, as a corroborant and antiseptic, in acute malignant and colliquative fevers; in which intentions Peruvian bark has now deservedly superseded both these and all other adstringents. The comman dose of bistort root in substance, is 15 or 20 grains: in urgent cases it is extended to a dram. Its astringent matter is totally dissolved both by water and rectified spiries.

Bistoury. (Bistoire, French.) Any sin all knote for surgical purposes.

Burninos. A Galenical plaister.

BITRIVICI EMPLASTRUM. A plaister for the spaces.

Bitter apple. See Colocynthis.

BIT NOBEN. Salt of bitumen.

white saline substance has lately been imported from India by this name, which is not a natural production, but a Hindoo preparation of great antiquity. It is called in the country bit noben, padnoon, and soucherloon and popularly khala mimue, or black salt. Mr Henderson, of Bengal, conjectures it to be the sal asphaltites, and sal sodomenus of Pliny and Galen. This salt is far more extensively used in Hindostan than any other medicine whatever. The Hindoos use it to improve their appetite and digestion. They consider it as a spesific for obstructions of the liver and spleen; and it is in high estimation with them in paralytic disorders, particularly those that affect the organs of speech, cutaneous affections, worms, old rheumatisms, and indeed all chronic disorders of man and beast.

BITUMEN. (wilvua, wilvs, pine; because it flows from the pine-tree; or, quod vi tumeat è terra, from its bursting forth from the earth.) Bitumens are com-bustible, solid, soft, or fluid substances, whose smell is strong, acrid, or aromatic, composed of hydrogen and carbon with a contamination of earth and other sub-stances in small proportions. They are found either in the internal part of the earth, or exuding through the clefts of the rocks, or floating on the surface of waters. Like oils they burn with a rapid flame. Natural historians have divided them into several genera; but modern chymists arrange them according to their chymical properties, and are only acquainted with six species, which are very distinct from each other: these are, naphtha, amber, asphaltos, jet, pit-coal, and petroleum.

BITUMEN BARBADENSE. Sec Petroleum

barbudense.

BITUMEN JUDAICUM. Asphaltus. Jews' pitch. A solid light bituminous substance, of a dusky colour on the outside, and a deep shining black within; of very little taste, and scarcely any smell, unless heated, when it emits a strong pitchy one. It is said to be found plentifully in the earth in several parts of Egypt, and floating on the surface of the Dead Sea. It is now wholly expunged from the catalogue of officinals of this country; but was formerly esteemed as a discutient, sudorific, and emmenagogue.

BITUMEN LIQUIDUM. See Petroleum. BIVENTER (Biventer; from bis, twice, and venter, a belly.) A muscle is so termed,

which has two bellies.

BIVENTER CERVICIS. A muscle of the lower jaw.

BIVENTER MAXILLÆ INFERIORIS. See Digastricus.

BIXA ORELLANA. The systematic name for the terra orleana of the pharmacopæias. See Orleana.

BLACCIE. The measles. Rhazes.

BLACKBEHRY. The fruit of the common bramble, Rubus fruticosus of Linnæus. The berries are eaten in abundance by children, and are wholesome and gently aperient. Too large quantities, however, when the stomach is weak, produce vorming and great distention of the belly, from flatus. See Fruits, summer.

Bladder. See Urinary bladder, and Gall-

Rladder, inflamed. See Cystitis.

Blade-bone. See Scapula.
BLEISTEAS. (From blesus.) A defect in speech, called stammering.

BLESUS. (From Brando, to injure.) A

BLANCI. (Blanc, French.) A purging mixture; so called, because it was supposed to evacuate the white phlegmatic humours. Also white lead.

BLANCA MULIERUM. White lead. BLASA. (Indian.) A tree, the fruit of which the Indians powder, and use to de-

stroy worms.

(From βλασανώ, to germi-BLASTEMA. nate.) A bud or shoot. Hippocrates uses it to signify a cutaneous pimple 'like a

BLASTUM MOSYLITUM. Cassia bark kept

with the wood.

BLATTA. (From Bratta, to hurt.) sort of beetle, or bookworm; so called from its injuring books and clothes: the kermes insect.

BLATTARIA LUTEA. (From blatta; so called, because, according to Pliny, it engenders the blatta.) The herb yellow

moth-mullein.

BLECHON. (From βληχαομαι, to bleat; so called according to Pliny, because if sheep taste it they bleat.) The herb wild penny-royal,

Bleeding. Sec Blood-letting and Hamor-

Bleeding at the nose. See Epistaxis. BLEMA. (From βαλλω, to inflict.) A wound.

BLENDE. A species of zinc ore, formed of zinc in combination with sulphur,

Mucus, a BLENNA. (BASVVa.) Blen $\alpha$ . thick excrementitious humour.

BLENNORRHOEA. (From Brevez, mucus, and gea, to flow.) Gonorrhaa mucosa. A gleet. An increased discharge of mucus from the urethra, arising from weakness.

BLENNORRHAGIA. (From BASVVa, inucus, and gee, to flow.) The discharge

of mucus from the methra.

BLEPHARA. (Quasi BASTES Ф1905, 25 being the cover and defence of the sight.) The cyclids.

BLETHANIDES. (From Exempor.) The hair upon the cyclids; also the part of the

eyelids where the hair grows.

BLEPHAROPHTHALMIA. (From Shepapor, the eyelid, and οφθαλμιλία, a disease of the eye.) An inflammation of the eyelid.

BLEPHAROPTOSIS. (From βλεφαρον, the eyelid, and molaris, from mirla, to A prolapse, or falling down of the upper eyelid, so as to cover the cornea-

BLEPHAROTIS. (From βλεφαρον, the eyelid.) An inflammation of the eyelids.

BLEPHAROXYSTON. (From βλεφαρου, the eyelid, and ξεω, to scrape off.) A brush for the eyes. An instrument for cleansing or scraping off foul substances from the eye-lids.

BLEPHAROXYSIS. (From βλεφαρον, the eyelid, and ξεω, to scrape of ) The cleansing of the eyelids. Inflamination of the eyelids.

Blessed thistle. See Carduns benedictus. BLESTRISMUS. (From Bando, to throw

about.) Phrenctic restlesness.

BLETA. A word used by Paracelsus to signify white, and applied to urine when it is milky, and proceeds from a disease of the kidneys.

BLETI. (Bletus, from Banna, to strike.) Those seized with dyspnæa or suffocation.

BLISTER. A topical application which when put on the skin raises the cuticle in the form of a vesicle, filled with a serous fluid. Various substances produce this effect on the skin; but the powder of the lytta vesicatoria, or blistering fly, is what operates with most certainty and expedition, and is now invariably made use of for

the purpose.

When it is not wished to maintain a discharge from the blistered part, it is sufficient to make a puncture in the cuticle to let out the fluid; but when the case requires keeping up a secretion of pus, the surgeon must remove the whole of the detached cuticle with a pair of scissors, and dress the excoriated surface in a particular manner. Practitioners used formerly to mix powder of cantharides with ointment, and dress the part with this composition. But such a dressing not unfrequently oc-casioned very painful affections of the bladder, a scalding sensation in making of water, and very afflicting stranguries. The treatment of such complaints consists in removing every particle of the fly from the blistered part, making the patient drink abundantly of mucilaginous drinks, giving emulsions and some doscs of camphor.

These objections to the employment of salves containing the lytta, for dressing blistered surfaces, led to the use of mezereon, euphorbium, and other irritating substances, which when incorporated with ointment, form very proper compositions for keeping busters open, which they do without the inconvenience of irritating the bladder, like the blistering fly.—The favourite application however for keeping open blisters, is the powder of savine, which was brought into notice by Mr. Crowther in his book on white swellings. The following is the form adopted by the London College: "Take of fresh

leaves of savine bruised, a pound; vellow wax, half a pound; prepared lard, two pounds. Having melted together the wax and lard, boil therein the savinc leaves, and strain through a linen cloth." On the use of the savine cerate, immediately after the cuticle raised by the blister is removed, says Mr. Crowther, it should be observed that experience has proved the advantage of using the application lowered by a half or two-thirds of the unguentum eeræ. An attention to this direction will produce less irritation and more discharge, than if the savine cerate were used in its full strength. Mr. Crowther says also, that he has found fomenting the part with, flannel, wrung out of warm water, a more easy and preferable way of keeping the blistered surface clean, and fit for the impression of the ointment, than scraping the part, as has been directed by oth rs. An occasional dressing of unguentum resina flava, he has found a very useful application for rendering the sore free from an appearance of slough, or rather dense lymph, which has sometimes been so firm in its texture as to be separated by the probe, with as much readiness as the euticle is detached after blistering. As the discharge diminishes, the strength of the savine dressing should be proportionably increased. The ceraum sabinæ must be used in a stronger or weaker degree, in proportion to the excitement produced on the patient's skin.

BLITUM FORTIDUM. See Atriplex fatida. BLOOD. Sanguis, A red homogeneous fluid, of a saltish taste, and somewhat urinous smell, and glutinous consistence, which erculates in the eavities of the heart, arteries, and veins. The quantity is estimated to be about twenty-eight pounds in an adult: of this, four parts are contained in the veins, and a fifth in the arteries. The colour of the blood is red; in the arteries it is of a florid hue, in the veins darker; except only the pulmonary veins, in which it is of a lighter east. Physiology demonstrates, that it acquires this florid colour in passing through the lungs, and from the oxygen it absorbs. The blood is the most important fluid of our body. Some physicians and anatomists have considered it as alive, and have formed many ingenious hypotheses in support of its vitality. The temperature of this fluid is of considerable importance, and appears to depend upon the circulation and respiration. The blood of man, quadrupeds, and birds, is hotter than the medium they inhabit; hence they are termed animals of warm blood; whilst in fishes and reptiles, animals with cold blood, it is nearly of the temperature of the medium they inh bit. The microscope discovers that the blood contains a great number of round globules, which are seen floating about in a yellowish fluid, the serum. The blood also possesses remarkable physical properties; its taste is saltish, and the smell of its halitus or vapour, when recently drawn, is somewhat urinous; it is of a plastic consistence, somewhat glutinous and adhesive. Chymical analysis of blood, by means of distillation, dise vers, 1. A considerable quantity of insipid water, which very soon becomes putrid. 2. Empyreumatic oil, 3. Ammoniacal sprit 4. Carbon, which remains behind, is very spongy, and with great difficulty incinerated. The ashes, however, consist of a small quantity of culinary salt, soda, pliosphorated lime, and a very small portion of iron. White hot, and in motion, the blood remains constantly fluid, and red; when it cools, and is at rest, it takes the form of a fluid mass, which gradually and spontaneously separates into two parts; the one, which is red, and floating becomes of a darker colour, remains concrete, and is called the cruor, crassamentum, or cake; the other, which occupies the lower part of the vessel, is of a yellow greenish colour, and adhesive, and is called the serum or lymph.

The eruor forms more than one half of the blood; it is very plastic, thick, and, in consistence, like glutinous jelly. It soon putrefies in the temperature of the air; but, dried by a gentle heat, becomes a brittle, dark, red mass. It is insoluble in water; and, when boiled in it, is converted into a hard grumous mass, internally red. The surface of the cruor of the blood, after being exposed in a vessel to atmospheric air, becomes of a florid red colour; but the inferior surface, contiguous to the vessel, is of a deep black : the change of colour on the surface is owing to the oxygen of the atmosphere uniting with the blood. The bruor of the blood is composed of, 1. Red globules, which chymistry demonstrates consist of a fibrous gluten and oxydated iron. The experiments of the eelebrated Rhades shew, that in twenty-five pounds of blood from the human body, near two drachms of the oxyd of iron were obtained. 2. The fibrous gluten of the cruor, which remains after washing the cruor of blood for a considerable time in cold water, and enclosed in a fine linen cloth; in which case the red globules are washed away. If the red water obtained in this experiment be evaporated, and then distilled to dryness, it leaves behind a carbon, exhibiting, when incinerated, a great quantity of iron, attractable by the magnet. From these experiments it would appear, that the redness of the globules is imparted from the oxydated iron, for which purpose a small quantity is sufficient.

The serum of the blood is a lymphatic fluid, almost inodorous; rather saltish to the taste; pellueid, and of a yellowish green colour; and rather of a plastic consistence. It forms scarcely one half of the blood; and it contains, 1. A large portion of water; from forty-seven ounces of serum, forty three of insipid water were yielded by distill tion. 2. Alkuminous gluten, like the white of an egg, obtained by boiling, or by stirring it with a stick, or by an admixture of alcohol or concentrated mineral acid. 3. Jelly. If equal parts of water and serum of the blood be coagulated by fire, that part of the serum which is not coagulated, upon being cooled, puts on the appearance of a tremulous jelly. 4. Carbonated soda, obtained by pouring a mineral acid upon recent diluted serum. 5. Culinary salt, found in the incinerated carbon of blood. The albuminous principle of the serum, more commonly called the coagulable lymph, appears to be of very considerable importance in the animal according, both in diseased and healthy states of it: it affords, by analysis, carbon, azot, and hydr gen. The importance of the blood is very considerable; it distends the cavities of the heart and blood-vessels, and prevents them from collapsing; it stimulates to contraction the cavities of the heart and vessels, by which means the circulation of the blood is performed; it generates within itself animal heat, which it propagates throughout the body: it nourishes the whole body; and, lastly, it is that source from which every secretion of the body is separated

Blood dragon's. See Sungnis draconis. BLOOD LETTING. Under this term is comprehended every artificial discharge of blood made with a view to cure or prevent a disease. Blood-letting is divided into general and topical. As examples of the former, venesection and arteriotomy may be mentioned; and of the latter, the application of leeches, cupping-glasses, and

scurification.

Blood, spitting of. See Hemothysis. Blood, vomiting of. See Hematemesis. Blood stone. See Hematites.

Bloody flux. See Dysenteria.

Boa (From &sc, an ox.) A pustulous eruption like the small-pox, so called because it was cured, according to Pliny, by anoming it with hot ox-dung: also the name of a serpent of Calabria; and of the hydroa.

BOCHETUM. A decoction of the woods prepared by a second boiling with fresh

water.

Boenia, A subliming vessel.

Bochium. A swelling of the bronchial glands.

Bodies, commustrate. This term is given by chymists to all substances which, on account of their affinity with oxygen, are capable of burning.

Bodies, GASEOUS. See Gas.

Bodies, INFLAMMABLE. Chymists give this name to such bodies as burn with facility, and flame in an incrersed temperature; although, strictly speaking, all combustible

bodies are inflammable bodies: such are the diamond, sulphur, bitumens, &c.

Bodies, Phosphorescent. Bodies which produce light, though their temperature be not increased.

BODY. Corpus. The human body is dived by anatomists into the trunk and extremities. i. e. the head, and inferior and superior extremities, each of which have certain regions before any part is removed, by which the physician is enabled to direct the application of blisters and the like, and the situation of diseases is better described.

The head is distinguished into the hairy part and the face. The former has five regions, viz. the crown of the head or vertex, the fore part of the head or sinciput, the hind-part or occiput, and the sides, partes laterales capitis. In the latter are distinguished the region of the forehead, frons; temples, or tempora; the nose, or nasses; the eyes, or oculi; the mouth, or os; the cheeks, bucce; the chin, or mentum; and the ears, or aures.

and the ears, or aures.

The trunk is distinguished into three principal parts, the neck, thorax, and abdomen. The neck is divided into the anterior region or pars antica, in which, in men, is an eminence called pontum Adami; the posterior region is called nuche colli; and the laterial regions, partes laterales

colli

The thorax is distinguished into the anterior region, in which are the sternum and mamma, and at whose inferior part is a pit or hollow called scrobiculus cordis; a posterior region, called dorsum; and the sides, or latera thoracis.

The abdomen is distinguished into an anterior region, properly the abdomen; a posterior region, called the loins, or lumbi; and lateral regions or flanks, called latera abdominis. The anterior region of the abdomen being very extensive, is subdivided into the chigastric, hypochondriac, umbilical, and hypogastric regions, which are described under their respective names. Immediately below the abdomen is the mons Veneris, and at its sides the groins or inguina. The space between the organs of generation and the anus, or fundament, is called the perinaum.

The superior extremity is distinguished into the shoulder, summitas humeri, under which is the arm-pit, called axilla or fovea axillaris; the brachium, or arm; the anti-brachium, or fore-arm, in which anteriorly is the bend of the arm, where the veins are generally opened, called fexura antibrachi; and posteriorly the elbow, called angulus cubit; and the hand, in which are the carpus or wrist, the back or dorsum nianis, and the palm or vola.

The inferior extremity is divided into, 1. the region of the femur, in which are distinguished the coxa or regio ischiadica, and outer and superior part; 2. the leg, in

which are the knee or genn, the bend or cavum poplitis, and the calf or sura; 3. the foot, in which are the outer and inner ankle, or maleolus externus and internus, the back or dorsum, and the sole or

BOE. (From Boaw, to exclaim.) Clamour, or moaning made by a sick person.

BOETHEMA. (From βουθεω, to assist.) A

BOETHEMATICA. (From Confew, to assist.)

Favourable symptoms. Bog-bean. See Trifolium paludosum.

Bogia Gummi. Gamboge. Bohea tea. See Tea

Bois de coissi. See Quassi. Bolar oarths. See Bole.

BOLE. (Boxos, a mass.) A friable earthy substance, uniting with water into a smooth paste, adhering to the tongue, and dissolving, as it were, in the mouth; of the argillaceous or clay kind, but more readily imbibing water than the clays strictly so Those used in medicine, are the Armenian and French boles. See Bole Armenian, and Bolus Gallicu. Many other bolar earths have been recommended for medicinal uses, and were formerly ranked amongst the officinals; as red boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Strigonium, Portugal, Tuscany, and Livonia; yellow boles from Armenia, Tockay, Silesia, Bohemia, and Blois; white boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Nocera, Eretria, Lamos, Chio, Malta, Tuscany, and Goltberg. Several of these earths have been commonly made into little cakes or flat masses, and stamped with certain impressions; from which circumstance they received the name of terræ sigillatæ, or sealed earths.

BOLE, ARMENIAN. Bolus Armenia. Bole-armenic. A pale, but bright red coloured earth, which is occasionally mixed with honey, and applied to children's mouths when afflicted with aphthra. It forms, like all argillaceous earths, a good tooth-powder, when mixed with some aromatic.

BOLETUS. (From Banker, a mass, or

Sωλιτης, from its globular form.)

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order, Fungi. Boletus. Spunk.

BOLETUS CERVI. The mushroom.

BOLETUS IGNIARIUS, The systematic name for the agaricus of the pharmacopæias. See Agaricus.

BOLETUS LARICIS. The systematic name for the officinal agaricus albus. See Agaricus albus.

BOLETUS PINI LARICIS. A species of

BOLETUS SUAVEOLENS. The systematic name for the fungus salicis of the pharmaco. pæias. See Fungus salicis.

Bolismus. A voracious appetite, according to Avicenna; but most probably meant for bulimus.

BOLUS. (Baxos, a bole or bolus.) Any

medicine, rolled round, that is larger than an ordinary sized pea, and yet not too large to be swallowed.

Bolus ALEXIPHARMICA. A preparation

of contraverva.

BOLUS EX ALUMINE. Alum, bark, and nutmeg.

BOLUS ARMENA. See Bole Armenian.

BOLUS ARMENA ALBA. The white arme-

BOLUS ARMONIAC. See Bole Armenian.

Bolus Blessensis. Bole of Blois. See Bole Armenian.

Bolus Gallica, French bole. A pale red coloured bolar earth, variegated with irregular specks and veins of white and yellow. It is occasionally administered as an absorbent and antacid.

BOMBAX. Gossypium. The cottontree. The seeds of the cotton-tree, Gossypium herbaceum of Linnaus :- foliis quinquelobis subtus eglandulosis, caule herbaceo, are directed for medicinal use in some foreign pharmacopæias; and are administered in coughs, on account of the mucilage they contain. The cotton, the produce of this tree is well known for domestic purposes.

BOMBIAS. A bombiate. A salt formed by the union of the bombic acid with different bases; thus bombiat of alumine,

BOMBIC ACID. Acidum bombicum. Acid of the silk-worm. Silk worms contain, especially when in the state of chrysalis, an acid liquor in a reservoir placed near the anus. It is obtained by expressing their juice in a cloth, and precipitating the mucilage by spirit of wine, and likewise by infusing the chrysalides in that liquor. This acid is very penetrating, of a yellow amber colour, but its nature and combinations are not yet well known.

BOMBUS. (Bombos.) A resounding noise, or ringing of the ears. Also, a sonorous expulsion of flatus from the intestines.

BON ARBOR. A name given to the coffee-tree.

BONA. Boona. The phaseolus, or kidney-

Molucca or bezoar BONDUCH INDORUM. The produce of the Guillandina bondue of Linnæus. It possesses warm, bitter, and carminaive virtues.

BONE. Os. Bones are hard, dry, and insensible parts of the body, of a whitish colour, and composed of a spongy, compact, or reticular substance. They vary much in their appearances, some being long and hollow, others flat and compact, &c. The greater number of bones have several processes and cavities, which are distinguished from their figure, situation, use, &c. Thus processes extended from the end of a bone, if smooth and round, are called heads; and condyles, when flattened either above or laterally. That part which is beneath the BONE. 12

head, and which exceeds the rest of the bone in smallness and levity, is called the neck. Rough, unequal processes are called tuberosities or tubercles: but the longer and more acute, spinous or styloid processes, from their resemblance to a thorn. Thin broad processes with sharp extremities, are known by the name of crista, or sharp edges. Other processes are distinguished by their form, and called alar or pterygoid, manillary or mastoid, dentiform or odontoid, &c. Others, from their situation, are called superior, inferior, exterior, and interior. Some have their name from their direction, as oblique, straight, transverse. &c.; and some from their use, as trochanters, rotators, &c. Furrows, depressions, and cavities, are destined either for the reception of contiguous bones, to form an articulation with them, when they are called articular cavities, which are sometimes deeper, sometimes shallower; or they receive hard parts, but do not constitute a joint with them. Cavities serve also for the transmission and attachment of soft parts. Various names are given to them, according to the magnitude and figure of bones. If they be broad and large at the beginning, and not deep, but contracted at their ends, they are called fovee or pits. Furrows are open canals, extending longitu-dinally in the surface of bones. A hollow, circular tube, for the most part of the same diameter from beginning to end, and more or less crooked, straight, long or short, is named a canal. Foramina are the apertures of canals, or they are formed of the excavated margins of two bones, placed against each other. If such be the form of the margin of a bone, as if a portion were taken out of it, it is called a notch.

With respect to the formation of bone, there have been various opinions. Physiologists of the present day assert that it is from a specific action of small arteries, by which ossific matter is separated from the blood, and deposited where it is required. first thing observable in the embryo, where bone is to be formed, is a transparent jelly, which becomes gradually firmer, and is formed into cartilage. The cartilage gradually increases to a certain size, and when the process of ossification commences, vanishes as it advances. Cartilages, previous to the ossific action, are solid, and without any cavity; but when the ossific action of the arterics is about to commence, the absorbents become very active, and form a small cavity in which the bony matter is deposited; bone continues to be separated, and the absorbents model the mass into its required shape. The process of ossification is extremely rapid in utero: it advances slowly after birth, and is not completed in the human body till about the twentieth year. Ossification in the flat bones, as those of the skull, always begins from cen-

tral points, and the radiated fibres meet the radii of other ossifying points, or the edges of the adjoining bone. In long bones, as those of the arm and leg, the clavicle, metacarpal, and metatarsal bones, a central ring is formed in the body of the bone, the head and extremities being cartilage, in the centre of which ossification afterwards begins. The central ring of the body shoots its bony fibres towards the head and extremities, which extend towards the body of the bone. The head and extremities at length come so close to the body as to be merely separated by a cartilage, which becomes gradually thinner until the twentieth year. Thick and round bones, as those of the tarsus, carpus, sternum, and patella, are, at first, all cartilage: ossification begins in the centre of each. the bones are deprived of their soft parts, and are hung together in their natural situation, by means of wire, the whole is termed an artificial skeleton; but when they are kept together by means of their ligaments, it is called a natural skeleton.-The uses of the bones are various, and are to be found in the account of each bone; it is, therefore, only necessary to observe, in this place, that they give shape to the body, contain and defend the vital viscera, and afford an attachment to all the mus-

A Table of the Bones.

	JI I avie	of the Bone	8.			
						No.
Bues of the Hran.	Bones of the cranium or skull.	Frontal				1
		Parietal	-			2
		Occipital				1
		Temporal				2
		Ethmoid				1
		Sphanoid		-	_	1
	(Superior maxil,					
	Bones of the face.	Jugal	-			2 2
		Nasal		-		2
		Lachryma	l			2
		Palatine	_			2
		Inferior sp	on	ev.		2
		Vomer '		-	_	1
		Inferior in	ax	il.		î
	Dentes or teeth.	Incisores				8
		Cuspidati				4
		Molares	_			20
	Bone of the	5				
	tongue.	Hyoides of	) S			1
	Bones of the	Mallens			_	2
	car, within		_	Ť	Ĭ	2
	the tempo-		_	Ċ		$\tilde{\tilde{z}}$
	ral bones.		- 0	6	ı	2
	C lai bolics.	COLDICALA	0	3		4



Sesamond bones of the thumb and ? great toe, occasionally found

> Total 248

Bones, growth of. See Osteogony.
Bonebinder. See Osteocolla.
Bononiensis Lapis. The Bononian

step.

Metatarsus

Phalanges

stone. Call I also phosphorus bononiensis, phosphorus kircheri, the light-carrier, or Bononian phosphorus. As a medicane the

stone is caustic and emetic. Bonus Hennicus. (Henricus; so called because its virtues were detected by some one whose name was Henry. ) Tota bona. Lapathum unctuosum. Chenopodium. glish mercury. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopæias, is the Chenopodium bonus Henricus; foliis triangulari-sagittatis integerrimis, spicis compositis aphyllis axillaribus, of Linnæus. It is a native of this country, and common in waste grounds from June to August. The young plant differs little from spinnge when cultivated; and in many places the young shoots are eaten in spring like asparagus. The leaves of this plant are accounted emollient, and in this intention have been made an ingredient in decoctions for glysters. They are applied by the common people to flesh wounds and sores under the notion of drawing and healing.

BORACIC ACID. Acidum ber acicum. Sedative salt of Homberg. Acid of borax. Boracine acid. A concrete sait crystall zed in small white scales, which may be ob tained from borax, by adding concentrated sulphuric, the nitric, the muratic, and even regetable acids, to a hot solution of borax,

till the lixivium becomes somewhat acid: the solution is then to be cooled, when the acid will appear in the shape of bright scales. This acid in combination with alkalies, earths, and metallic oxyds, forms borates.

BORAS. A borate. A salt formed of borncic acid with an earthy, alkaline or metallic base: as borate of soda, &cc.

Borage. See Borago.

Bonago. (Formerly written Corago; from cor, the heart, and ugo, to affect; because it was supposed to comfort the heart and spirits.) Barage.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæ in system. Class, Pentandria.

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharm copeial name of the officual borage. Buglossum verum. Borago hortensis. glossum latifolium

The leaves and flowers of this plant, Borago officinales of Linnans :- foliis omnibus alternis, calycibus patentibus, are este-med in some countries as refrigerant and cordul. A syrup is prepared from the leaves in France, and used in pleurisies and inflammatory fevers. Their principal use in this island is in that grateful summer beverage, known by the name of cool

Borago officinalis. The systematic name for the borage of the shops. See Borago.

BORAS SOUE. Borate of soda. Sub boras sode and Borax.

B.RATE. Se Boras

BORAX (Borak, Arab) Boras sode, sub boras sode. The obsolete synonyms are Chryscolla, capistrum auri, ancinar, loraxtrion, annear, antinear tineal, amphitane, baurach, nitrum factitinm, santerna, and mirum nativam. This salt consisting of boracic acid uniting with soda, the soda being slightly in excess, is brought from Thibet and Persia, where it is found in a native state. This native or crude borax is c.1 ed tincal, tincor, borech, pounxa, in the East Lidics, and was formerly purified in Europe by the Venetians, when it was called refined or Venetian borax; but it is now prepared by the Datch by solution in hot water, filtration, and careful crystalliza-The particular process is not known. Its tasteis cool: it is soluble in eighteen parts of cold and six of ho' wa'er. It is decomposed by several of the reads. Borax is rarely used internally in modern practice; and according to Murray it does not appear to possess any activity, a'though it is supposed by some to be, in do es of half a drachin or two seruples, dirretic and emenagorue. It is occasionally given in cardialgia as an antacid. Its solution is in common use as a cooling gargle, and to detach mucus, &c. from the mouth in putrid fever; and mixed with an equal part of sugar, it is used in the form of pawder to remove the aphthous

crust from the tongue in children. The sal's formed by the union of the acid of borax with different bases are called bo-

BORBORYGMUS. (From BopGopuZw, to make a noise ) The rumbling noise occasioned by flatus in the intestines. It frequently precedes hysterical affections.

BOROZATL. (Adhiop.) An epidemic disease of the Æthiopians, in appearance similar to the lues venerea.

Bourago. See Borago.

Bount (Indian.) Borri-borri. Boberri. The Indian name for turmeric; also an om ment used there, in which the roots of turmeric are a chief ingredient.

Bosa. An Egyptian word for a mass which is made of the meal of darnel, hempseed, and water. It is nebriating.

Bosnonos. (From Rooko, to eat, and popos, a part: because 1 is divided for food by the mill) Bosporas A species

of meal.

BOTALE FORAMEN, A name formerly

applied to he for amen ovale.

BOTANY. (Botanica. Bolavian: from Bolavia, an herb or griss.) That part of natural history which considers every thing respecting the natural history of vegetables.

BOTANICON. (From Botavn, an herb.) A plaster made of herbs, and described by

Panhis Ægineta.

Bornon. (Arab.) Tumours: pimples in the face: also the small-pox or measles.

BOTHRION (From Robertor, a little pit.) Botrium The alveolus or socket for the tooth; also an ulcer ted cornea.

Boria. A name given to scrophula.

Borin. A name for turpentine.

Bornen. Bocium. Indurated bronchial

Bororainum. The most evident symp-

tom of disease.

Bornuttis. (From Googus, a bunch of grapes.) Botrgites A sort of bornt cadmia, collected in the top of the furnace, and resembling a bunch of grapes.

Bornes. (Bolpus, a cluster of grapes; so called because it- seeds hang down like a bunch of grapes.) The oak of Jerusalem.

BOTHYS MEXICANA Botrys ambrosioides Mexicana. Chenopodium Mexicanum, Botrys Americana. Mexico tea. Spanish rea and Artemisian botrys A d coction of this plant, Chenopodium ambrosiondes of Linnæns:-folis lanceolatis dentatis, racemis foliatis simplicibus, is recommended in paral, tic cases. Formerly the infusion was drank instead of Chinese tea.

Bothys Vulganis. Bothys. Ambrosia. Artimesia chenopodium. Atriplex odorata. Artiplex suaveolens Jerusalem oak This plant, Chenopodi in botrys of Linnaus;foliis oblongis sinuatis, racemis nudis multifidis was form rly ad a nistered i . rm of decoction in some diseases of the chest; as

humoral asthma, coughs, and catarrhs. is now fallen into disusc.

Botus. Botia. Botus barbutus. A cucurbit of the chymists.

Boubalios. See Cucumis ugrestis, and Pudeudum muliebre

BOUBON. See Bubo.

(French for wax candle.) BOUGIE. Candela cerea. Candela medicata. Catheters of Swedianr. Cerei medicati of Le Dran. Cereolus chirurgorum. A term applied by surg ons to a long, slender instrument, that is oduced through the urethra into the bladder. Boughes made of the clastic gum are preferable to those made of wax. The caustic bougie differs from the ordinary one in having a thin roll of caustic in its middle, which destroys the stricture, or any part it comes in contact with. Those made of catgut are very seldom used, but are deserving of the attention of the surgeon. Bougies are chiefly used to overcome strictures in the urethra, and the introduction of them requires a good deal of address and caution. They should not be kept in the urethra so long at one time as to excite much pain or irritation. Before their use is discontinued, they should, if practicable, be carried the length of the bladder, in order to ascertain the extent of the strictures, taking care that this be performed not at once, but in a gradual manner, and after repeated trials; for much injury might arise from any hasty or violent efforts to remove the resistance that may present itself. There are bougies also for the esoplagus and rectum.

BOULINUS. (From \$2, greatly, and \u00e4mus, hunger; or from Eshouar, to desire.) A

canine or voracious appetite.

BOVILLE. (From bos, an ox, because cattle were supposed subject to it.) The

BOYINA FIMES. The same as bulimia. Boyista. Crepitus lupi. Puff ball. This is the Incoperdon bovista; -subrotundum, lacerato dehiscens, of Lunnaus, which when dry contains a powder used by the common people to stop the blood in recent cuts, &c.

Box-tree See Buxus.

BRACHERIUM. (From brachiale, a bracelet.) A truss or bandage for hernia; a term used by the barbarous Latin writers.

BRACHIEUS MUSCULUS. See Brachialis. BRICHLEUS EXTERNUS. See Brachialis externus

See Brachialis BRACHLEUS INTERNUS. internus.

BRACHIAL ARTERY. Arteria brachialis The brachial artery is the continuation of the axillary artery, which, as it passes behind the tendon of the pecte. ralis major, receives the name of brackial. It runs down on the inside of the arm, over the musculus coraco brachial's, and anconæus internus, and, along the inner

edge of the biceps, behind the vena basilica, giving out small branches as it goes along. Priow the bend of the arm it divides into he subitalis and radialis. Sometimes, the savely, the brachial artery is divided from its origin into two large branches, which run down on the arm, and afterwards on the fore-arm, where they are called cubitalis and radialis.

Brachiale. The word means a bracelet: but the anciest anatomical writers apply this term to the carpus, the part on

which the bracelet was worn.

BRACHIALIS. See Brachidlis internus. BRACHIALIS EXTERNUS. See Triceps extensor cubiti

BRACHIALIS INTERNUS. Brachieus of Winslow. Brachiaus internus of Cowper, and Humero-cubital of Dumas. A muscle of the fore-arm, situated on the fore-part of the os humeri. It arises fleshy from the middle of the os humeri, at each side of the insertion of the deltoid muscle, covering all the inferior and fore-part of this bone, runs over the joint, and adheres firmly to the ligament; is inserted, by a strong short tendon, into the coronoid process of the Its use is to bend the fore-arm, and to prevent the capsular ligament of the joint from being pinched.

BRACHIO-CUBITAL LIGAMENT. Ligamentum brachio cubitale, The expansion of the lateral ligament, which is fixed in the inner condyle of the os humeri, runs over the capsular, to which it closely adheres, and is inserted like radii on the side of the great sigmoid cavity of the ulna; it is covered on the inside by several tendons, which adhere closely to it, and seem to

strengthen it very considerably.

BRACHIO-RADIAL LIGAMENT. Lizamentum brachio-radiale. The expansion of the lateral ligament, which runs over the external condyle of the os humeri, is inserted round the coronary ligament, from thence all the way down to the neck of the radius, and also in the neighbouring parts of the ulna. Through all this passage it covers the capsular ligament, and is covered by several tendons adhering closely to both.

Brachi os, See Humeri os.

BRACHIUM. (Beaxing, the arm.) The arm, from the shoulder to the wrist.

BRACHIUM MOVENS QUARTUS. See Latissimus dorsi.

BRACHUNA. According to Avicenna, a species of furor uterinus,

BRACHY-CHRONIUS. (From Beaxus, Short, and xgoros, time.) A disease which continues but a short time.

BRACHPYNEA. (From Leaxus, short, and www, to breathe.) Shortness and difficulty

of breathing.

BRACHYS. (From Beaxus, short.) A muscle of the scapula.

Bracium. Copper. Verdigris.

BRADYPEPSIA. (From Beadus, slow, and werlω, to concoct.) Weak digestion. See Dyspepsia.

BRAGGAT. A name formerly applied to

a ptisan of honey and water.

Brain. See Cerebrum See Cerebellum. Brain, little

BRAN. Furfur. The husks or shells of wheat, which remain in the bolting machine. It contains a portion of the farinaceous matter and is said to have a laxative quality. Decoctions of bran, sweetened with sugar, are used by the common people, and sometimes with success, against coughs, hoarsenesses, &c.

(Branca, Span. a foot, or BRANCA. branch.) A term applied to some herbs, which are supposed to resemble a particular foot; as branca leonis, lion's foot; branca

ursina, bear's foot.

BRANCA LEONINA. See Alchemilla. BRANCA URSINA. The plant which is directed by this name in for ign pharmacopæias, is the Heracleum spondylium of Linnæus: -foliolis pinnatificlis, levibus; floribus uniformibus In Siberia it grows extremely high, and appears to have virtues in the cure of dysentery, which the plants of this country do not possess. See also Acanthus.

BRANCA LEONIS. See Alchemilla.

BRANCHÆ. (From Beexa, to moist.) Branchi. Swelled tonsils, or glandulous tumours, of the fauces, which se-

Branchus. (From βgeχω, to moisten.) A defluxion of humours from the fauces.

BRANDY. Spiritus Gallicus. lourless, slightly opake, and milky fluid, of a hot and penetrating taste, and a strong and agreeable smell, obtained by distilling from wine. It consists of water, ardent spirit, and a small portion of oil, which renders it milky at first, and, after a certain time, colours it yellow. It is the fluid from which rectified or ardent spirit is obtained. Its peculiar flavour depends on the nature of the volatile principles, or essential oil, which come over along with it in the distillation, and likewise, in some measure upon the management of the fire, the wood of the cask in which it is kept, &c. It is said, that our rectifiers imitate the flavour of brandy, by adding a small proportion of nitrous ether to the spirit of malt, or molasses. The utility of brandy is very considerable, but, from its pleasant taste and exhilarating property, it is too often taken to excess. It gives energy to the animal functions; is a powerful tonic, cordial, and antispasmodic; and its utility with camphire, in gangrenous affections, is very great.

Brunks. The name, in Scotland, for the

mumps. See Cynanche parotidea.

Brankursine. See Acanthus.

Buasilia. Brazil wood.

BHASILIENSE LIGNUM. Hæmatoxyllum.

BRASILIENSIS RADIX. The ipecacuanha root is sometimes so called. See Ipe-

BRASIUM. (From Leaven, to boil.) Malt, or germinated barley

BHASMA. (From Bearow, to boil.) unripe black pepper. Fermentation.
Bussios The same.

BRASS. Es. A combination of copper

BRASSADELLA, Brassatella. Ophioglos-

sum, or the herb adder's tongue.

BRASSICA. (Varro says, quasi præsica: from præseco, to cut off; because it is cut from the stalk for use; or from ægaou, a bed in a garden where they are cultivated.) Crambe. Cabbage.

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. See Brassica

tata.

BRASSICA ALBA. The white cabbage. Brassica APIANA. Jagged or crimpled

colewort.

The mercurialis BRASSICA CANINA.

earltata, Cabbage. There BRASSICA are several varieties of cabbage, all of which are generally hard of digestion, producing flatulencies, and afford very little nourishment, These inconveniencies are not experienced by those whose stomachs are strong and accustomed to them. Few vegetables run into a state of putrefaction so quickly as cabbages; they ought, therefore, always to be used immediately after cutting In Holland and Germany there is a method of preserving them, by cutting them into pieces, and sprinkling salt and some aromatic herbs among them: this mass is put into a tub, where it is pressed close, and left to ferment, when it is called sour croat, or sauer kraut. These, and all pickles of cabbage, are considered as wholesome and antiscorbutic, from the vinegar and spices they contain.

Turnip cab-BHASSICA CONGYLODES.

hage.

Brassica eumana. Red colewort. Brassica eruca The systematic name for the plant which affords the semen erucæ. See Eruca.

BRASSICA ERUCASTRUM, See Eruca sylvestris,

BHASSICA FLORIDA. Cauliflower. A variety of the oleracea.

BHASSICA. GONYLICODES. Turnip cabbage.

BHASSICA LACUTURRIA. Brassica lacuturris. The savoy plant.

Вплемся МАШИЛА, Крамби Эпласоия. Convolvulus maritimus. Soldanella. Soldanella. This plant, Convolvulus soldanella of Linnæus: foliis reniformibus, pedun-culis unifloris, is a native of our coasts. The leaves are said to be a drastic purge. It is only used by the common people, the pharmacopoias having now substituted more safe and valuable remedies in its

BRASISCA NAPUS. The systematic name for the plant from which the semen napi is

obtained. See Napi.

BRASSICA OLERACEA, The systematic name for the brassica capitata of the shops. See Brassica capitata.

Brassica napa. The systematic name for the plant whose root is called turnip,

See Rapa.

Brassica Rubra. Red cabbage. Mr. Watt finds that the red cabbage affords a very excellent test both for acids and alkalis, in which it is superior to litmus, being naturally blue, turning green with alkalis, and red with acids.

Brassica sativa. The common gar-

de.. cabbage.

Brassica sabauda. The savoy plant.

BRASSIDELLICA Aus. A way of curing wounds, mentioned by Paracelsus, by applying the herb Brassidella to them.

BRATHU. (Βεαθυ.) An old name for savine.

BREAD FRUIT. The tree which affords this, grows in all the Ladrone Islands in the South Sea, in Otaherte, and now in the West Indies. The bread-fruit grows upon a tree the size of a middling oak. The fruit is about the size of a child's head, and the surface is reticulated, not much unlike the surface of a truffle. It is covered with a thin skin, and has a core about the size of a small knife. The eatable part is between the skin and the core: it is as white as snow, and somewhat of the consistence of new bread. It must be toasted before it is eaten, being first divided into three or four parts. Its taste is insipid, with a slight sweetness, nearly like that of whealen This fruit bread and artichoke together. is the constant food of the inhabitants all the year, it being in season eight months.

BREAST. Mamma. The two globular projections, composed of common integuments, adipose substance, and lacteal glands and vessels, and adhering to the anterior and lateral regions of the thorax of females. On the middle of each breast is a projecting portion, termed the papilla or nipple, in which the excretory ducts of the glands terminate, and around which is a coloured orb, or disc, called the areola. The use of the breasts is to snckle new-born infants.

Breast-bone. Sec Sternum.

Bregna. (From βgeχω, to moisten; formerly so called because, in infants, and sometimes even in adults, they are tender and moist.) An old name for the parietal bones.

BREVIA. (From brevis, short.) specific name of some parts whose termination is not far from their insertion, as brevia vasa, the branches of the splenic

BREVIS MUSCULUS. A muscle of the scapula.

BREVIS CUBITI. A muscle of the fore-

Brevis extensor pollicis pedis, tensor brevis pollicis peclis.

Brevis flexor pollicis pedis. See Flexor brevis pollicis pedis.

BREVIS PERONEUS. See Peroneus brevis.

Brevis pronator radii. · See Pronator radii brevis.

BREYNIA. (An American plant named in honour of Dr. Brennius ) A species of capparis

Briar, wild. See Rosa canina.

BRICUMUM. A name which the Gauls gave to the herb artemisia,

Brimstone See Sulphur.

HOT-WELL. BRISTOL Bristoliensis aqua. A pure, thermal or warm, slightly acidulated, mineral spring, situated about a mile below Bristol. The fresh water is inodorous, perfectly limpid, and sparkling, and sends forth numerous air bubbles when poured into a glass. It is very agreeable to the palate, but without having any very decided taste, at least none that can be aistinguished by a common observer. specific gravity is only 1.00077, which approaches so near to that of distilled water. that this circumstance alone would shew that it contained but a very small admixture of foreign ingredients. The temperature of these waters, taking the average of the most accurate observations, may be reckoned at 74 deg.; and this does not very sensibly vary during winter or summer. Bristol water contains both solid and gaseous matter, and the distinction between the two requires to be attended to, as it is owing to the very small quantity of solid matter that it deserves the character of a very fine natural spring; and to an excess in gaseous contents, that it seems to be principally indebted for its medical properties, whatever they may be, inde-pendent of those of mere water, with an increase of temperature. From the different investigations of chymists, it appears that the principal component parts of the Hotwell water, are a large proportion of carbonic acid gas, or fixed air, and a certain portion or magnesia and lime, in various combinations, with the muriatic, vitriolic, and carbonic acids. The general inference is, that it is considerably pure for a natural fountain, as it contains no other solid matter than is found in almost all common spring water, and in less quantity.

On account of these ingredients, especially the carbonic acid gas, the Hotwell water is efficacious in promoting salutary hæmorrhages, in green sickness, as well as in the blind hæmorrhoides. It may be taken with advantage in obstructions, and weakness of the bowels, arising from habitual costiveness; and, from the purity of its aqueous pare, it has justly been considered as a specific in diabetes, rendering the urinary organs more fitted to receive benefit from those medicines which are generally prescribed, and sometimes success-

But the high reputation which this spring has acquired, is chiefly in the cure of pulmonary consumption. From the number of unsuccessful cases among those who frequent this place, many have demed any peculiar efficacy in this spring, superior to that of common water. It is not easy to determine how much may be owing to the favourable situation and mild temperate climate which Bristol enjoys; but it cannot be doubted that the Ho well water, though by no means a cure for consumption, alleviates some of the most harassing symptoms of this formidable disease. It is particularly efficacious in moderating the thirst, the dry burning heat of the hands and feet, the partial night sweats, and the symptoms that are peculiarly hectical; and thus in the earlier stages of plithisis, it may marerially contribute to a complete re-establishment of health; and even in the latter periods, mitigate the disease when the cure is doubtful, if not hopeless.

The sensible effects of this water, when drank warm and fresh from the spring, are a gentle glow of the stomach, succeeded sometimes by a slight and transient degree of headach and giddiness. By a continued use, in most cases it is diurctic, keeps the skin moist and perspirable, and improves the appetite and health. Its effects on the bowels are variable. On the whole, a tendency to costiveness seems to be the more general consequence of a long course of this medicinal spring, and therefore the use of a mild aperient is requisite. These effects, however, are applicable only to invalids, for healthy persons, who taste the water at the fountain, seldom discover any thing in it but a degree of warmth, which distinguishes it from the common element.

The season for the Hotwell is generally from the middle of May to October; but as the medicinal properties of the water continue the same throughout the year, the summer months are preferred merely on account of the concomitant benefits of air and exercise.

It should be mentioned, that another spring, nearly resembling the Hotwell, has heen discovered at Clifton, which is situated on the suminit of the same hill, from the bottom of which the Hotwell issues. The water of Sion spring, as it is called, is one or two degrees colder than the Hotwell; but in other respects it sufficiently resembles it to be employed for all similar purposes.

BHITANNICA HERHA. See Hydrolapa-

thum

Burrish off. A variety of the black species of petroleum, to which this name has been given as an empirical remedy.

Buoccoll. Brussica Italica. As an article of diet, this may be considered as more delicious than cauliflower and cabbage. Sound stomachs digest broccoli without any inconvenience; but in dyspeptic stomachs, even when combined with pepper, &c it always produces flatulency, and pauscous cructations.

Brochos. (Βεοχος, a snare.) A bandage. BROCHTHUS. (From βgeχω, to pour.) The throat; also a small kind of drinking-

Brochus. (Beoros.) One with a prominent upper-lip, or one with a full mouth

and prominent teeth.

BROITUM. A term in pharmacy, signifying the same with jusculum, broth, or the liquor in which any thing is boiled. Thus we sometimes read of Brodium Salis, or a decoction of salt.

BROMA. (From Bework, to cat.) Food of any kind that is masticated, and not

drank. BROMA-THEON. (From Beautie, to cat.)

Mushreom

BROMATOLOGY. (Bromatologia: from βεσμα, food, and λογος, a discourse.) A discourse or treatise on food

BROMELIA ANANAS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the anguas. See Ananas

The systematic BROMELIA KARATAS, name of the plant from which we obtain the first called penguin, which is given in the Spanish West! udies to cool and quench thirst in fevers, dysenteries, &c. It grows in a cluster, there being several of the size of one's finger together. Each portion is clothed with a husk, containing a white pulpy substance, which is the eatable part; and it it be not perfectly ripe, its flavour resembles that of the pine-apple. The juice of the ripe fruit is very austere, and s made use of to acidulate punch. The inhabitants of the West I dies make a wine f the penguin, which is very intoxicating, and has a good flavour.

BROMION. (From Bzapes, the oat.) The nume of a plaister, made with oaten flour,

menti ned by Paulus Ægineta.

BROWLS STERILIS. (From Egarka, to cat.) The wild oat

From Respos, the BRONCHIA. 'hroat.) See Trachca.

BRONCHIALES ARTERLE, Bronchial arteries. Branches of the aorta given off in th chest

BRONCHIALES GLANDULE glands. Large blackish glands, situated about the bronchia and trachea, which se-

crete blackish mucus.

BRONCHOCELE. (From Beorges, the windpipe, and иман, a tumour. Botium. Hernia gutturis Guttur tumidum Trachelophyma. Gossum Exechebronchos. Gongrona. Bocium. Hernia bronchialis. Tracheocele. Darbyshire neck This disease is marked by a tumour on the fore-part of the neck, and scated between the trachea and skin. In general it has been suppos d principally to occupy the thyroid gland. We are given to understand that it is a very common disorder in Derbyshire; but its occurrence is by no means frequent in other parts of Great Britain, or in Ireland. Amongst the inhabitants of the Alps, and other mountainous countries bordering thereon, it is a disease very often met with, and is there known by the name of goitre. The cause which gives rise to it, is by no means certain, and the observations of different writers are of very little prictical utility. Dr. Saunders controverts the general idea of the branchocele being produced by the use of snow water. The swelling is at first without pain, or any evident fluctuation, when the disease is of long standing, and the swelling considerable, we find it in general a very difficult matter to effect a cure by medicine, or any external application; and it might be unsafe to attempt its removal with a kmfe, on account of the enlarged state of its arteries, and its vicinity to the carotids; but, in an early stage of the disease, by the aid of medicine a cure may be effected.

Although some relief has been obtained at times, and the disease probably somewhat retarded by external applications, such as blisters discritient embracations, and saponaccous and mercurial plaisters, still a complete cure has soldom been effected with-out an internal use of medicine; and that which has always proved the most efficawhich this is most usually exhibited, is that of a lozenge. R. spongiæ ustæ 3-s. mucilag. Arab. gum. q. s. hat trochiscus. When the tunior appears about the age of puberty, and before its structure has been too morbidly deranged, a pill, consisting of a grain or two of calomel, must be given for three successive mghts; and, on the fourth morning, a saline purge. Every night afterwards, for three weeks, one of the troches should, when the patient is in bed, be put under the tongue, suffered to dissolve gradually, and the solution swallowed. The disgust at first arising from this remedy soon wears off. The pilis and the purge are to be repeated at the end of three

weeks, and the troches had recourse to as before; and this plan is to be pursued till the tumour is entirely dispersed. Some recommend the burnt sponge to be administered in larger doses. Sulphurated potash dissolved in water, in the proportion of 30 grains to a quart daily, is a remedy which has been employed by Dr. Ritchter with success, in some cases, where catcined sponge failed. The natron preparatum being the basis of burnt sponge, is now frequently employed instead of it, and, indeed, it is a more active medicine.

BRONCHOTOMY. (Bronchotomia :from Beorxos, the wind-pipe, and TEMVW, to cut.) Trichectomy. Laryngotomy. This is an operation in which an opening is made into he larynx, or trachea, either for the purpose of making a passage for the air into and out of the lungs, when any disease prevents the patient from breathing through the mouth and nostrils, or of extracting foreign bodies, which have accidentally fallen into the traches; or, lastly, in order to be able to inflate the lungs, in cases of sudden suffocation, drowning, &c. Its practicableness, and little danger, are founded on the facility with which certain wounds of the wind-pipe, even of the most complicated kind, have been healed, without leaving any ill effects whatever, and on the nature of the parts cut, which are not furnished with any vessel of consequence.

Broxenos. (Bgoyxos, the wind-pipe.)
A catarrh; a suppression of the voice from

a catarrh.

Browenus. (From Bgsze, to pour.) The wind-pipe. The ancients believed that the solids were conveyed into the stomach by the coopbagus, and the fluids by the bronchia; whence its name.

Brooklime Speedwell. See Beccubunga.

Broom, Common. See Genista

BRUCEA. (So named by Sir Joseph Banks in honour of Mr. Bruce, the traveller in Abyssinia, who first brought the seeds thence into England.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system.

Brucea antinesentence. The systematic name of the plant from which it was supposed we obtained the angustura bark.

See Angusturæ cortex.

BRUCEA FERRUGINEA. This plant is also supposed to afford the angustura bark. See Angustura cortex.

Bruisewort. See Saponaria.
BRUNELLA. See Prunella.

Brunner's glands. Brunneri glandule. Peyer's glands. The muciparious glands, situated between the villous and cellular coat of the intestinal canal; so named after Brunner, who discovered them.

Brunus. An erysipelatous eruption. Bruscus. See Ruscus. Bruta. (Arab.) Instinct. Savine.

BRUTIA. An epithet for the most resinous kind of pitch, therefore used to make the Oleum Picinum. The Pix Brutia was so called from Brutia, a country in the extreme parts of Italy, where it was produced.

BRUTINO. Turpentine.

BRUTOBON. The name of an ointment used by the Greeks.

BRUTUA. See Pareira brava.

BRUXANELI. (Indian.) A tall tree in Malabar, whose bark is diuretic, according to Ray.

BRYAMUS. (From Bevza, to make a noise.) A peculiar kind of noise, such as is made by gnashing or grating the teeth; or, according to some, a certain kind of convulsion affecting the lower jaw, and striking the teeth together, most frequently observed in such children as have worms,

BRYONIA. (From Beva to abound, from

its abundance.) Bryony.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Dioecia. Order,

Syngenesia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the white bryony Vitis alba sylvestris. Agrostis, Ampelos. Archeostris. Echetrosis of Hippocrates. Bryonia aspera. Cedrostis. Chelidonium Labrusca. Melothrum. Ophrostaphylon. Psilothrum. Bryonia alba of Linnæus:—foliis palmatis utrinque calloso scabris.

White bryony, or wild vine, is a very common plant in woods and hedges. The root has a very nauseous biting taste, and disagreeable smell. Bergius states the virtues of this root to be purgative, hydragogue, emmenagogue, and diuretic; the fresh root emetic. This powerful and irritating cathartic, though now seldom prescribed by physicians, is said to be of great efficacy in evacuating serous humours, and has been chiefly employed in hydropical cases. Instances of its good effects in other chronic diseases are also mentioned, as astlima, mania, and epilepsy. In small doses, it is reported to operate as a diuretio, and to be resolvent and deobstruent. In powder, from Aj. to a drachm, it proves strongly purgative; and the juice, which issues spontaneously, in doses of a spoonful or more, has similar effects, but is more gentle in its operation. An extract prepared by water acts more mildly, and with greater safety than the root in substance, given from half a drachm to a drachm. It is said to prove a gentle purgative, and likewise to operate powerfully by urinc. Of the expressed juice, a spoonful acts violently both upwards and downwards; but cream of tartar is said to take off its virulence. Externally, the fre h root has been employed in cataplasms, as a resolvent and discutient; also in ischiadic and other rheumatic affections.

BRYONIA ALBA. The systematic name of the white bryony plant. See Bryonia.

BUC

BRYONIA MECHOACHANA NIGRICANS. A name given to the jalap root.

BRYONIA NIGRA Black bryony, or vine. The Tamus communis of Linnaus.

BRYONIA PERUVIANA. Jalap.

Bryony, black. See Bryonia nigra. Bryony, white See Bryona.

Burrinon. (Bgottov.) A malagma so called, and described by Paulus Ægineta. Burron. (From Egua, to pour out.)

A kind of alc, or wine, made of barley.

BUBASTECONDIUM. (From bubastus and cor, the heart.) A name formerly given

to artemisia, or innewort.

BUBO. (From 2850), the groin; because they most frequently happen in that part.) Modern surgeons mean, by this term, a swelling of the lymphatic glands, particularly of those of the groin and axilla. The disease may arise from the mere irritation of some local disorder, when it is called sympathetic bubo; from the absorption of some irritating matter, such as the venereal poison; or from constitutional causes, as in the pestilential bubo, and scrophulous swellings, of the inguinal and axillary glands.

BUBON. (From Boulaw, the groin, or a tumour to which that part is liable, and which it was supposed to cure.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

BUBON GALBANUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the officinal galbanum. See Galbanum.

BUBON MACEDONICUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the

semen petroselini Macedonici of the shops. See Petroselinum Macedonicum.

BUBONITY. (From Excar, the groin.) A name of the golden starwort; so called because it was supposed to be efficacious

in diseases of the groin.

BUBONOCELE. (From Escar, the groin, and knan, a tumour.) Hernia inguinalis. Inguinal hernia, or rupture of the groin. A species of hernia, in which the bowels protrude, at the abdominal ring. See Hernia.

Bucca (Heb.) The cheek. The hollow inner part of the check, that is inflated

by the act of blowing.

Buccachaton. (From bucca, or bucella, that is, a morsel of bread sopped in wine, which served in old times for a breakfast.) Paracelsus calls by the name of Bucella, the carneons excrescence of the polypus in the nose, because he supposes it to be a portion of flesh parting from the bucca, and insinuating itself into the nose.

BUCCAL GLANDS. (Glandule buccina. les: from bucca, the check.) The small glands of the mouth, under the cheek, which assist in secreting saliva into that

cavity.

Buccea. (From bucca, the cheek; as much as can be obtained at one time with-

in the checks.) A mouthful; a morsel; a polypus of the nose.

Buccellaton. (From buccella, a morsel.) A purging medicine, made up in the form of a loaf; consisting of scammony, &c. put into fermented flour, and then baked in an oven.

BUUELLA. See Buccea.

(From buccellatus, cut BUCELLATIO. into small pieces.) Bucelatio. A method of stopping an hæmorrhage, by applying small pieces of lint to the vein, or artery.

BUCCINATOR (Musculus buccinator. So named from its use in forcing the breath to sound the trumpet; from Bounavov, a trumpet.) Retractor anguli oris of Albinus, and alveolo maxillaire of Dumas. The trumpeter's muscle. The buccinator was long thought to be a muscle of the lower jaw, arising from the upper alveoli, and inserted into the lower alveoli, to pull the jaw upwards; but its origin and insertion, and the direction of its fibres, are quite the reverse of this. For this large flat muscle, which forms in a manner the walls of the cheek, arises chiefly from the coronoid process of the lower jaw-bone, and partly also from the end of the alveoli, or socket process of the upper jaw, close by the pterygoid process of the sphænoid bone: it goes forward with direct fibres, to be implanted into the corner of the month; it is thin and flat, covers in the mouth, and forms the walls of the cheek, and is perforated in the middle of the cheek by the duct of the parotid gland. These are its principal uses :-it flattens the cheek, and so assists in swallowing liquids; -it turns, or helps to turn, the morsel in the mouth, while chewing, and prevents it from getting without the line of the teeth:in blowing wind-instruments, it both reecives and expels the wind; -it dilates like a bag, so as to receive the wind in the cheeks; and it contracts upon the wind, so as to expel the wind, and to swell the note. In blowing the strong wind-instru-ments, we cannot blow from the lungs, for it distresses the breathing, we reserve the air in the mouth, which we keep continually full; and from this circumstance, as mentioned above, it is named buccinator, from blowing the trumpet.

Breevla. (Dim. of bucca, the cheek.)

The fleshy part under the chin.

The plant BUCEPHALON, RED-FRUITED. so called, is the Trophis Americana of Linnaus. Its fruit is a kind of rough red berry, which is eaten by the inhabitants of Jamaica, although its flavour is by no means pleasant.

BUCERAS. (From Exc, an ox, and xiggs, a horn; so called from the horn-like appearance of its seed.) Buceros. Fenngreek seed. See Fanumgracum.

Buck bean. Sec Trifoaum paludosum. Buck-elorn. See Spina cervina.

The Polygonum fagofy-BUCKWHEAT. rum of Linnæus. The grain of this plant constitutes the principal food of the inhabitants of Russia, Germany, and Switzerland.

BUCK-WHEAT, EASTERN. The Polygo-mm divaricatum of Linnæus. The roots, The Polugoreduced into a coarse meal, are the ordi-

nary food of the Siberians.

BUCRANION. (From £85, an ox, and ngarror, the head; so called from its supposed resemblance to a calt's snout.) The antirrhinum, or snap dragon plant.

The hymen, according to BUCTON.

Piræus.

BUGANTIA. Chilblams.

Bugle. See Prunella.

Bugloss. Sce Buglossum.

BUGLOSSUM. (From Bes, an ox, and ρλασσα, a tongue; so called from the shape and roughness of its leaf.) Buglossa. Buglossum angustifolium majus. Buglossum vulgare majus. Buglossum sativum cinal bugloss, or alkanet. This plant, Anchusa officinalis of Linnaus :- fohis lanceolatis strigosis, spicis secundis imbricatis, calycibus quinquepartitis, was formetly esteemed as a cordial in melancholic and hypochondriacal diseases. It is seldom used in modern practice, and then only as an aperient and refrigerant.

BUGLOSSUM SYLVESTRE. The stone

bugloss.

Bugula. (A dim. of buglossa.) See

Consolida media.

BULBO ASTANUM. (From Box600, a bulb, and xasayor, a chesnut; so called from its bulbous appearance.) Agriccasta-Nucula terrestris. Bulbocastaneum. Bulbocastanum majus et minus. Earth-nut. Hawk-nut. Kipper-nut, and pig-nut. This plant, the Bunium bulbocastanum of Linnæus, has a root as large as a nutmeg; hard, tuberous and whitish; is eaten raw, or roasted. It is sweetish to the taste, nonrishing, and supposed to be of use against strangury and bloody urine.

Bulbocavernosus, (Bulbocavernosus, sc. musculus: so called from its origin and insertion) See Accelerator urine.

BULBONACH. (Germ.) The rediviva of Linnaus. Satin and honesty. It is said, by Ray, to be a warm diuretic.

Such bulbous BULBUS ISCULENTUS. roots as arc commonly eaten are so called.

Bulbus vomitorius. . Iluscari. acynthus muscari, of Linnæus. Grape-flower. Emetic and durctic, according to Ray.

Bulge-water tree. The Geoffroya Jamai-

BULIMIA (From &s, a particle of excess, and rigger, hunger.) Bulimiasis, Boulimos, Bulinnus Bolismos of Avicen-Fines canina . Appetitus caninus. Phagedæna. Adephagia. Bupeina lyno. rexia. Insatiable hunger, or canine appetite.

Dr. Cullen places this genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysorexie; and distinguishes three species. 1. Bulimia hellnonum; in which there is no other disorder of the stomach, than an excessive craving of food. 2. Bulimia syncopalis; in which there is a frequent desire of food, and the sense of hunger is preceded by swooning. 3. Bulima emetica, also cynorexia; in which an extraordinary appetite for food is followed by vomiting. The real causes of this disease are, perhaps, not properly understood In some cases, it has been supposed to proceed from an acid in the stomach, and in others, from a superabundance of acid in the gastric juice, and from indigested sordes, or worms. In most instances, some consider it as depending more frequently on monstrosity than disease. An extraordinary and well-attested case of this disease, is related, in the third volume of the Medical and Physical Journal, of a French prisoner, who, in one day, consumed of raw cow's udder, 4 lbs. raw beef, 10 lbs. candies, 2 lbs.; total, 16 lbs.; besides 5 bottles of porter.

BULIMIA ADDEPHAGI. A voracious appe-

tite.

BULINIA CANINA. A voracious appetite, with subsequent vomiting.

BULIMIA CARDIALGICA. voracious appetite, with heartburn.

BULIMIA CONVULSORUM. A voracious

appetite, with convulsions. Bulimia emetica. A voracious appe-

tite, with vomiting. BULIMIA HELLUOYUM. Gluttony.

BULIMIA ESURIGIO. Gluttony.

BULIMIA SYNCOPALIS. A voracious appetite, with fainting, from hunger.

BULIMIA VERMINOSA. voracious appetite, from worms.

BULIMIASIS. See Bulimia.

BULIMUS. See Bulimia.
BULITHUM. (From &\*s., an ox, and 21905, a stone.) A bezoar, or stone, found in the kidneys, or gall, or urinary bladder, of an ox, or cow.

(A bubble.) A clear vesicle. BULLA. which arises from burns, or scalds; or

other causes.

The fruit so called, is the BULLACE. produce of the Prunus insitia of Linnaus, which grows wild in our hedges. There are two varieties of bullace, the red and the white, which are used with the same intentions as the common damsons.

Bullosa ferris. An epithet applied to the vesicular fever, because the skin is covered with little vesicles, or blisters See

Pemphigus.

BUNIUM. (From Esvos, a little hill; so called from the tuberosity of its root.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnan system. Class, Pentaudria. Order, Digynia.

2. The name of the wild parsley.

BUNITES VINUM. (From bunium, wild parsley) A wine made of bunium and

BUNIUM. BI LHOCASTANUM. The systerratic name of a plant whose root is called the pig-nut. See Bulbocastanum.

Bunius. A species of turnip.

BUPEINA. (From &s, a particle of magnitude, and warz, hunger.) A voracious

appetite.

Burnagos. (From  $\beta \varepsilon$ , a particle of excess, and  $\phi \circ \varphi_{\mathcal{O}}$ , to eat.) The name of an antidote which created a voracious appetite in Marcellus Empiricus.

BUPHTHALMUM. (From \$80, an ox, and οφθαλμος, an eye; so called from its flow "s, which are supposed to resemble an eye ) The herb ox-eye daisy. See Bellis major

BUPHTHALMUM CURTICUM. Pellitory of

Spain. See Pyrethrum

BUUN PHALMUM GERMANICUM. The com-

mon ox-eye daisy

MAJUS. Great, or ox-BUPHTHALMUM

eye dansy. See Bellis major.

BUPHTHALMUS. (From Bre, an ox, and οφθαλμος, an eve; so named from its large appearance, like an ox's eye.) Ox eye.

1. Diseased enlargement of the eye.

2. Houseleek.

BUPLEURUM. (From \(\beta\_8\), large, and wasugov, a rib; so named from its having large rib-like filaments upon its leaves.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the

Linnæan system.

2 The pharmacopoial name of the Buplewon Buplewordes. The herb hare'sear. See Perfoliuta

BUPLEURUM ROTUNDIFOLIUM. systematic name of the plant called perfoliata, in the pharmacopæias. See Perfolicita.

Burdock See Burdana.

Burgundy pitch. So Pix Burgundica. Burac. (Arab.) Borax. It also means any kind of salt.

According to Avicenna, a Bums. scirrhous hernia, or hard abscess.

BURNEA Pitch.

Burnet saxifrage See Pimpinella.

Brenning. An ancient me-BURNING dical term, denoting an infectious disease, got in the stews by conversing with lewd women, and supposed to be the same with what we now call the venereal disease.

BURRIU SPIRITUS MATRICALIS. rhu's spirit, for disorders of the womb. A compound of myrrh, olibanum, amber,

and spirit of wine.

Burnt hartshorn. See Cornu ustum. Burnt sponge. See Spongia usta.

Bunsa. A bag

1. The scrotum.

2 A herb called Thlaspi bursa pastoris, from the resemblance of its seminal tollicles to a triangular purse.

BURSALOGY. (From Bugaz, a bag,

and Apper, a discourse ) The doctrine of the bur a muc sa

B RSE MUCOSE. Mucous bags, composed of proper membranes, conta ning a kind of mucous fat, formed by the exhaling arteries of the internal coat. They are of different sizes and firmness, and are connected by the cellular membrane with articular cavities, tendons, ligaments, or the periosteum. The use of the bursæ mucosæ is to secrete, and contain a substance to lubricate tendons, muscles, and bones, in order to render their motion easy.

A Table of all the Bursa Mucosa.

In the Head.

1. A bursa of the superior oblique muscle of the eye, situated behind its trochlea in the orbit.

2. The bursa of the digostricus, situated in the internal surface of its tendons

3. A bursa of the circumflexus, or tensor palati, situated between the hook-like process of the sphenoid bone and the tendon of that muscle

4. A bursa of the sterno hyoideus muscle, situated between the os hyoides and larvnx.

About the Shoulder joint

1. The external acromial, situated under the acromion, between the coracoid process, deltoid muscle, and capsular liga-

2. The internal acromial, situated above the tendon of the infra-spinatus and teres major: it often communicates with the

former.

3. The coracoid bursa, situated near the root of the coracoid process: it is sometimes double and sometimes triple.

4. The clavicua r bursa, found where the clavicle touches the coracoid process.

5. The subclavian bursa, between the tendon of the subclavicularis muscle and the first rib.

6. The coraco-brachial, placed between the common origin of this muscle and the

biceps, and the capsular ligament.

7 The bursa of the pectoralis major, situated under the head of the humerus, between the internal surface of the tendon of that muscle and another bursa placed on the long head of the biceps.

8 An external bursa of the teres major, under the head of the os humeri, between it and the tendon of the teres major.

9. In internal bursa of the teres major, found within the muscle where the fibres of its tendon diverge.

10. A bursa of the latissimus dorsi, between the tendon of this muscle and the os humeri.

11. The humero-bicipital bursa, in the vagina of the tendon of the biceps.

There are other bursæ mucosæ about the humerus, but their situation is uncertain.

Near the Elbox-joint.

1. The radio-bicipita, situated between

the tendon of the biceps, brachialis, and anterior tubercle of the radius.

2. The cubito-radial, between the tendon of the biceps, supinator brevis, and the ligament common to the radius and ulna.

3. The anconeal bursa, between the olccranon and tendon of the anconeus muscle,

4. The capitule radial bursu, between the tendon common to the extensor carpi radialis brevis, and extensor communis digitorum and round head of the radius. There are occasionally other bursæ, but as their situation varies, they are omitted.

About the inferior part of the Fore-arm and

On the inside of the Wrist and Hand.

1. A very large bursa, for the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus.

2. Four short burse on the fore-part of

the tendons of the flexor sublimis

3. A large bursa behind the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus, between it and the fore-part of the radius, capsular ligament of the wrist and os trapezium

- 4. Alarge bursa behind the tendons of the flexor digitorum profundus, and on the fore-part of the end of the radius, and forepart of the capsular ligament of the wrist. In some subjects it communicates with the former.
- 5. An oblong bursa between the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis and os trapc-
- 6. A very small bursa between the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris and os pisiforme.

On the back part of the Wrist and Hand.

7. A bursa between the tendon of the abductor pollicis longus and the radius.

8. A large bursa between the two extensores carpi radiales.

9. Another below it, common to the ex-

tensores carpi radiales. 10. A bursa, at the insertion of the ten-

don of the extensor carpi radialis.

11. An oblong bursa, for the tendon of the extensor policies longus, and which communicates with 9.

12. A bursa, for the tendon of the extensor pollicis longus, between it and the metacarpal bone of the thumb

13. A bursa between the tendons of the extensor of the forc, middle, and ring fingers.

14. A bursa for the extensors of the lit-, tle finger

15. .1 bursa between the tendon of the extensor carpi ulnaris and ligament of the wrist.

There are also bursæ mucosæ between the musculi lumbricales and interessei.

Near the Hip joint. On the forc-part of the joint.

1. The ileo-puberal, situated between the iliacus internus, psoas magnus, and the capsular ligament of the head and the femur.

2. The pectincal, between the tendon of the pectineus and the thigh bone.

3. . A small bursa of the gluteus medius muscle, situated between it and the great trochanter, before the inscrtion of the py-

4. Abursa of the gluteus minimus muscle between its tendon and the great tro-

5. The gluteo fascial, between the gluteus maximus and vastus externus.

On the posterior part of the Hip joint. 6. The tubero ischiatic bursa, situated between the obturator internus muscle, the posterior spine of the ichium, and its tu-

7. The obturatory bursa, which is oblong, and found between the obturator intermus and gemini muscles, and the capsular ligament.

8. A bursa of the semi membranosus, under its origin and the long head of the bi-

ceps femoris.

9 The gluteo-trochanteral bursa, situated between the tendon of the psoas muscle and the root of the great trochanter.

10. Two gluteo-femoral bursa, situated between the tendon of the gluteus maxi-

mus and os femoris.

11. A bursa of the quadratus femoris, situated between it and the little trochanter.

12. The iliac bursa, situated between the tendon of the iliacus internus and the little trochanter.

Near the Knec-joint.

1. The supra genual, which adheres to the tendons of the vastus and cruralis and the fore part of the thigh-bone.

The infra genual bursa, situated under the ligament of the patella, and often com-

municating with the above.

3 The anterior genual, placed between the tendon of the sartorius, gracilis and semitendinosus and the internal and lateral ligament of the knee.

4. The posterior genual, which is some-times double, and is situated between the tendons of the semi-membranosus, the internal head of the gastrocnemius, the capsular ligament, and internal condyle.

5. The popliteal, conspicuous between the tendon of that muscle, the external condyle of the femur, the semilunar cartilage,

and external condyle of the tibia.

6. The bursa of the biceps cruris, between the external part of the tendon, the biceps cruris, and the external lateral ligament of the knec.

In the Foot.

On the back, side, and hind part of the Foot. 1. A bursa of the tibialis anticus, between its tendon, the lower part of the tibia, and capsular ligament of the ankle.

2. A bursa between the tendon of the extensor pollicis pedis longus, the tibia and

capsular ligament of the ankle

3. A bursa of the extensor digitorum communis, between its tendons, the tibia, and ligament of the ankle.

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4. A large bursa, common to the tendons of the peronei muscles.

5. I bursa of the peroneus brevis, proper

to its rendon

6. The calcaneal bursa, between the tendo Achillis and os calcis.

In the Sole of the Foot.

1. A bursa for the tendon of the peroneus

longus.

2. A bursa common to the tendon of the flexor pollicis pedis-longus, and the tendon of the flexor digitorum pedis communis longus profundus.

3. A bursa of the tibialis posticus, between its tendon, the tibia, and astragalus

4. Five bursæ for the flexor tendons, which begin a little above the first-joint of each toe, and extend to the root of the third phalanx, or insertion of the tendons.

BURSALIS MUSCULUS. (From its resemblance to a bursa, or purse.) See Obtu-

rator externus et internus.

BUSELINUM. (From &s, great, and os-

Bussii spinitus, Bezoandicus. The bezoardic spirit of Bussius, an eminent physician at Dresden. A distillation of ivory, sal-ammoniac, amber, &c.

Butchersbroom. See Ruscus.

BUTIGA. A synonym for gutta rosacea. BUTINO. Turpentine.

BUTTER. (Butyrum: from \$25, cow, and rugos, congulum, or cream.) concrete and soft substance, of a yellow colour, approaching more or less to that of gold, and of a mild, agreeable taste. It melts by a gentle heat, and becomes solid by cooling. Fresh butter is nourishing, and relaxing, but it readily becomes sour, and, in general, agrees with few stomachs. Rancid butter is one of the most unwholesome and indigestible of all food.

Butter-bur. See Petasites. See Ranunculus. Butter-flower.

The thin and sour milk BUTTER-MILK. which is separated from the cream by churning it into butter.

See Pinguicula. Butterwort. BUTTA. Sec Pariera brava. BUTYRUM. See Butter.

BUTTRUM ANTIMONIL. See Murias an-

BUXTON WATERS. Buxtonienses aque. Warm mineral springs, which rise in the village of Buxton, in Derbyshire. They have been long celebrated for their medicinal properties With respect to sensible properties, the Buxton water can-not be distinguished from common spring water, when heated to the same temperature. Its temperature in the gentleman's bath, is invariably 82°. The principal peculiarity in the appearance of this spring, is a large quantity of elastic vapour, that rises and forms bubbles, which pass through the water, and break as soon as they reach the surface. The air of these bubbles was ascertained, by Dr. Pearson, to consist of azotic gas, mixed with a small proportion of atmospheric air. Buxton water is frequently employed, both internally and externally; one of which methods often prove beneficial, when the other would be injurious; but, as a bath alone, it, virtues may not be superior to those of tepid common water. As the temperature of 82° is several degrees below that of the human body, a slight shock of cold is felt on the first immersion into the bath; but this is almost immediately succeeded by a pleasant glow over the whole system. therefore proper for very delicate and irritable habits. The cases which derive most benefit from the external use of Buxton waters, are those in which a loss of action, and sometimes of sensation, affects particular limbs, in consequence of long continued or violent inflammation, or external injury. Hence the chronic rheumatism, succeeding the acute, and where the inflammation has been seated in particular limbs, is often wonderfully relieved by this bath The internal use of the water has been found to be of considerable service in symptoms of defective digestion, and de-rangement of the alimentary organs. A judicious use of this simple remedy, will often relieve the heartburn, flatule cy, and sickness; it will increase the appetite, animate the spirits, and improve the health. At first, however, it sometimes occasions a diarrhæa, which is rather salutary than detrimental; but costiveness is a more usual effect, especially in sluggish habits. It also affords great relief when taken internally, in painful disorders of the bladders and kidneys; and has likewise been recommended in cases of gout; but when taken for these complaints, the addition of some aromatic tincture is recommended. In all cases of active inflammation, the use of these waters should be carefully avoided, on account of their supposed heating properties. A full course consists of two glasses, each containing one-third of a pint, before breakfast; which quantity should be repeated between breakfast and dinner. In chronic cases a long residence on the spot is requisite to ensure the desired ef-

BUXUS. (From wuxazw, to become

hard.) The box tree.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Monoecia. Order, Triandria.

2 The pharmacopæial name of the Buxus sempervirens of Linnaus, possess a very strong nauseous, bitter taste, and aperient virtues. They are occasionally exhibited, in form of decoction, amongst the lower orders of people, in cases of dropsy and astlima, and worms. As much as will lay

upon a shilling, of the common dwarf box, dried and powdered, may be given at bedtime, every night, to an infant.

BUXUS SEMPERVIRENS. The systematic name of the buxus of the pharmacopæias.

See Buxus.

BYARUS. A plexus of blood vessels in the brain.

Byng A Chinese name for green tea. BYRETHRUM. (Beretta, Ital. or barette, Fr. a cap ) Byrethrus An odoriferous cap, filled with cephalic drugs, for the head.

BYRSA. (Bugoa, leather.) A leather

skin, to spread plaisters upon.

BYSAUCHEN. (From Bow, to hide, and αυχην, the neck.) Morbid stiffness of the neck.

Brssus. (Heb.) A woolly kind of moss. Pudendum muliebre. A kind of

fine linen.

BYTHOS. (Βυθος, deep.) An epithet used by Hypocrates for the bottom of the stomach.

(From Bow, to rush together.) BYZEN. In a heap; throngingly. Hippocrates uses this word to express the hurry in which the mensus flow in an excessive discharge.

), In the Chemical alphabet, means nitre.

CAA-APIA. (Indian.) A Brazil root, which, chewed, has nearly the effects of ipecacuanha. It is the Dorstenia Brasiliensis of Wildenow. The Brasilians cure the wounds from poisoned darts with the juice of this root, which they pour into the

CAA-ATAYA. (Indian.) A bitter plant of Brazil, very powerfully cathartic and emetic. It resembles the cuphrasia. Ray.

CAACICA. (Indian.) A Brazilian herb applied in cataplasms against venemous bites; called also colubrina Lusitanica.

CAACO. The name of a species of sensitive plant, whose root is used by the natives of America as an antidote to several

poisons.

Senecio Brasiliensis. CAAETIMAY. decoction of the plant thus called, is used as a wash to cure the itch. Its systematic. name is unknown. Ray.

(Indian.) CAAGHIYUYO Frutex baccifer Brasiliensis. A shrub of Brazil, whose leaves are applied to ulcers, as de

siccative.

CAA-OPIA. (Indian.) Arbuscula gummifera Brasiliensis. Hypericum bacciferum of modern naturalists. The name of a tree in the Brazils, whose bark emits a juice, when wounded, which, in a dried state, resembles gamboge, except that it is rather of a darker colour.

CAAPEBA. See Pareira brava.

CAAPONGA. (Indian.) The Brasilian name for crithmum; also called Trifolia spica. Crithmum marinum non spinosum. Inula crithmoides of Linnaus The leaves and young stalks are pickled for the use of the table, they are gently diuretic.

CAAROBA. (Indian) The name of a tree which grows in the Brazils. coction of its leaves promotes perspiration, and is given in the cure of the venereal disease. Ray.

CABALISTICA ARS. Cabala. Cabula. Kabala. The cabalistic art. It is derived from the Hebrew word, signifying to receive by tradition. It is a term that hath been anciently used, in a very mysterious sense, amongst divines; and since, some enthusiastic philosophers and chemists have transplanted it into medicine, importing by it somewhat magical: but such unmeaning terms are now justly rejected.

Caballine aloes. See Aloes. Cabbage. See Brassica.

Cabbage-bark tree. See Cortex Geoffrea Jamaicensis.

Cabbalistic art. See Cabalistica ars. CABUREIBA. Caburiiba. A name of the Balsamum Peruvianum. Ray thinks it

is the tree which affords that balsam, CACAGOGA. (From nann, excrement, and aya, to expel.) Cathartics. Ointments which, being rubbed on the funda. ment, procure stools, according to Paulus Ægineta.

CACALIA. (From RERSY, bad, and RIZY, exceedingly; because it is mischievous to the soil on which it grows. (Cacamum. The herb wild chervil, or wild carraways,

formerly said to be pectoral.

CACAMOTICTLANO QUILONI. (Indian.) Batatas peregrina. The purging potatoc. CACAMUM. See Cocalia.

CACAO, Cacoa, Cocoa. Cacavifera. Quahoil. Cacata. The cocoa or chocolate nut of Virginia and Jamaica.

CACAPHONIA (From RARGE, bad, and φωνη, the voice.) Defective articula-

CACARI. See Cacao.

CACATORIA FEBRIS. (From caco, to go to stool.) An epithet given by Sylvius to a kind of intermittent fever, attended with copious stools.

A sort of pill recom-CACCIONDE. mended by Baglivi against dyscnteries;

its basis is catechu.

CACHEXIA. (From acros, bad, and (s, a habit.) A bad habit of body, known by a depraved or vitiated state of the solids and fluids.

CACHEALE. A class of diseases in Cullen's nosology, embracing three orders, viz. marcores, intumescentia, and impetigines.

The fluor albus CACHENIA CTERINA.

is sometimes so called.

The jaundice, CACHEXIA ICTERICA. or a disposition thereto.

CACHLAN. The bathalmum verim.

CACHLEX. A little stone, or pebble. Galen says, that he cachileces, heated in the fire and quenened in whey, become astringents and useful in dysenteries.

CACHINNATIO. (From cadinno, to laugh atoud.) A tendency to namoderate laughter, as in some hysteric and maniacal affections.

CACHORE A name for catechi.

Cacnos. (Indian.) A shrub which the Indians use as a diurctic, and to expel con-

cretions from the kidneys.

CACHUNDE. A medicing highly celebrated among the Chinese and Indians, made of several aromatic ingridients, perfumes, medicinal earths, and precious stones. They make the whole into a stiff paste, and form out of it several figures, according to their fancy, which are dried for use. These are principally used in the East Indies, but are sometimes brought over to Portugal. In China the principal persons usually carry a small piece in their mouths, which is a continued cordial, and gives their breath a very sweet smell. is highly esteemed as a medicine in nervous complaints; and it is reckoned a prolonger of life, and a provocative to venery; the two great intentions of most of the medicines used in the East.

Galen says it sometimes CACHRYS. means parched barley. In Linnaus's botany, it is the name of a genus of which he

enumerates three species.

A plant, the CACHRYS ODONTALGICA. root of which may be substituted for that of the pyrethrum.

CACHYMIA. (Kanumia.) An imperfect metal, or an immature metalline ore, ac-

cording to Paracelsus.

CACOALEXITERIUM. (From nance, bad, and antidote and antidote to poison or infectious diseases. Alexiphar-

CACOCOLIA. (From waxos, and woxos, bile.) An indisposition, or disease of the

CACOCHYLIA. (From xxxoc, bad, and xuxn, the chyle. Indigestion or depraved chy-

CACOCHYMIA. (From nance, bad, and xumor, junce, or humour ) A diseased or depraved state of the humours.

CACOUNEMUS. (From MEROS, bad, and uvnun, the leg.) Having a natural defect in the tibia.

CACOCOREMA. (From RERES, bad, and xogea, to purge, or cleanse.) A medicine which purges off the viciated humours.

(From nance, bad, and CACOD EMON. Samon, a spirit.) An evil spirit, or genius, which was supposed to preside over the bodies of men, and afflict them with certain d.sorders The night-mare.

CACODIA. (From MANOS, bad, and aga, to smell.) A defect in the sense of smelling.

CACOETHES. (From REROS, Ill, and EBOC, a word which when applied to diseases, signifies a quality, or a disposition.) Hippocrates applied this word to malignant and difficult distempers. Galen and some others, express by it an incurable ulcer, that is rendered so through the acrimony of the humours flowing to it. Linhaus and Vegel use this term much in the same sense with Galen, and describe the ulcer as superficial spreading, weeping, and with callous edges.

(From Manos, bad, and CACOPATHIA. maθos, affection.) An ill affection of the

body, or part.

(From nanos, bad, and CACOPHONIA. payn, the voice.) A defect in the organs of speech; a bad pronunciation.

CACOPRAGIA. (From nanos, bad, wearlω, to perform.) Diseased chylopoietic

viscera.

(From nance, bad, and CACOURYTHMUS. gυθμος, order ) A disordered pulse.
CAUOSIS. (From κακος, bad.) A bad

disposition of body.

CACOSTIA. (From MANOS, and food.) An aversion to food, or nausea. CACOSPHYXIA. (From MUROS, bad, and σφυξις, pulse.) A disorder of the pulse.

CACOSTOMACHES. (From REXES, bad, and somaxor, the stomach.) A bad or disordered stomach; also food which the stomach rejects.

CACOSTOMUS. (From nanos, bad, and soura, a mouth.) Having a bad formed, or

disordered mouth.

CACOTHYMIA. (From RARCE, ill, and Sothe mind; or a diseased mind.

CACOTROPAIA. (From MANOS, ill, and 1964, nutriment.) A vitiated nourishτροφη, nutriment.) ment; a wasting of the body, through a defect of nutrition.

CACTUS. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæau system. Icosandria. Order, Monogynia. The melonthistle.

CACTUS OPENTIA. The systematic name of the plant bearing the epithet · opuntia in the pharmacopæias. See Opuntia.

CACUBALUS. (From REROC, evil, and 3xx. Aa, to cast out; so named because it was thought to be efficacious in expeling poisons.) The berry bearing chickweed. See Cucubalus.

Cacker. The Arabian term for cardamoms.

CACUMEN. The top or point.

CADAVER. (From cado, to fall; because the body, when deprived of life, falls to the ground.) A carcase. A body deprived of life.

CADMIA, (Heb.) Chlimia. Catimia. A name given to the lapis calaminaris. See

Zinc.

CADMIA METALLICA. A name given, by the Germans, to cobalt.

Capuca, (From cado, to fall down.) See Decidua.

Capocus Morbus. (From cado, to fall down.) The epilepsy, or falling sickness.

Charters. (From cacus, blind.) Blind-

ness. See Caligo, and Amaurosis.

C.ECUM From excus, blind. (The excum, or blind gut: so called from its being periorated at one end only. The first portion of the large intestines, placed in the right like region, about four fingers' breadth in length. It is in this intestine that the ileum terminates by a valve, called the valve of the excum. The appendicula caci verniformis is also attached to it. See Intestines.

Caenos. (Kaigos.) Hippocrates, by this word, means the opportunity or moment in which whatever is to be effected should

be done

C.ESARIAN OPERATION. (So called because Julius Casar is said to have been extracted in this manner.) Hysterotomia Hysterotomatocia. The operation for extracting the factus from the uterus, by dividing the integuments of the abdomen

and the uterus.

There are three cases in which this operation may be necessary.-1. When the fœtus is perceived to be alive, and the mother dies, either in labour or in the last two months. 2. When the fœtus is dead, but cannot be delivered in the usual way, from the deformity of the mother, or the disproportionate size of the child. 3. When both the mother and the child are living, but delivery cannot take place, from the same causes as in the second instance. Both the mother and the child, if accounts can be credited, have often lived after the Cresarian operation, and the mother even borne children afterwards. Heister gives a relation of such success, in his Institutes of Surgery, and others. In England, the Cæsarian operation has almost always failed. Mr. James Barlow, of Charley, Lancashire, succeeded, however, in taking a fætus out of the uterus by this bold proceeding, and the mother was perfectly restored to health.

CESARES. Casones. Children who are brought into the world by the Casarian operation.

CETCHU. See Catechu.

CAF. (Arab.) Cafa. Caffa. A name given by the Arabs to camphire.

CAGASTRUM. A babarous term used by

Paracelus, to express the morbific matter

which generates diseases.

CAJAN Cayan. The Phaseolus creticus of Linnaus A decoction of the leaves restrains the henorrhoids when excessive. Ray.

CAJEPUT OIL. Oleum cajeputie. Oleum Vittnebianum. Oleum volatile melaleucæ. Oleum, cajeput. The tree which affords this oil, by distillation of its leaves, was supposed to be the Melaleuca leucadendron of Unnæus, but it appears from the specimen of the tree producing the true oil, sent home from India, by Mr. Christopher Snith, that it is another species which is therefore named Melaleuca cujupiti. Thunberg says cajeput oil has the appearance of inflammable spirit, is of a green colour, and so completely volatile, that it evaporates entirely, leaving no residum; its odour of the camphoraceous kind, with a terebinthinate admixture Goetz says it is limpid, or rather yellowish. It is a very powerful medicine, and in high esteem in India and Germany, in the character of a general remedy in chronic and painful diseases; it is used for the same purposes for which we employ the officinal æthers, to which it seems to have a considerable affinity; the cajeput, however, is more potent and pungent; taken into the stomach, in the dose of five or six drops, it heats and stimulates the whole system, proving, at the same time, a very certain diaphoretic, by which probably the good effects, it is said to have in dropsies and intermittent fevers, are to be explained. For its efficacy in various convulsive and spasmodic complaints, it is highly esteemed It has also been used both internally and externally, with much advantage, in several other obstinate disorders; as palsies, hypochondriacal and hysterical affections, deafness, defective vision, tooth ache, gout, rheumatism, &c. The dose is from two to six, or even twelve

CALABA. The Indian mastich-tree. Cataphyllum inophyllum of Linnzus, a native of America, accounted vulnerary, resolvent and anodyne.

CALAGUALE RADIX. Calaguele radix. The root so called is knotty, and somewhat like that of the polypody tribe. It has been exhibited internally at Rome, with success, in dropsy; and it is said to be efficacious in pleurisy, contusions, absecses, &c. It was first used in America, where it is obtained; and Italian physicians have since written concerning it, in terms of approbation.

CALAMAGROSTIS. (From καλαμος, a reed, and αγζωσις, a sort of grass.) Sheer grass. Reed grass.

CALAMBAC. (Indian.) The agallochum, or aromatic aloe.

CALAMACORUS, Indian reed.

CALAMEDON. (From zahaus, a reed.)

A sort of fracture which runs along the bone, in a straight line, like a reed, but is

lunated in the extremity

CALAMINA PRÆPARATA. Prepared calamine. Burn the calamine, and reduce it to powder; then let it be brought into the state of a very fine powder, in the same manner that chalk is directed to be prepared. Sec Calamine.

CALAMINE. (From calamus, a reed; so called from its reed-like appearance.) Cadmia. Cathmia. Cadmia lapidosa erosa. Cadmia fossilis. Calamina. Lapis calaminaris An ore of zinc. A sort of stone, or mineral, containing zinc and carbonic acid, united with a portion of iron, and sometimes other substances. It is very heavy, moderately hard and brittle, of a gray, vellowish, red, or blackish brown; found in quarries of considerable extent, in several parts of Europe, and particularly in this country, in Derbyshire, Gloucestershire. Nottinghamshire, and Somersetshire; as also in Wales. The calamine of England is, by the best judges, allowed to be superior in quality to that of most other countries. It seldom lies very deep, being chiefly found in clayey grounds, near the surface. In some places it is mixed with lead ores. This mineral, or semimetal, is an article in the materia medica: but, before it comes to the shops, it is usually roasted, or calcined, to separate some arsenical or sulphurcous particles which, in its crude state, it is supposed to contain, and in order to render it more easily reducible into a fine powder. In this state, it is employed in collyria, for weak eyes, for promoting the cicatrization of ulcers, and healing excoriations of the skin. It is the basis of an officinal cerate, called Ceratum calaminæ, by the London College, formerly called ceratum lapidis calammaris. ceratum epuloticum; and ceratum car-bon's zinci impuri by the Edinburgh College. These compositions form the cerate which Turner strongly recommends for healing ulcerations and excoriations, and which have been popularly distinguished by his name. The collyria in which the prepared calamine has been employed, have consisted simply of that substance added to rose-water, or elder-flower water.

Calamint, common. See Calamintha. Calamint, mountain. See Calamintha

magno flore

CALAMINTHA. (From καλος, beautiful, or καλαμος, a reed, and μινθη, mint.) Common calamint. Calamintha montana. Calamintha vulgaris. Calamintha officinarum Melissa calamintha of Linnaus :peduncules axillaribus, dichotomis, longitudine foliorum. This plant smells strongly, like wild mint, though more agreeable; and is often used by the common people, in form of tea, against weakness of the

stomach, flatulent colic, uterine obstructions, hysteria, &c.

CALAMINTHA ANGLICA. Field calamint. Spotted calamint. Calamintha odore. Nepeta agrestis. It is the Melissa nepeta of Linnaus. It was formerly used as an aromatic.

CALAMINTHA HUMILIOR. The ground-ivy. CALAMINTHA MAGNO FLORE. Calamintha montana. Mountain calamint. This plant, Melissa grandiflora of Linnæus, has a moderately pungent taste, and a more agreeable aromatic smell than the common calamint, and appears to be more eligible as a stomachic.

CALAMINTHA MONTANA. See Calamin-

CALAMUS. A word of Arabian derivation.

1. A general name denoting the stalk of any plant. .

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Hexandria.

der, Monogynia.

AROMATICUS. CALAMUS (From kalam, Arab.) Acorus verus. Calamus Calamus vulgaris. odoratus. Jacerantatinga. Typha aromatica. Clava rugosa. Sweet-flag or acorus. Acorus calanus scapi mucrone longissimo foliaceo of Linnæus. The root of this plant has been long employed medicinally. It has a moderately strong aromatic smell, and a warm, pungent, bitterish taste; and is deemed useful as a warm stomachic. Powdered, and mixed with some absorbent, it forms a useful and pleasant dentifice.

CALAMUS AHOMATICUS ASIATICUS.

Acorus calamus of Linnæus.

CALAMUS ODORATUS. See Calamus aromaticus.

CALAMUS HOTANG. The systematic name of the plant from which we obtain the Dragon's blood. See Sanguis draconis.

CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS. A kind of canal at the bottom of the fourth ventricle of the brain, so called from its resemblance to a writing pen.

CALAMUS VULGARIS. See Calamus aro. maticus.

CALATHIANA. (From xxxx8000, a twig basket; so called from the shape of its flowers.) The herb marsh-gentian, or Gentiana pneumonanthe of Linnxus.

Calbianum. The name of a plaister in

Myrepsus.

Vitriol. CALCADINUM.

CALCADIS. An Arabian name for white vitrol and alkali.

CALCANEUM. (From calx, the heel.) Calcar pterna. Os calcis. The largest bone of the tarsus, which forms the heel. It is situated posteriorly under the astragalus, is very regular, and divided into a body and processes. It has a large tuberosity or knob, projecting behind to form the heel. A sinuous cavity, at its fore part

which in the fresh subject is filled with fat, and gives origin to several ligaments. Two prominences, at the inner and fore part of the bone, with a pit between them, for the articulation of the under and fore part of the astragulus. A depression, in the external surface of the bone near its forepart, where the tendon of the peronaus longus runs. A large cavity, at the inner sid of the bone, for lodging the long flexors of the toes, together with the vessels and nerves of the sole. There are two prominences, at the under and back part of this bone, that give origin to the aponeurosis and several muscles of the sole. The anterior surface of the os calcis is concave, fot its articulation with the os cuboides, and it is articulated to the astragulus by ligaments.

CALCANTHUM. (From xannos, brass, and aisos, a flower; i. e. flowers of brass.) Cal-

canthos. Copperas. Vitriol.

CALCAR. (From calx, the heel; also from cales, to heat.) The heel-bone; also the furnace of a laboratory.

Calcareous earth See Calx. CALCARIS FLOS. The Larkspur. CALCARIUS LAPIS. Limestone. CALCATAR. A name for vitriol.

CALCATON. White arsenic. Troches of arsenic.

See Consolida media. CALCATRIPPA.

Calcenonius. CALCENA. Calcetus. racelsus uses these words to express the tartarous matter in the blood; or that the blood is impregnated with tartarous principles.

CALCES, METALLIC. Metals which have undergone the process of calcination, or combustion; or any other equivalent ope-

ration.

CALCEUM EQUINUM. (From calceus, a shoe, and equus, a horse; so called from the figure of its leaf.) The herb tussilago, or colt's foot.

CALCUTTUEOS. (From RANXIOV, purple.)

Verdigrise.

CALCHOIDES. (From ZZAIZ, a chalk-stone, and edge, form.) Calchoidea ossicula. A name of the cuneiform bones.

CALCIBICIUM. The name of a medicine

in which arsenic is an ingredient.

CALCIFRAGA. (From calx, a stone, and frango, to break; so named from its supposed property of breaking the human calculus.) Breakstone. The herb spleenwort, or scolopendrium, in Scribonius

Largus.

CALCINATION. Oxydation. The fixed residues of such matters as have undergone combustion are called cinders, in common language, and calces, but now more commonly oxyds, by chymists; and the operation, when considered with regard to these residues, is termed calcination. In this general way, it has likewise been applied to bodies not really combustible, but only

deprived of some of their principles by heat. Thus we hear of the calcination of chalk, to convert it into lime by driving off its carbonic acid and water; of gypsum, or plaster stone, of alum, of borax, and other saline bodies, by which they are deprived of their water of crystallization; of bones which lose their volatile parts by this treatment, and of various other bodies.

CALCINATUM. Cinificatum. Terms appli-

cable to calcined substances.

CALCINATUM MAJUS. It is whatsoever is dulcified by the chymical art, which was not so by nature; such as dulcified mercury, lead, and the like substances, which are very speedily consolidated.

CALCINATUM MAJUS POTERII. Mercury dissolved in aqua-fortis, and precipitated with salt water. Poterius used it in the

cure of ulcers.

CALCINATUM MINUS. Any thing which is sweet by nature, and speedily cures, as sugar, manna, tamarinds &c.

CALCINONIA. See Calcena.

CALCIS AQUA. See Liquor calcis. CALCIS VIVI FLORES. The pellicle on lime

CALCIS OS. See Calcaneum.

CALCITARI. Alkaline salt.

Vitriol. CALCITEA.

CALCITEOSA. Litharge.

CALCITHOS. Verdigrise.

CALCITRAPA. Carduus stellatus. Jacea ramocissima, stellata, rupina Common star-thistle. Star-knapweed. The plant thus called in the pharmacopæias, is the Centaurea calcitrapa of Linnaus :- calycibus sub. duplicato-spinosis, sessilibus : foliis pinnatifidis, linearibus dentatis; canle piloso; every part of which is bitter. The juice, or extract, or infusion, are said to cure intermittents, and the bark of the root, and the seeds, have been recommended in nephritic disorders, and in suppression of urine. It scarcely differs, in its effects, from other bitters, and is now little used.

CALCITRAPA OFFICINALIS. Carduus stel-Carduus solstitialis. latus lutea. stellata Jacea lutea capite spinosa minori. Leucanthe veterum. St. Barnaby's thistle. The Centaurea solstitialis of Linnaus. commended as an anticteric, anti-cachectic, and lithontriptic, but is, in reality only a

weak tonic.

CALCITREA. Vitriol.

CALCOIDEA OSSICULA. The cuneiform bones.

CALCOTAR. Vitriol.

CALCULIFRAGUS. (From calculus, a stone, and frango, to break.) Having the power to break calculi, or stones in the human body.

A synonym of lithontriptic. See Li-

thoutriptics.

2. A name sometimes applied to scolopendrium, or the pimpernel, from its supposed virtue.

CALCULUS. (Dim. of calx, a limestone.) Calculus humanus. Bezoar microcosmicum. Gravel. Stone. In English we understand by gravel, small sandlike concretions, or stones, which pass from the kidneys through the ureters in a few days; and by stone, a calculous concretion in the kidneys or bladder, of too large a size to pass, without great difficulty. Similar concretions are found occasionally in other cavities, or passages. When a disposition to form minute calculi or gravel exists, we often find nephritic paroxysms, as they are called, (see Nephritis,) which consist of pain in the back, shooting down through the pelvis to the thighs; sometimes a numbness in one leg, and a retraction of either testicle in men, symptoms arising from the irritation of a stone passing through the urcters, as these cross the spermatic cord, on the nerves passing to the lower extremities. These pains, often violent, are terminated by the painful discharge of small stones through the urethra, and the patient is for a time easy. What, however, is meant by the stone is a more serious and violent disease. It is singular that these discharges of small gravel do not usually terminate in stone. M ny have experienced them during a long life, without any more serious inconvenience: while the latter is a disease chiefly of the young, and depending on circumstances not easily explained. If the stone attacks persons more advanced in age, it is often the consequence of paroxysms of gout, long protracted, and terminating imperfectly.

When once a stone has acquired a moderate size, it usually oceasions the following symptoms .- frequent inclination to make water, excessive pain in voiding it drop by drop, and sometimes a sudden stoppage of it, if discharged in a stream; after making water, great torture in the glans penis, which lasts one, two, or three minutes; and in most constitutions, the violent straining makes the rectum cortract and expel its excrements; or, if it be empty, occasions a tenesmus, which is sometimes accompanied with a prolapsus blood, from a rupture of the vessels, and sometimes pure blond itself is discharged. Sometimes the urine is very clear, but fiesediment deposited at the bottom of it, which is only a preternatural separation of the mucilage of the bladder, but has often been mistaken for pus. The stone is a disease to which both sexes and all ages are liable; and calculi have even been found in the bladders of very young children, pay of infants only six months old.

Women seem less subject to this complaint than men, either owing to constitutional causes, or to the capaciousness, shortness, and straightness of their urethra, allowing the calculi to be discharged while small, together with the urine.

Chymical analysis of urinary calculi.

It is only since the time of Scheele that we have become acquainted with the nature of urmary calculi, this subject having been quite in the dark before that great chymist discovered, in the year 1776, a peculiar acid (the lithic acid) in them, and at the same time found them to contain no lime, a circumstance which was soon after confirmed by the experiments of Bergman. From this period the chymists bestowed a particular attention upon the examination of urinary concrements, as appears from the writings of Dobson, Percival, Falconer, Achard, Hartenkeit, Tychsen, Link, Titius, Wal-ther, Gariner, Brugnatelli, Pearson, and several others, some of whom confirmed the discovery of Scheele, while others contradicted, and others enlarged it.

But we are particularly indebted to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, who, since 1786, had turned their attention on this subject, for having made many experiments, by which great light is thrown on the nature of urinary concrements. The following are the interesting results of their chymical in-

quiries.

The Seat and Physical Properties of Urinary Calculi.

Calculi are found in different parts of the urinary system, in the pelvis of the kidney, in the ureters, in the bladder and irrethra: but as they, for the most part, originate in the kidney, the calculi renales make the nucleus of the greatest number of urinary stones. The calculi renales differ greatly with respect to their external qualities; for the most part, however, they consist of small, concrete, roundish, smooth, glossy, and crystalline bodies, of a red-vellow colour, like that of wood, and so hard as to admit of polishing. On account of their minuteness, they easily pass through the urinary passages in form of gravel, which being sometimes of a rough surface, cause several complemts on their passage. But in some instances they are of too great a size to be able to pass along the ureters; in which case they increase in the kilners, sometimes to a great size. Calculi renales of this kind are generally of a brown, dark red, or black colour, and surrounded with several stra'a of coagulated blood and pus; they have also been observed of a vellow, reddish, and lighter colour; and some con isting of a homogen, ous stony mass; but white or grey calculi renales are very rarely to be met with Am ngst the great number that were exan ried one or two only were found of a gration blockish colour, and a composition similar to those which generally bear the name of mulherry-like stones.

The stones in the ureters, which on passingle to the freters, we prevented by their size from descending into the bladder, frequently increase very much; they, however, rarely occur; their colour is white, and they consist of phosphat of lime.

The stones in the bladder are the most frequent urinary concrements that have been principally examined; they draw their first origin from the kidneys, whence they descend into the bladder, where they increase; or they immediately originate and increase in the bladder; or they arise from a foreign body that by chance has got into the bladder, which not unfrequently happens, particularly in the female sex. Concretions of this kind differ greatly in their respective physical qualities and external form, which, however, is generally spherical, oval, or compressed on both sides; and sometimes, when there are several stones in the bladder, they have a polyedrous or cubical form; their extremities are frequently pointed or roundish, but they are very seldom found cylindrical, and more rarely with cylinders at their ends.

There is a great variety in the size of the calculi, and likewise in their colour, which is materially different, according to their respective nature and composition. They occur, 1. of a yellowish colour, approaching nearly to red, or brown; such stones consist of lithic acid. 2. Gray, or more or less white; these stones always contain phosphats of earths. 3. Dark gray, or blackish; stones of this colour oxalats of earths. Many stones shew brown or gray spots, on a yellow or white ground, generally raised on the surface, and consisting of oxalat of lime, which is enclosed in lithic acid, when the ground-colour of the stone is of a wood colour, or in phosphat of lime, when it is white. These spots are, in general, only to be observed in the middle of the stone, or at one of its extremities.

All that is here stated, is the result of observations on more than 600 calculi; and different other colours, that are said to have been observed, either arise from heterogeneous substances, or are merely variations of the above colours. Their surface is smooth and polished in some, in others only smooth, and in others uneven, and covered with rough or smooth corpuscles, which are always of a yellow colour; in some, the surface is partly smooth and partly rough. The white ones are frequently even and smooth, half transparent, and covered with shining crystals, that generally indicate phosphat of ammonia with tale; or they are faint, and consist of minute grains; or rough, in which case they consist of phosphat of lime. The brown and dark gray stones are, from their similarity to mulberries, called mulberrystones, and being frequently very rugged, they cause the moat pain of all.

On examining the specific weight of urinary calculi in more than 500 specimens, it was found to be, in the lightest, 1213:1000,

in the heaviest, as 1976:1000. Their smell is partly strong, like urine or ammonia, partly insipid, and terreous; especially, the white ones, which are like sawed avory or rasped bone.

The internal texture of calculi is but seldom guessed from their external appearance, particularly when they exceed the size of a pigeon's egg. On breaking them, they generally separate into two or three strata, more or less thick and even, which prove that they are formed by different precipitations, at different times. In the middle, a nucleus is generally seen, of the same mass as the rest. When the place they are broken at is finely streaked, and of a yellow or reddish colour, the lithic acid predominates; but when they are half transparent, luminous like spar, they have ammoniacal magnesia in them, and phosphat of lime and then they are brittle and friable; but when they are so hard as to resist the instrument, of a smooth surface, and a smell like ivory, they contain saccharic lime. It frequently happens, that the exterior stratum consists of white phosphat of earth, while the nucleus is yellow lithic acid, or oxalat of lime, covered sometimes with a yellow stratum of lithic acid, in which case the nucleus appears radiant; but when it consists of lithic acid, and is covered with white phosphate of earth, it is roundish, oval, and somewhat crooked. These concretions have very seldom three strata; namely, on the outside a phosphat of salt, towards the inside lithic acid, and quite withinside an oxalat of lime; but still rarer these substances occur in more strata, or in another order, as before-mentioned.

Stones of the urethra are seldom generated in the urethra itself; however, there are instances of their having been formed in the fossa navicularis, by means of foreign bodies that have got into the urethra. We also very frequently observe stony concrements deposited between the glans and prepuce. All the concretions produced in the inside and outside the urethra consist of phosphats of earths, which are easily precipitated from the urine. There are likewise stones in the urethra, which have come out of the bladder, having been produced there, or in the kidneys; and they generally possess the properties of stones of the kidneys.

The different constituent Particles of Urinary Calculi.

It has been mentioned before, that Scheele found a peculiar acid in the urinary concretions, and likewise that phosphat of lime was discovered in them. The identity of the lithic acid, however, was much doubted by modern chymists, particularly by Dr. Pearson, who asserted that it was merely an oxyd, whereby he gave rise to the discoveries which Fourcroy and Vauquelin have since made on this subject, because they were induced to repeat the ex-

periments, in order to examine whether the lithic acid were really an acid. Their endcavours were fully rewarded, as they not only found the lithic acid and phosphat of lime in the different calculi, but also five other substances, viz. the lithat of ammonia, oxalat of lime, siliceous earth, phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia, and an animal matter.

1. Of the Lithic or Uric Acid. The acid discovered by Mr. Scheele, in the urinary concretions, was styled lithic acid; or, according to Dr. Pearson's Researches, uric acid, which, after Scheele, has the following properties. It is insipid, without smell, hard, crystallizable, not soluble in cold water, and in boiling water only in several thousand times greater The solution, after having bequantity. come cool, deposits the acid in form of minute yellow needles, easily soluble in the lie of fixed alkalis, out of which, however, it is precipitated by all acids, even the carbonic acid, except the sulphuric and muriatic acid, which have no effect on it. Concentrated nitric acid, on dissolving it, obtains a red colour. On distilling the lithic acid, it yields a small quantity of sublimed, undecomposed acid, very little oil and water crystallized carbonat of ammonia, carbonic acid, and a very black coal, which, however, contains neither alkalı nor lime. Besides these properties, it possesses still others. On rubbing it with concentrated lie of kali or natron, it immediately forms a saponaceous, thick, and pulpy mass, which is very soluble in water, when supersaturated with alkali, but little soluble when only saturated with it. The saturated combinations have little taste, are not crystallizable, and when diluted with water, the muriatic acid precipitates the uric acid in form of small needle-like, shining, somewhat yellowish crystals. Ammonia receives very little of it, which combination is almost quite indissoluble. Lime-water has likewise very little effect on it, and the carbonats of alkalis none at all. On being dissolved in nitrio acid, a part of the lithic acid is changed into oxalic acid. The red colour which appears after this combination, is said to prove, according to Pearson. that substance to be merely an oxyd, but it arises from a peculiar animal matter. When oxygenated muriatic acid is brought in contact with lithic acid, the colour of it grows pale, it puffs up, becomes soft and gelatinous, and at last obtains the consistency of a milky liquor; from which process only ouc-sixtieth of a white, light animal substance remains, and a quantity of carbonic acid evolves itself under continual slow effervescence. The liquor yields muriat of ammonia, oxalat of ammonia, both in crystals, free muriatic and malic acid; consequently the oxygenated muriatic acid separates the uric acid into ammonia, carbonic acid, oxalic acid, and malic acid, whereby we observe that the oxygenated muria-

tic acid changes the uric acid, first into ammonia and malic acid, but on the addition of more acid, into oxalic acid; and when still more acid is added, into water and carbonic acid. The remaining white substance is the same, from which the red colour originates that appears on the combination of the uric acid with nitric acid, and which imparts the cubical form to the muriat of ammonia, obtained by the evaporation of the liquor. It remains now to be stated what is observed in the distillation of that acid, by which it yields, not only carbonat of ammonia, but also car-bonic gas, very little oil, Prussic acid, partly in form of gas, partly in fluid form, a considerable quantity of coal that contains no salt, and a little water. The productions thus obtained have the smell of bitter almonds. The results of these inquiries manifestly shew, that the lithic acid is really a distinct acid from all others, consisting of azote, carbon, hydrogen, and oxy-This peculiar acid is an excrementitions substance, which is carried off by the urine, and, at the forming of calculi, combines itself with a coloured animal matter, from which also it probably originates by a process still unknown.

2. Of the Lithat of Ammonia.

This substance seems to have been unknown before, or at least not properly discerned from the uric acid; and, though Scheele has observed it, he was ignorant of its particular nature. It is easily to be distinguished, by the small even strata in which it is formed, by its colour, that looks like milk colonred with coffec, and by its forming but small calculi. It dissolves in the lees of kali and natron like the lithic acid, but with the characteristic difference that it discharges ammonia, a phenomenon already observed by Scheele. It is more soluble in cold as well as warm water, than the lithic acid. It is in the same way affected by acids, except that a greater quantity is required for changing it. It is generally mixed with phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia, because it seems only to take place after a sufficient quantity of ammoniacal magnesia has been formed, to saturate the phosphat of kali and the free uric acid.

3. Of the Phosphat of Lime.

The existence of this substance had hitherto been but inaccurately determined, every substance which was not lithic acid being formerly comprised by the name of phosphat of lime. It occurs in small friable strata, which break in scales, or splints, of a grey white colour, and are faint, opaque, without any smell or taste, and crystallized in aluminous or spar-like form; instead of strata, it is frequently composed of friable grains, that slightly cohere, and has many holes and pores, like a spongy texture. It never forms a calculus by itself, being in a calculus always united with

exposing it to a strong heat, and burns to coal, exhaling the odour of burned bones : and yields water, oil, carbonat of ammonia, and a carbonaceous residuum. Being calcined white, it only leaves lime, and phosphat of lime, without any water of crystallization. It is not soluble in cold water, but in boiling water a part of its gelatine dissolves, spreading an animal odour. All acids, except the boracic and carbonic acid, dissolve it, leaving on the bottom of the vessels transparent spots of animal matter. These solutions are all precipitated by alkalis, but without any decomposition, the precipitation remaining phosphat of lime. On treating the phosphat of lime with concentrated nitric acid, a thick pulpy mass of acid sulphat and phosphat of lime will be obtained, on which pure alkalis, as well as carbonat of alkalis, have no effect. We never could find acid phosphat of lime, as Brugnatelli pretends to have observed.

4. Of the Phosphat of Ammoniacal Magnesia.

It consists of scaly, half-transparent, hard, and coherent strata; can be sawed without crumbling, and reduced to a fine, soft and white powder. It is of a sweetish insipid taste, somewhat soluble, and crystallized in rhomboids, or thick liminas, dispersed in the cavities of other calculous substances; and it is frequently found on the surface of other calculi. It contains, betwixt its strata, a gelatinous substance; but less than the phosphat of lime on which account it also blackens by being heated. Though it be but little soluble in water, yet it dissolves in such a quantity as to be capable of crystallizing by slow evaporation. Acids dissolve it more quickly than they do the phosphat of lime. Weak suiphuric acid entirely dissolves it, forming sulphat of ammoniacal magnesia. In diluted muriatic or nitric acid, it disappears more quickly than phosphat of lime. Ammonia, by which that salt is made turbid, only precipitates small particles of magnesia. The lees of fixed alkalis discngage from it ammonia, without forming with it a solution; and, depriving it of the phosphoric acid, Icave the magnesia behind.

5. Of the Oxalat of Lime.

It is, according to our observations, only found in the mulberry-like calculi, in combination with a coloured animal matter, and consist of strata covered with pointed, roundish, rough or smooth protuberances; outside it appears of a dark or brown colour, but internally it is grey, frequently with white streaks, of a solid texture, and may be polished like ivory; it breaks in scales, or in the shape of shells; and, on being pounded, or sawed, it exhales an animal odour, like semen. It is the heaviest

an animal gelatmous matter; on account of of all calculous substances, and the only which circumstance it becomes black by one which yields one-third of lime by calcination. It dissolves with difficulty in acids and is precipitated unaltered by alkalis from nitric acid. The fixed alkalis decompose it when they are impregnated with carbonic acid, and when it is pulverized, and the solution heated, whereby carbonat of lime and oxalat of alkalis are obtained.

The great quantity of animal matter which constantly adheres to this oxalat of lime is very characteristic, it imparts the brown, reddish, blackish colour to the above kind of stones, and likewise the fine and solid texture. This substance may be obtained by putting small pieces of these stones into diluted nitric acid, whereby it appears of the same colour, and becomes soft and spongy. The great hardness of this kind of calculous substance, most probably arises from the intimate connexion of its particles, produced by the combination of the oxalat of lime with animall matter, in the same way as lime obtains a great degree of solidity by its combination with albuminous matter, of which, and of a peculiar matter of urine, that animal substance seems to consist.

6. Of the Siliceous Earth.

Amongst 600 calculi that were examined, there were only two which contained this earth; both had the texture of mulberry-like stones, though of a lighter colour, and by being calcined, lost one-third of their weight, without giving free-lime; heated with acids they lost nothing, but when melted with four times as much of alkali, they yielded siliceous earth by being treated with muriatic acid. They contained phosphat of lime, and an animal matter similar to that which is united with the oxalat of lime. They were hard, difficult to be sawed and pulverized, and the powder made scratches in metal. On being burnt, they emit an animal odour; they imparted nothing to the boiling water, and to the acids a little phosphat of lime. which difficultly scparates from the siliceous earth. Alkalis, either pure, or combined with carbonic acid, did not affect them, merely depriving them of a part of their animal matter. Their essential character consists in their being fusible and vitrifiable with fixed alkalis.

7. Of the Animal Matter.

All the six substances just examined, which constitute the urinary calculi of the human species, are always combined with an animal matter, as appears from its being burnt to coal from the productions yields by distillation, from its stench on being burnt, and from the cellulous membranous floccula which remain when pieces of calculi are dissolved in diluted acids. This animal matter has been frequently, and with good reason, considered as the basis of all urinary concretions, like as in boncs

the gelatinous matter, the first basis of the ber and thickness, and are frequently of a bones, forms an organic texture, in the insmooth surface. The specific weight of terstices of which the phosphat of lime is deposited. It is very remarkable, that the different constituary particles of urmary calculi arc combined with a dissimilar animal matter, which are sometimes albuminous, sometimes gelatinous, sometimes composed of both, and frequently united with the matter of urine. Thus the litnic acid, or the lithat of ammonia, contains a third of albuminous matter, combined with the matter of urine, the phosphats of earths, albuminous matter, gelatine in form of membranes, and laminas, or tela cellulosa; the oxalat of lime, a spongy, yet more solid texture, of the colour of albumen, and the siliceous earth, a similar substance. On the whole, the animal matter seems to unite and join together all the acid and salme particles of urinary concretions.

The Classification of Urinary Stones.

The old classification of urinary calculi, made according to their figure and their size, cannot at present, where we have acquired so accurate a knowledge of their internal nature, be retained, as they ought rather to be classed according to their constituent particles; however, no regard is to be had to the animal matter, as being found in all urinary concretions, and having no influence on their respective difference. On comparing the results of the analyses of more than 600 stones, Fourcroy was induced to bring them under three genera; the first of which comprehends such stones as are merely composed of one substance, besides the animal matter; the second contains urinary concretions, consisting of two substances, besides the animal matter; and the third comprises all those which are formed by more than three cal-culous substances. These three genera comprehend about twelve species, namely, the first genns three, the second seven, and the third two; but it must be remembered that the number of the genera, as well as of the species, is determined after the observations hitherto made, and may consequently be increased in future.

1. The first species of urinary concrethis kind most frequently occur, as there were, amongst 600, about 150. They are easily distinguished by their reddish or high yellow colour, much resembling that of wood, by their brittle, radiant-like, homogeneous, and fine texture, and by their perfect solubility in the lies of fixed alkalis, without disengaging the smell of ammonia. Their size varies from the bigness of a pea to that of a duck's egg, &c. and their figure is roundish, spheroid, compressed, oval, oblong, &c. the surface polished like marble, but frequently rough and watry; of a crimson light red, yellowish, light brown colour, but never white, gray, or black; their strata differ in num- crystals of phosphat of ammoniacal mag-

these stones is from 1,276, to 1,786, but generally more than 1,500. The urinary concretions in the kidneys are mostly of

this species.

2. The second species is composed of lithate of ammonia, and differs from the former by disengaging aminonia on their being dissolved in the lies of fixed alkalis. Concretions of this kind are generally small, of a pale or gray colour, and consist of fine strata, easily separable from each other; they mostly contain a nucleus, which is easily separated from the strata that cover it. Their figure is generally oblong, compressed like almonds, and of a smooth surface, which is frequently crystalline. Their specific weight varies from 1,225 to 1,720. They are entirely soluble in water, particularly when previously pulverized. All acids, principally the muriatic acid, deprive them of the ammonia, leaving the pure lithic acid behind. They are frequently found covered with a thin stratum of lithic acid. Amongst 600 calculi there were but few of this kind.

3. The third species, consisting of oxalat of lime, are easily to be distinguished by the protuberances and inequality of their surface, whence they have got the appella-tion of mulberry-like stones; by their hardness, gray colour, solid texture, their polish like ivory, in the inside, and their particular smell on being sawed, which resembles that of semen. A peculiar characteristic, which distinguishes them from all others, consists in their leaving lime after the calciantion, in their being with difficulty soluble in acids and not soluble in alkalis, and, at last, in their being only decomposed by the lees of carbonats of alkali. They weigh from 1,428 to 1,976, and their size varies from that of a calculus renalis to the bigness of an egg, or more; their figure is generally spherical or spheroid They often make the nucleus of other stones, in which case they belong to another species. In 300 stones they bore the proportion of one-fourth or one-fifth.

4. Stones of this species contain lithic acid and phosphat of earth, but in a separate state. Their surface is white, cretaceous, brittle, and half transparent, as it either consists of phosphat of lime, or of phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia, the kernel being formed by lithic acid; thus both constituents are exactly separate from each other. They were found in the proportion of one-twelfth amongst the stones that were examined, and they grow bigger than any of the rest, as they appear from she size of an egg to that of the whole bladder, even when extended. They generally have an oval form, often pointed at one end, of a smooth surface, which, however, is frequently covered with nesia. Sometimes the lithic acid in the middle is alternately covered with phosphat of lime, and phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia. The specific weight of these stones

is extremely variable.

5. The fifth species of calculi contains, likewise, lithic acid and phosphats of earth, but intimately mixed with each other. Of these stones a great many varieties are observed, depending on the proportionable quantity of their constituent particles, as well as on the strata in which they lie above one another. The chief constituents, the phosphats of earths, are separated in different strata, but sometimes so intimately mixed with each other, that it is impossible to distinguish them with the eye; and the analysis could only shew their difference. From this circumstance arise the variety in the colour, figure, and number of the strata. The colour, however, is generally gray, but frequently variegated like marble, sometimes like soap. Their figure is irregular, oval, or globular, and the surface mostly brittle, cretaceous, or whitish, as to make us believe that they only consist of phosphat of lime. The polyedrous stones generally belong to this species, when they have the appearance of being worn away by rubbing. They make about one fifth of the stones that were examined. Their specific weight varies extremely, the least being 1,213, the greatest 1,739.

6. This species is constituted by lithat of ammonia and phosphat of earth, i. e. of lime and ammoniacal magnesia; and resembles in its external appearances the fourth species. One of the constituents, generally the lithat of ammonia, makes the nucleus, while a mixture of the two others, but rarely one by itself, forms the crust. Sometimes, however, the nucleus contains also the phosphats, and the crust a little lithat of ammonia, which, even in some varieties, is mixed with pure lithic The strata in stones of this kind are more easily separable, and always smaller than those of the fourth species. Their specific weight is 1,312 to 1,761; and they are more rarely met with than most of the rest. Amongst 600 there were only twenty

of this kind,

7. Stones of the seventh species consist likewise of lithat of animonia and phosphat of earths, but intimately mixed with each other. They are of a paler colour, much lighter than the first species, and disengage a great deal of aminonia on their being treated with kali. We found them only in the proportion of one-fortieth amongst the stones which we have analysed. They never grow so large as the two former.

8. The constituent particles of the eighth species are phosphat of lime and phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia. The pure white colour, the friability, their being insoluble in alkalis, and their easy solubility even in

weak acids, constitute the chief characteristics of this sort of stones, of which about 60 were found amongst 600: sometimes they are of an enormous size, of irregular form, rarely round, but frequently of an uneven surface, and resembling an incrustation. Their texture is formed of white brittle strata, sometimes interwoven with solid half-transparent crystals of ammoniacal magnesia. The crusts formed on foreign bodies that happened to penetrate into the bladder, belong to this species; the specific weight of which is 1,138 to 1,473.

9. This species of calculi contains oxalat of lime, but externally uric acid, in more or less quantity, and are only to be distinguished by the nucleus from the first species. The proportion of both constituents, and the specific weight, vary extremely, the latter being 1,341 to 1,754. Sometimes the nucleus, consisting of oxalat of lime, is only covered on one side with uric acid, and discernible on the other by protuberances with which the surface is variegated; which variety, however, seldom occurs.

10. Stones of this species have, in their centre, oxalat of lime, surrounded by phosphat of earths; the kernel is gray, or brown, and radiant-like, the crust white and cretaceous; their size and figure differ extremely, and their specific weight is from 1,168 to 1,752. They amount to one-fifth of the 600 stones that were examined.

11. This species contains stones composed of three or four calculous substances, namely, of oxalat of kali, phosphat of earths, and of uric acid, either pure or combined with ammonia. They rarely occur; and amongst 600 stones only ten or twelve were observed. They often consist of three distinct strata, viz. in the interior, of oxalat of lime; in the middle of lithat of ammonia; and the exterior, of phosphats of earths, which are frequently mixed with uric acid or lithat of ammonia, all which are distinguished on their being sawed through. This, species comprehends three varieties; the first of which consists of oxalat of lime, uric acid, and phosphats of earths; the second contains lithat of ammonia, combined with pure uric acid, and the two other constituents; the third has, besides these two substances, free uric acid and lithat of ammonia, mixed with the phosphats of earths. We forbear to mention other varieties of this species, as being less remarkable and instructive.

12. The last species of calculi is of a very complicated composition. The siliccous earth acems to have taken the place of the oxalat of lime; it is mixed with uric acid and lithat of ammonia, and covered by phosphats of earths. Stones of this kind are the rarest of all, and there were only

two amongst 600.

The Causes of the Generation of Urinary Calculi.

To inquire into the causes by which

which urinary concretions are produced, is both interesting and useful, however attended with the greatest difficulties. The writings of medical authors are full of conjectures and hypotheses with regard to this subject, on which nothing could be ascertained before we had acquired an aecurate knowledge of the nature of urinary conerctions. It is owing to this circumstance that the most enlightened physicians aequiesced in ascribing the immediate cause of them to a superabundance of terreous matter in the urine; and Boerhaave, as well as, particularly, Van Swieten, imagined that the urine of all men contained calculous matter in the natural state, and that, for the generation of stones, a nucleus was only required, to attract it. That this may be the case, in some instances, is proved by frequent experience; but stones produced by foreign bodies, that have accidentally got into the urethra or bladder, are always white and eomposed of phosphat of earths, and seldom or never covered with lithie acid, a substance which is observed to form the stones that most frequently occur; but even in these the nucleus consists of a substance formed in the body itself, as a partiele descended from the kidneys, &c. which must, therefore, have necessarily originated in a peculiar internal cause. A superabundance of uric acid in stony patients, and its more eopious generation than in a sound state, though it seems to be one of the principal and most certain causes, is by no means satisfactory, as it only explains the precipitation of stony matter from the urine, but not why it unites in strata. A coagulating substance is required for separating, attracting, and, as it were, agglutinating the condensible partieles that are precipitated. This substance is undoubtedly the animal matter which we have constantly found in all calculous masses, and which seems to constitute the basis of stones, like the membranous gelatina that of bones. It is known that the urine of calculous patients is generally muddy, duetile, in threads, slimy, and as if mixed with albumen, which quality it obtains at the moment when the ammonia is disengaged, or on the addition of kali that separates it from the acid in which it was dissolved; and in all eases of superabundance of lithic acid the urine contains a great quantity of that animal matter, which promotes the precipitation of it, and attracts and unites the partieles thus separated. Hence it appears, that every thing capable of increasing the quantity of that pituitous gluten in the urine, may be eonsidered as the remote cause of the formation of ealeuli. And the old ideas on pituitous temperaments, or superahundant pituita,&e.whieli were thought to dispose people to a calculus, seems to be connected with the late discoveries on the nature of urinary stones. Though the animal matter appears

to be different in different calculi, yet it is eertain, that every calculous substance contains an animal gluten, from which its concrete and solid state arises; whence we may fairly state the superabundance of that substance as the chief and principal cause of the formation of calculi.

There are, however, other eauses which seem to have a particular influence on the nature of urmary stones, and the strata in which they are formed; but it is extremely difficult to penetrate and to explain them. We are, for instance, entirely ignorant of the manner in which urmary stones are formed from the oxalat of lime; though, from their occurring more frequently in children than in adults, we might be en-titled to ascribe them to a disposition to acor, a cause considered by Boerhaave as the general source of a great number of diseases incident to the infantile age. This opinion seems to be proved by the ideas of Bonhomine, physician at Avignon, on the oxalic or saceharie acid, as the cause of mollities ossium in the rickets; by this acid being discovered in a species of saliva by Brugnatelli; and, lastly, by an observation of Turgais, who found this acid in the urine of a child diseased with worms. We but rarely observe saceharic acid in the human body, which appears to be mostly adventitious, and by which the animal matter is rendered coagulable, and deposited, or precipitated, with the oxalat of lime; or the oxalic acid decomposes the phosphat of lime, and forms an insoluble combination, incapable of being any longer kept dissolved in the urme. It is, however, extremely difficult to determine bow far the constitution of the body is connected with that particular disposition in the nrine, of precipitating sometimes phosphat of lime mixed with oxalat of lime, sometimes phosphat of ammoniacal magnesia, either by itself or mixed with lithie acid, &c. &c. Who can explain the reason why, of 600 stones, there were only two in which siliceous earth could be traced? Still more difficult is it to explain the eauses why the above substances precipitate either at once or in different strata; but it may suffice to have shewn how many observations and experiments are required, and what accurate attention and perseverance are necessary, in order to throw light on so difficult a subject.

CALCULUS BILIARIS. See Gall-stone.

CALDARIUM. (From caleo, to make hot.) A vessel in the baths of the ancients, to hold hot water.

CALEFACIENTS. (Calefacientia, sc. medicamenta: from calidus, warm, and facia, to make. (Medicines, or other substances, which exeite a degree of warmth in the parts to which they are applied; as piper, spiritus vini, &c. They belong to the class of stimulants.

CALENDULA. (Quod singulis calendie,

i. e. mensibus, floreseat; so called because it flowers every month.) Marigold.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Or-

der, Polygamia necessaria.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the Calendula sativa. Chrysanthemum. Sponsa solis. Caltha vulgaris. Single marigold. Garden marigold. The flowers and leaves of this plant, Calendula officinulis of Linnaus:—seminibus cymbiformibus, muricatis, incurvatis omnibus, have been exhibited medicinally: the former, as aperients in uterine obstructions and icteric disorders, and as diaphoretics in exanthematous fevers; the latter, as gentle aperients, and to promote the secretions in general.

CALENDULA ALPINA. The Arnica montana

of Linnaus. See Arnica.

CALENDULA ARVENSIS. The wild marigold. The Caltha arvensis of Linnæus. It is sometimes preferred to the former. Its juice is given, from one to four ounces, in jaundice and cachexia; and the leaves are commended as a salad for children afflicted with scrophulous tumours.

CALENDULA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the single marigold plant. See

Calendula.

CALENDULA PALUSTRIS. The Caltha palustris of Linnæus. Common single marsh marigold. It is said to be caustic and deleterious: but this may be questioned.

CALENTURE. A febrile delirium, said to be peculiar to sailors, wherein they imagine the sea to be green fields, and will throw themselves into it if not restrained. Bonetus gives an account of it; also Dr. Oliver and Dr. Stubbs. It is probably a species of phrenitis.

CALESIUM. (Indian.) A tree which grows in Malabar, whose bark, made into an ointment with butter, cures coavulsions from wounds, and heals ulcers. The juice of the bark cures the aphthæ, and, taken

inwardly, the dysentery. Ray.

CALL. (Arab.) The same as kali.
CALIGHAPA. The spina alba, or white-

CALIDUM. In medical language, it is commonly used with the adjective animale, or innatum, for animal heat, or the vis vita.

Caliera. (From καλιπς, a nest, which it somewhat resembles.) Calliette. A fungus

growing on the juniper-tree.

CALIGO. A disease of the cye, known by diminished or destroyed sight; and by the interposition of a dark body between the object and the retina. It is arranged by Cullen in the class locales, and order dysæsthesiæ. The species of caligo are distinguished according to the situation of the interposed body: thus caligo lentis, caligo corneæ, caligo pupillæ, caligo lumorum, and caligo palpebrarum.

CALIGO LENTIS. Glaucoma Woulhousi.

The true cataract. See Cuturact.

CALIGO CORNER. An opacity of the cornea.

Califo Pupillæ. Synchysis. Amyosis. Blindness from obstruction in the pupil, See Caligo.

Caligo humorum. Glaucoma Vogelii. Blindness from a fault in the humours of

the eye. See Caligo.

Caligo Palpebrarum. Blindness from a disorder in the eyelids. See Caligo.

CALIHACHA. The cassia-lignea, or cassiatree of Malabat.

CALIMIA. The lapis calaminaris.

CALIX. (Calix, icis, m.; from  $\varkappa \omega \lambda \upsilon \pi^{\gamma} \omega$ , to cover.) Calyx.

1. The term calix is given to the membrane which covers the papillæ in the

pelvis of the human kidney.

2. The name of the case, or sheath, in which the flower of plants is concealed before it expands.

CALLEUM. (From καλλυνω, to adorn.) Calleon. The gills of a cock, which, Galen says, is food not to be praised or condemned.

Callena. A kind of salt-petre. Call. Nodes in the gout. Galen.

CALLIA. (From READS, beautiful.) A name of the chamomile.

Calliblephara. (From καλος, good, and βλεφαξον, the eyelid.) Medicines, or compositions, appropriated to the eyelids.

CALLICREAS. (From \*\*2005, good, and \*\*xgett, meat; so named from its delicacy as food.) The pancreas, or sweetbread.

Calligonum. (From \*\*\*\rightarrows, beautiful, and \( \gamma \) or joint; so named from its being handsomely jointed, like a cane.) The polygonum, or knot-grass.

Calliomarchus. The Gaulish name, in

Marcellus Empiricus, for tussilago, or

colt's foot.

CALLION. A kind of night-shade.

Callistruthia. (From καλος, good, and 5guθος, a sparrow: because it was said to fatten sparrows.) A fig mentioned by

Pliny, of a good taste.

CALLITRIUM. (From \*\*maxhos\*, beauty, and 3gg, hair; so named because it has the appearance of long, beautiful hair, or, according to Littleton, because it nourishes the hair, and makes it beautiful.) The herb maidenhair.

CALLONE. (From \*\*Acce, fair.) Hippocrates uses this word, to signify that decency and gravity of character and deportment which it is necessary that all medical men should be possessed of.

CALLOSITAS. Callosity, or preterna-

tural hardness.

CALLOUS. A surgical term, signifying hardened or indurated; thus the callous edges of ulcers.

CALLUS. Callum.

1. The bony matter deposited between the divided ends of broken bones, about the fourteenth day after the fracture.

2. A preternatural hardness, or indura-

tion, of any fleshy parts

CALOCATANUS. (From READS, heautiful, and READSON, a cup; so called from the beauty of its flower and shape.) The papaver rheas, or wild poppy.

CALOMELANOS TURQUETI. So Riverius calls a purgative medicine, composed of

calomel and scammony.

CALOMELAS. (From καλος, good, and μελας, black; from its virtues and colour. The preparation called Æthiop's mineral, or hydrargyrus cum sulphure, was formerly and properly so named. But calomel now means a white preparation of sublimed mercury.) See Submurias hydrargyru.

CALORIC. (Caloricum; from calor,

heat.) Heat. Igneous fluid.

Heat and cold are perceptions of which we acquire the ideas from the senses; they indicate only a certain state in which we find ourselves independent of any exterior object. But as these sensations are for the most part produced by bodies around us, we consider them as causes, and judging by appearances, we apply the terms hot, or cold, to the substances themselves; calling those bodies hot, which produce in us the sensation of heat, and those cold, which communicate the contrary sensation.

This ambiguity, though of little consequence in the common affairs of human life, has led unavoidably to confusion and perplexity in philosophical discussions. It was to prevent this, that the framers of the new nomenclature adopted the word caloric, which denotes that which produces

the sensation of heat.

Theories of Heat.

Two opinions have long divided the philosophical world concerning the nature of heat.

1. The one is: that the cause which produces the sensation of heat, is a real, or distinct substance, universally pervading nature, penetrating the particles or pores of all bodies, with more or less facility, and in different quantities.

This substance, if applied to our system in a greater proportion than it already contains, warms it, as we call it, or produces the sensation of heat; and hence it

lias been called caloric or calorific.

2. The other theory concerning heat is; that the cause which produces that sensation, is not a separate or self-existing substance; but that it is merely like gravity, a property of matter; and that it consists in a specific or peculiar motion, or vibration of the particles of bodies.

The arguments in favour of the first theory have been principally deduced from the evolution, and absorption of heat

during chemical combinations; those of the latter, are chiefly founded on the production of heat by friction. For it has been observed, that whatever is capable of producing motion in the particles of any mass of matter, excites heat. Count Rumford and Professor Davy have paid uncommon attention to this fact, and proved, that heat continues to be evolved from a body subjected to friction, so long as it is applied, and the texture or form of the body be not altered.

All the effects of heat, according to this theory, depend therefore entirely on the vibratory motion of the particles of bodies. According as this is more or less intense, a higher or lower temperature is produced; and as it predominates over—is nearly equal—or inferior to the attraction of cohesion, bodies exist in the gaseous, fluid,

or solid state.

Different bodies are susceptible of it in different degrees, and receive and communicate it with different celerity. From the generation, communication and abstraction of this repulsive motion, under these laws, all the phenomena ascribed to heat are explicable.

Each of these theories has been supported by the most able philosophers, and given occasion to the most important disputes in which chemists have been engaged; and have contributed in a very particular manner to the advancement of the science. The obscurity of the subject, however, is such, that both parties have been able to advance the most plausible arguments.

Setting aside all enquiries concerning the merits of these different doctrines, we shall confine ourselves to the general effects, which heat produces on different bodies. For the phenomena which heat presents, and their relation to each other, may be investigated with sufficient precision, though the materiality, or immateriality or it, may remain unknown to us.

Nature of Heat.

Those who consider heat as matter, assert that caloric exists in two states, namely, in combination, and in a radiant state,

or at liberty.

In the first state it is not sensible to our organs, nor indicated by the thermometer: it forms a constituent part of the body; but it may be brought back to the state of radiant or sensible heat. In this state it affects animals with the sensation of heat. It therefore has been called sensible or free heat, or fire; and is synonymous with uncombined caloric, thermometrical caloric, caloric of temperature, interposed caloric, &c. expressions now pretty generally superseded.

From the diversity of opinions among chemists respecting the nature of caloric, several other expressions have been intro-

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duced, which it is proper to notice. For instance, by specific heat is understood, the relative quantities of caloric contained in equal weights of different bodies at the same temperature. Latent heat is the expression used to denote that quantity of caloric which a body absorbs when changing in its form. It is, however, more properly called caloric of fluidity. The disposition, or property, by which different bodies contain certain quantities of caloric, at any temperature, is termed their capacity for heat. By the expression of absolute heat, is understood the whole quantity of caloric which any body contains.

Methods of exciting and collecting Heat.
Of the different methods of exciting heat,
the following are the most usual:

1. Production of Heat by Percussion or Collision.

This method of producing heat is the simplest, and therefore it is generally made use of in the common purposes of life for

obtaining fire.

When a piece of hardened steel is struck with a flint, some particles of the metal are scraped away from the mass, and so violent is the heat which follows the stroke, that it melts and vitrifies them. If the fragments of steel are caught upon paper, and viewed with a microscope, most of them will be found perfect spherules, and very highly polished. Their sphericity demonstrates that they have been in a fluid state, and the polish upon their surface, shews them to be vitrified.

No heat, however, has been observed to follow the percussion of liquids, nor of the softer kind of bodies which yield to a

slight impulse.

2. Production of Heat by Friction.

Heat may likewise be excited by mere friction. This practice is still retained in some parts of the world. The natives of New Holland are said to produce fire in this manner, with great facility, and spread it in a wonderful manner. For that purpose, they take two pieces of dry wood; one is a stick, about eight or nine inches long, and the other piece is flat; the stick they point into an obtuse point at one end, and pressing it upon the other piece, they turn it very nimbly, by holding it between both hands, as we do a chocolate-mill, often shifting their hands up, and then moving down upon it, in order to increase the pressure as much as possible. By this method, they get fire in a few minutes, and from the smallest spark they increase it with great speed and dexterity.

If the irons at the axis of a coach-wheel are applied to each other, without the interposition of some unctuous matter to keep them from immediate contact, they will become so hot when the carriage runs swiftly along, as to set the wood on fire; and the fore-wheels, being smallest, and

making most revolutions in a given time, will be most in danger.

The same will happen to mill-work, or

to any other machinery.

It is no uncommon practice in this country, for blacksmiths to use a plate of iron as an extemporaneous substitute for a tinderbox; for it may be hammered on an anvil till it becomes red-hot, and will fire a brimstone match. A strong man, who strikes quick, and keeps turning the iron so that both sides may be equally exposed to the force of the hammer, will perform this in less time than would be expected.

If, in the coldest season, one dense iron plate be laid on another, and pressed to gether by a weight, and then rubbed upon each other by reciprocal motions, they will gradually grow so hot as, in a short time, to emit sparks, and at last become ig-

nited.

It is not necessary that the substances should be very hard; a cord rubbed backwards and forwards swiftly against a post

or a tree will take fire.

Count Rumford and Professor Pictet have made some very ingenious and valuable experiments concerning the heat evolved by friction.

3. Production of Heat by Chemical Action.

To this belongs the heat produced by combustion. There are, besides this, many chemical processes wherein rapid chemical action takes place, accompanied with a developement of heat, or fire and flame.

4. Solar Heat.

It is well known that the solar rays, when collected by a mirror, or lens, into a focus, produce the most astonishing effects.

Dr. Herschell has discovered that there are rays emitted from the sun, which have not the power of illuminating or producing vision; and that these are the rays which produce the heat of the solar light.

Consequently, heat is emitted from the sun in rays, but these rays are not the same

with the rays of light.

5. Production of Heat by the Electric Spark, and by Galvanism.

The effects of electricity are too well known in this point of view, to need any description

description.

Galvanism has of late become a powerful instrument for the purpose of exciting heat. Not only easily inflammable substances, such as phosphorus, sulphur, &c. have been fired, but likewise gold, silver, copper, tin, and the rest of the metals, have been burnt by means of galvanism.

General Effects of Heat.

Expansive property of Heat.—This is the first and most obvious effect which heat produces on bodies. Experience has taught us that, at all times, when bodies become loot, they increase in bulk. The bodies experience a dilatation which is greater in proportion to the accumulation of caloric,

or, in other words, to the intensity of the heat. This is a general law, which holds good as long as the bodies have suffered no change either in their combination or in the quantity of their chemical principles.

This power which heat possesses, consists, therefore, in a constant tendency to separate the particles of bodies. Hence philosophers consider heat as the repulsive power which acts upon all bodies whatever, and which is in constant opposition to the power of attraction.

The phenomena which result from these mutual actions, scem, as it were, the secret

mutual actions, seem, as it were, the secret springs of nature. Heat, however, does not expand all bodies equally, and we are still ignorant of the laws which it follows.

1. Expansion of Fluid Bodies by Heat.

Take a glass globe, with a long slender neck (called a bolt head); fill it up to the neck with water, ardent spirit, or any other fluid which may be coloured with red or black ink, in order to be more visible, and then immerse the globe of the instrument in a vessel of hot water; the included fluid will instantly begin to mount into the neck. If it be taken out of the water and brought near the fire, it will ascend more and more, in proportion as it becomes heated; but upon removing it from the source of heat, it will sink again: a clear proof that caloric dilates it, so as to make it occupy more space when hot than when cold. These experiments may, therefore, serve as a demonstration that heat expands fluid bodies.

It appears that liquids of the least density expand most, with the same temperature. Thus hydrogen gas dilates more with the same degree of heat than atmospheric air; atmospheric air more than sulphuric ether; ether more than ardent spirit; ardent spirit more than oil; oil more than water; water more than acids, and acids more than mercury. But if we compare the periods of time necessary for each fluid to acquire the maximum of rarefaction it is susceptible of, there is no law

to guide us yet known.

2. Expansion of Aëriform Bodies by Heat. Take a bladder partly filled with air, take a bladder partly filled with air, to prevent the inclosed air from escaping, and let it be held near a fire. The air will soon begin to occupy more space, and the bladder will become gradually distended; on continuing the expansion of the air, by increasing the heat, the bladder will burst with a lond report.

3. Expansion of Solid Bodies by Heat. If we take a bar of iron, six inches long, and put it into a fire till it becomes redulot; and then measure it in this state accurately, it will be found 1-20th of an inch longer than it was before; that is, about 120th part of the whole. That the metal is proportionally expanded in

breadth, will be seen by trying to pass it through an aperture which it fitted exactly when cold, but which will not admit it when red hot. The bar is, therefore, increased in length and diameter.

To discover the minutest changes of expansion by heat, and the relative proportions thereof, instruments have been contrived, called *Pyrometers*, the sensibility of which is so delicate as to shew the expansion from 1-50000 to 1-100000 of an inch.

It is owing to this expansion of metals, that the motion of time-pieces is rendered crroneous; but the ingenuity of artists has discovered methods of obviating this inaccuracy, by employing the greater expansion of one metal to counteract the expansion of another; this is effected in what is called the grid-iron pendulum. Upon the same principle a particular construction of watches has been contrived.

The expansion of metals is likewise one

The expansion of metals is likewise one of the principal reasons that clocks and watches vary in winter and summer, when worn in the pocket, or exposed to the open air, or when carried into a hotter or a colder climate. For the number of the vibrations of the pendulum are always in the sub-duplicate ratio of its length, and as the length is changed by heat and cold, the times of vibration will be also changed. The quantity of alteration, when considered in a single vibration, is exceedingly small, but when they are often repeated, it will be very sensible. An alteration of one-thousandth part in the time of a single vibration of a pendulum which beats seconds, will make a change of eighty-six whole vibrations in twenty-four hours.

As different metals expand differently with the same degree of heat; such musical instruments, therefore, whose parts are to maintain a constant true proportion, should never be strung with different metals. It is on this account that harpsichords, &c. are out of tune by a change of tempe-

Bodies which are brittle, or which want flexibility, crack or break, if suddenly heated or cooled. This likewise depends upon the expansive force of heat, stretching the surface to which it is applied, while the other parts, not being equally heated, do not expand in the same ratio, and are therefore torn asunder or break. Hence thin vessels stand heat better than thick

ones.

Measurement of Heat.

Upon the expansive property of heat, which we have considered before, is founded its artificial measurement. Various means have been therefore employed to assist the imperfection of our sensations in judging of the different degrees of heat, for our feelings unaided afford but very inaccurate information concerning this matter; they indicate the presence of leat, only when the

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bodies presented to them are hoiter than the actual temperature of our organs of feeling. When those bodies are precisely of the same temperature with our body, which we make the standard of comparison, we then are not sensible of the presence of heat in them. When their temperature is less hot than that of our bodies, their contact gives us what is called the sensation of cold.

The effects of heat upon material bodies in general, which are easily visible to us, afford more precise and determinate indications of the intensity, than can be derived from our feelings alone. The ingenuity of the philosopher and artist has therefore furnished us with instruments for measuring the relative heat or temperature of bodies. These instruments are called Thermometers and Pyrometers. By these, all degrees are measurable, from the slightest, to that of the most intense heat.

1. Nature of the Thermometer.

A thermometer is a hollow tube of glass, hermetically sealed, and blown at one end in the shape of a hollow globe. The bulb and part of the tube are filled with mercury, which is the only fluid which expands equally. When we immerse the bulb of the thermometer in a hot body, the mercury expands, and of course rises in the tube; but when we plunge it into a cold body, the mercury contracts, and of course falls in the tube.

The rising of the mercury indicates, therefore, an increase of heat; its falling, a diminution of it; and the quantity which it rises or falls, denotes the proportion of increase or diminution. To facilitate observation, the tube is divided into a number of equal parts, called degrees.

Further, if we plunge a thermometer ever so often into melting snow or ice, it will always stand at the same point. Hence we learn that snow or ice always begins to

melt at the same temperature.

If we plunge a thermometer repeatedly into water kept boiling, we find that the mercury rises up to a certain point. This is therefore the point at which water always boils, provided the pressure of the atmosphere be the same.

There are four different thermometers used at present in Europe, differing from each other in the number of degrees into which the space between the freezing and boiling points is divided. These are Fahrenheit's, Reaumur's, Celsius's, and Delisle's.

The thermometer uniformly used in Britain, is Fahrenheit's; in this the freezing point is fixed at 32°—the boiling point, at 212° above 0°—or the part at which both the ascending and descending series of numbers commence.

In the thermometer which was first con-

structed by Reaumur, the scale is divided into a smaller number of degrees upon the same length, and contains not more than 80° between the freezing and the boiling points. The freezing point is fixed in this thermometer precisely at 0°, the term between the ascending and the descending series of numbers 100 is the number of the degrees between the freezing and the boiling points in the scale of Celsius; which has been introduced into France, since the revolution, under the name of the Centigrade thermometer; and the freezing point is in this, as in the thermometer of Reaumur, fixed at 0°. One degree on the scale of Fahrenheit, appears, from this account. to be equal to 4.9ths of a degree on that of Reaumur, and to 59ths of a degree on that of Celsius.

The space in Delisle's thermometer between the freezing and boiling points is divided into 150°, but the graduation begins at the boiling point, and increases towards the freezing point. The boiling point is marked 0, the freezing point 150°. Hence  $180 \, \mathrm{F} := 150 \, \mathrm{D}$ , or  $6 \, \mathrm{F} := 5 \, \mathrm{D}$ . To reduce the degrees of Delisle's thermometer under the boiling point to those of Fahrenheit; we have  $F := 212 - 6.5 \, \mathrm{D}$ ; to reduce those above the boiling point  $F := 212 - 6.5 \, \mathrm{D}$ . Upon the knowledge of this proportion it is easy for the student to reduce the degrees of any of these thermometers into the degrees of any other of them.

2. Nature of the Pyrometer.

To measure those higher degrees of heat to which the thermometer cannot be applied, there have been other instruments invented by different philosophers: these are called *pyrometers*. The most celebrated instrument of this kind, and which has been adopted into general use, is that invented by the late ingenious Mr. Wedgwood.

This instrument is also sufficiently sim-It consists of two pieces of brass fixed on a plate, so as to be 6-10ths of an inch asunder at one end, and 3-10ths at the other; a scale is marked upon them, which is divided into 240 equal parts, each 1-10th of an inch; and with this his gauge, are furnished a sufficient number of pieces of baked clay, which must have been prepared in a red heat, and must be of given dimensions. These pieces of clay, thus prepared, are first to be applied cold, to the rule of the gauge, that there may no mistake take place in regard to their dimen-Then any one of them is to be exposed to the heat which is to be measured, till it shall have been completely penetrated by it. It is then removed and applied to the gauge. The difference between its former and its present dimensions, will shew how much it has shrunk; and will consequently indicate to what degree the

intensity of the heat to which it was exposed, amounted.

High temperatures can thus be ascertained with accuracy. Each degree of Wedgwood's pyrometer is equal to 130° of Fah-

Exceptions to the Expansion by Heat.

Philosophers have noticed a few exceptions to the law of heat expanding bodies. For instance; water, when cooled down to the freezing point, instead of contracting on the farther deprivation of heat, actually expands

Another seeming exception is manifested in alumine, or clay; others occur in the case of cast-iron, and various other metals. Alumine contracts on being heated, and cast-iron, bismuth, &c. when fully fused, are more dense than when solid; for, as soon as they become so, they decrease in density, they expand in the act of cooling, and hence the sharpness of figures upon iron which has been cast in moulds, com-

pared to that of other metals.

Some philosophers have persuaded themselves that these exceptions are only apparent, but not really true. They say when water freezes, it assumes a crystalline form, the crystals cross each other and cause numerous vacuities, and thus the ice occupies more space. The same is the case with fused iron, bismuth, and zinc. The contraction of clay is owing to the loss of water, of which it loses a part at every increased degree of temperature hitherto tried; there is therefore a loss of matter; and a reduction of volume must follow.

Mr. Tilloch has published a brief examination of the received doctrines respecting heat and caloric, in which these truths are more fully considered, together with many other interesting facts relative to the re-ceived notions of heat.

Equal Distribution of Heat.

If a number of bodies of different temperatures are placed in contact with each other, they will all at a certain time acquire a temperature, which is the mean temperature of the different substances; the caloric of the hottest body will diffuse itself among those which are heated in a less degree, till they have all acquired a certain temperature. Thus, if a bar of iron which has been made red-hot be kept in the open air, it does not retain the heat which it had received, but becomes gradually colder and colder, till it arrives at the temperature of the bodies in its neighbourhood. On the other hand; if we cool down the iron bar by keeping it for some time covered with snow, and then carry it into a warm room, it does not retain its low temperature, but becomes gradually notter, till it acquires the temperature of the room. It is therefore obvious, that in the one instance the temperature is lowered, and in the other it is raised.

These changes of temperature occupy a

longer or a shorter time, according to the nature of the body, but they always take place at last. This law itself is, indeed, familiar to every one: when we wish to heat a body, we carry it towards the fire; when we wish to cool it, we surround it by cold bodies.

Propagation of Heat.
We have seen, that when bodies of higher temperature than others are brought into contact with each other, the heat is propagated from the first to the second, or the colder body deprives the warmer of its excess of heat.-We shall now see that some bodies do so much more quickly than others. Through some bodies caloric passes with undiminished velocity, through

others its passage is prodigiously retarded.
This disposition of bodies of admitting, under equal circumstances, the refrigeration of a heated body within a shorter or a longer time, is called the power of conducting heat; and a body is said to be a better or worse conductor of heat, as it allows the refrigeration to go on quicker or slower. Those bodies, therefore, which possess the property of letting heat pass with facility, are called good conductors; those through which it passes with difficulty, are called bad conductors, and those through which it does not pass at all, are called non conductors: thus we say, in the common language, some bodies are warm, or capable of preserving warmth; and from this arises the great difference in the sensation excited by different bodics, when applied at the same temperature to our organs of feeling. Hence, if we immerse our hand in mercury, we feel a greater sensation of cold than when we immerse it in water, and a piece of metal appears to be much colder than a piece of wood, though their temperatures, when examined by means of

the thermometer, are precisely the same. It is probable that all solids conduct heat in some degree, though they differ very much in their conducting power. Metals are the best conductors of heat; but the conducting powers of these substances are by no means equal. Stones seem to be the next best conductors. Glass conducts heat very slowly; wood and charcoal still slower; and feathers, silk, wool, and hair, are still worse conductors than any of the substances yet mentioned.

The best conductors of electricity and galvanism are also the best conductors of

Experiment. - Take a number of straight wires, of equal diameters and lengths, but of different metals; for instance, gold, silver, copper, iron, &c.; cover each of them with a thin coat of wax, or tallow, and plunge their extremitics into water, kept boiling, or into melted lead. The melting of the coat of wax will shew that caloric is more quickly transmitted through some metals than others.

It is on this account also, that the end of a glass rod may be kept red-hot for a long time, or even melted, without any inconvenience to the hand which holds the other extremity; though a similar metallic rod, heated in the same manner, would very soon become too hot to be held.

Liquor and Aëriform Bodies convey Heat by an actual Change in the Situation of their

Particles.

Count Rumford was the first who proved that fluids in general, and aeriform bodies, convey heat on a different principle from that observed in solids. This opinion is pretty generally admitted, though various ingenious experiments have been made by different philosophiers to prove the contrary. In water, for instance, which is, in the strictest sense of the word, a perfect non-conductor of heat, the Count has proved that caloric is propagated only in consequence of the motion which is occasioned in the insulated and solitary particles of that fluid.

All fluids are considered, strictly speaking, in a similar respect as non-conductors of caloric. They can receive it, indeed, from other substances, and can give it to other substances, but no particle can either receive it from or give it to another particle. Before a fluid, therefore, can be heated or cooled, every particle must go individually to the substance from which it receives or to which it gives out caloric. Heat being, therefore, only propagated in fluids, in consequence of the internal mo-tion of their particles, which transport the heat; the more rapid these motions are, the more rapid is the communication of heat. The cause of these motions is the change in the specific gravity of the fluid, occasioned by the change of temperature, and the rapidity is in proportion to the change of the specific gravity of the liquid by any given change of temperature. The following experiment may serve to illustrate this theory.

Take a thin glass tube, eight or ten inches long, and about an inch in diameter. Pour into the bottom part, for about the depth of one inch, a little water coloured with Brazil-wood, or litmus, and then fill up the tube with common water, extremely gently, so as to keep the two stratu quite distinct from each other. Having done this, heat the bottom part of the tube over a lamp; the coloured infusion will then ascend, and gradually tinge the whole fluid; the water in the upper part of the tube may be made to boil, but the colouring matter will remain at the bottom undisturbed. The heat cannot act downwards to make it

ascend.

By thus being able to make the upper part of a fluid boil without heating the bottom part, water may be kept boiling for a considerable time in a glass tube over ice, without melting it.

Other experiments, illustrating the same principle, may be found in Count Rumford's excellent Essays, especially in Essay the 7th: 1797.

To this indefatigable philosopher we are wholly indebted for the above facts: he was the first who taught us that air and water were nearly non-conductors. The results of his experiments, which are contained in the above Essay, are highly interesting; they also shew that the conducting power of fluids is impaired by the admixture of fibrious and glutinous matter.

Count Rumford proved that ice melted more than 80 times slower, when boiling-hot water stood on its surface, than when the ice was placed to swim on the surface of the hot water. Other experiments shewed that water, only eight degrees of Fahrenheit above the freezing point, or at the temperature of forty degrees, melts as much ice, in any given time, as an equal volume of that fluid at any higher temperature, provided the water stands on the surface of the ice. Water, at the temperature of 41°, is found to melt more ice, when standing on its surface, than boiling water.

It becomes further evident, from the Count's ingenious experiments, that of the different substances used in clothing, hares' fur and eider-down are the warmest; next to these, beavers' fur, raw silk, sheep's wool, cotton wool, and lastly, lint, or the scrapings of fine linen. In fur, the air interposed among its particles is so engaged as not to be driven away by the heat communicated thereto by the animal body; not being easily displaced, it becomes a barrier to defend the animal body from the external cold. Hence it is obvious that those skins are warmest which have the finest, longest, and thickest fur; and that the furs of the beaver, otter, and other like quadrupeds, which live much in the water, and the feathers of water-fowl, are capable of confining the heat of those animals in winter, notwithstanding the coldness of the water which they frequent. Bears, and various other animals, inliabitants of cold climates, which do not often take the water, have their fur much thicker on their backs than on their bellies.

The snow which covers the surface of the earth in winter, in high latitudes, is doubtless designed as a garment to defend it against the piercing winds from the polar regions, which prevail during the cold season.

Without dwelling farther upon the philosophy of this truth, we must briefly remark that the happy application of this law, satisfactorily clucidates some of the most interesting facts of the economy of pature.

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Theory of Caloric of Fluidity, or Latent room, it will become gradually less cold,

Heat. as may be discovered by means of the

There are some bodies which, when submitted to the action of caloric, dilate to such a degree, and the power of aggregation subsisting among their particles is so much destroyed and removed to such a distance by the interposition of caloric, that they slide over each other in every direction, and therefore appear in a fluid state. This phenomenon is called fusion. Bodies thus rendered fluid by means of caloric are said to be fused, or melted; and those that are subject to it, are called fusible.

The greater number of solid bodies may, by the application of heat, be converted into fluids. Thus metals may be fused; sulphur, resin, phosphorus, may be melted; ice may be converted into water; &c.

Those bodies which cannot be rendered fluid by any degree of heat hitherto known,

are called fixed, or infusible.

If the effects of licat under certain circumstances, be carried still further than is necessary to render bodies fluid, vaporization begins; the bodies then become converted into the vaporous or guscous state. Vaporization, however does not always require a previous fusion. Some bodies are capable of being converted into the vaporous state, without previously becoming fluid, and others cannot be volatilized at any temperature hitherto known.

Fluidity is therefore by no means essential to any species of inatter, but always depends on the presence of a quantity of caloric. Solidity is the natural state of all bodies, and there can be no doubt that every fluid is capable of being rendered solid by a due reduction of temperature; and every solid may be fused by the agency of caloric, if the latter does not decompose them at a temperature inferior to that which would be necessary for their fusion.

Caloric of Fluidity.

Dr. Black was the first who proved that, whenever caloric combines with a solid body, the body becomes heated only, until it is rendered fluid: or that, whenever it has acquired the fluid state, its temperature remains stationary, though caloric is continued to be added to it. The same is the case when fluids are converted into the aëriform or vaporous state.

From these facts, the laws of latent heat have been inferred. The theory may be illustrated by means of the following ex-

periments.

If a lump of ice, at a low temperature, suppose at 22°, be brought into a warm

room, it will become gradually less cold, as may be discovered by means of the thermometer. After a very short time, it will reach the temperature of 32°, (the fireezing point); but there it stops. The ice then begins to melt; but the process goes on very slowly. During the whole of that time its temperature continues at 32°; and as it is constantly surrounded by warm air, we have reason to believe that caloric is constantly entering into it; yet it does not become hotter till it is changed into water. Ice, therefore, is converted into water by a quantity of caloric uniting with it.

It has been found by calculation, that one pound of ice in melting absorbs 140° of caloric, the temperature of the water produced still remaining at 32°.

This fact may be proved in a direct man-

Take one pound of ice, at 32 degrees reduced to a coarse powder; put it into a wooden bowl, and pour over it gradually, one pound of water, heated to 172 deg.; all the icc will become melted, and the temperature of the whole fluid, if examined by a thermometer, will be 32 deg.; 140 deg. of caloric are therefore lost, and it is this quantity which was requisite to convert the ice into water.

This caloric has been called *latent caloria*, or rather caloric of fluidity, because its presence is not measurable by the thermo-

meter.

Dr. Black has also ascertained, by experiment, that the fluidity of melted wax, tallow, spermaceti, metals, &c. is owing to the same cause; and Ladriani proved that this is the case with sulphur, alum, nitrate of potash, &c.

We consider it, therefore, as a general law, that whenever a solid is converted into a fluid, it combines with caloric, and

that is the cause of fluidity.

On the sudden transition of solids into fluids, is founded the well known

Production of Artificial Cold, by Means of Frigorific Mixtures.

A number of experiments have been lately made by different philosophers, in order to produce artificial cold. And as these methods are often employed in chymistry, with a view to expose bodies to the influence of very low temperatures, we shall enumerate the different substances which may be made use of for that purpose, and the degrees of cold which they are capable of producing. We are indebted for them to Pepys, Walker, and Lowwitz.

## A TABLE OF FREEZING MIXTURES.

Muriate of ammonia   5 parts	Mixtures.	* Thermometer Sinks
Nitrate of potash   Sulphate of soda   Sulphate of soda   2	Muriate of ammonia         -         5 pa           Nitrate of potash         -         -         5           Water         -         -         16	rts
Diluted nitric acid - 2   Sulphate of soda - 8 parts	Nitrate of potash 5 Sulphate of soda 8 Water 16	
Movitatic acid	Diluted nitric acid 2	From 20, (0.3,
Muriate of soda	Sulphate of soda 8 pa Muriatic acid 5	From 50° to 0°
Muriate of soda		From 32° to 0°.
Muriate of soda   -   5   Muriate of ammonia and   Nurate of potash   -   5   Snow, or pounded ice   12 parts   Muriate of soda   -   5   Snow, and   Diluted nitric acid   From 0° to -46°.		From 0° to —5°.
Muriate of soda   - 5   5   From -18° to -25°.	Muriate of soda - 5  Muriate of ammonia and -  Nurate of potash - 5	From -5° to -18°.
Diluted nitric acid   Muriate of lime   3 parts   Snow   -   -   4 parts   Snow   -   -   3 parts   Snow   -   -   4 parts   Snow   -   -   2 parts   Diluted sulphuric acid   -   1   Snow   -   -   1 part   Diluted sulphuric acid   -   1   From 20° to   - 66°.	Muriate of soda 5 Nitrate of ammonia - 5	
Show	Diluted nitric acid	
Snow	Snow 2	From 32° to 50°.
Diluted sulphuric acid	Snow 3	From 32° to — 51°,
Diluted sulphuric acid	Diluted sulphuric acid - 1 Diluted nitric acid - 1	From — 10° to — 56°.
Snow	Diluted sulphuric acid - 1	From 20° to — 60°.
Snow	Snow 1	Profit of to = 60°.
Snow	Snow 1	From $-40^{\circ}$ to $-73^{\circ}$ .
Water 1  Nitrate of ammonia Carbonate of soda - 1 Water 1  Suphate of soda - 6 parts Muriate of potash - 2 Diluted nitric acid - 4  Phosphate of soda - 6 parts Nitrate of ammonia Diluted nitric acid - 4  Phosphate of soda - 9 parts  New 5004 100		From — 68° to — 91°.
Carbonate of soda - 1 Water 1  Suphate of soda - 6 parts Muriate of ammonia - 4 Nitrate of potash - 2 Diluted nitric acid - 4  Sulphate of soda - 6 parts Nitrate of ammonia - 5 Diluted nitric acid - 4  Phosphate of soda - 9 parts  From 50° to 3°.  From 50° to 10°.  From 50° to 10°.	Water 1	From 50° to 4 .
Muriate of ammonia - 4 Nitrate of potash - 2 Diluted nitric acid - 4  Sulphate of soda - 6 parts Nitrate of ammonia - 5 Diluted nitric acid - 4  Phosphate of soda - 9 parts  New 5004 100.	Carbonate of soda 1 Water 1	From 50° to 3°.
Nitrate of ammonia - 5 From 50° to 14°.  Diluted nitric acid - 4  Phosphate of soda 9 parts  Diluted nitric acid - 4	Muriate of ammonia - 4 Nitrate of potash - 2 Diluted nitric acid - 4	From 50° to 10°.
	Nitrate of ammonia - 5 Diluted nitric acid - 4	From 50° to 14°.
Different intric acid 4	Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50° to 12°.
Phosphate of soda - 9 parts Nitrate of ammonia - 6 Diluted nitric acid - 4  From 50° to 21°.	Nitrate of ammonia 6 Diluted nitric acid 4	From 50° to 21°.
Sulphate of soda 5 parts  Diluted sulphuric acid - 4  From 50° to 3°.	Sulphate of soda - 5 Diluted sulphuric acid - 4	parts From 50° to 3°.

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Management of the preceding Mixtures for producing Cold.

To produce the effects before stated, the salts must be reduced to powder, and contain their full quantity of water of crystallization. The vessel in which the freezing mixture is made should be very thin, and just large enough to hold it, and the materials should be mixed together as expeditiously as possible, taking care to stir the mixture at the same time with a rod of glass or wood.

In order to obtain the full effect, the materials ought to be first cooled to the temperature marked in the table, by introducing them into some of the other frigorific mixtures, and then mingting them together in a similar mixture. If, for instance, we wish to produce =- 46°, the snow and diluted nitric acid ought to be cooled down to 0°, by putting the vessel which contains each of them into the fifth freezing mixture in the above table, before they are mingled together. If a more intense cold be required, the materials to produce it are to be brought to the proper temperature by being previously placed in the second freezing mixture.

This process is to be continued till the required degree of cold has been pro-

cured.

Conversion of Solids and Fluids into the Aër form or Gaseous State.

We have seen before, that, in order to reader solids fluid, a certain quantity of caloric is necessary, which combines with the body, and therefore cannot be measured by the thermometer; we shall now endeavour to prove, that the same holds good in respect to the conversion of solids or fluids into the vaporous or gaseous state.

Take a small quantity of carbonate of ammonia, introduce it into a retort, the neck of which is directed under a cylinder filled with mercury and inverted in a basin of the same fluid. On applying heat to the body of the retort, the carbonate of ammonia will be volatilized, it will expel the mercury out of the cylinder, and become an invisible gas, and would remain so, if its temperature was not lowered.

The same is the case with benzoic acid, camphire, and various other substances.

All fluids may by the application of heat be converted into an aëriform elastic state.

When we consider water in a boiling state, we find that this fluid, when examined by the thermometer, is not hotter, after boiling several hours, than when it began to boil, though to maintain it boiling, a brisk fire must necessarily be kept up. What then, we may ask, becomes of the wasted caloric? It is not perceptible in the water, nor is it manifested by the steam; for the steam, if not compressed,

upon examination is found not to be hotter than boiling water. The caloric is therefore absorbed by the steam, and although what is so absorbed is absolutely necessary for the conversion of water into the form of steam, it does not increase its temperature, and is therfore not appreciable by the thernometer.

This conclusion is further strengthened by the heat given out by steam on its being condensed by cold. This is particularly manifested in the condensation of this fluid in the process of distilling, where, upon examining the refrigeratory, it will be found that a much greater quantity of caloric is communicated to it, than could possibly have been transmitted by the caloric which was sensibly acting before the condensation. This may be easily ascertained by observing the quantity of caloric communicated to the water in the refrigeratory of a still, by any given quantity of liquid that passes over.

1. The boiling points of different fluids are influenced by atmospheric pressure.

The boiling point, or the conversion of fluids into gases, always takes p.acc at certain temperatures, which is different in different fluids, provided the pressure of the atmosphere be the same.

Put any quantity of sulphuric ether into a Florence flask, suspend a thermometer in it, and hold the flask over an Argand's lamp, the ether will immediately begin to boil, and the thermometer will indicate 98°, if the ether has been highly rectified.

If highly rectified ardent spirit is heated in a similar manner, the thermometer will rise to 176°, and there remain stationary.

If water is substituted, it will rise to 212°.

If strong nitrous acid of commerce be made use of, it will be found to boil at 248°;—sulphuric acid at 546°;—and mercury and linsecd-oil at 600°, &c.

2. The boiling point of fluids is retarded

by pressure.

Mr. Watt heated water under a strong pressure to 400°. Yet still, when the pressure was removed, only part of the water was converted into vapour, and the temperature of this vapour, as well as that of the remaining fluid, was no more than 212°. There was therefore 188° of caloric suddenly lost. This caloric was carried off by the steam. Now as only about one-fifth of the water was converted into steam, that steam must contain not only its own 1880. but also the 188° lost by each of the other four parts; that is to say, it must contain 188 x 5, or about 940°. Steam, therefore, is water combined with at least 940° of caloric, the presence of which is not indicated by the thermometer.

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3. When pressure is removed from the surface of bodies, their conversion into the gaseous state is greatly facilitated, or their boiling point is lowered.

In proof of this the following experiments

may serve:

Let a small bottle be filled with highly rectified sulphuric ether, and a piece of wetted bladder be tied over its orifice around its neck. Transfer it under the receiver of an air-pump, and take away the super-incumbent pressure of the air in the receiver. When the exhaustion is complete, pierce the bladder by means of a pointed sinding wire, passing through a coliar of leather which covers the upper opening of the receiver. Having done this, the ether will instantly begin to boil, and become converted into an invisible gaseous fluid.

Take a small retort or Florence flask, fill it one half, or less, with water, and make it boil over a lamp; when kept briskly boiling, for about five minutes, cork the mouth of the retort as expeditiously as possible, and remove it from the

lamp

The water, on being removed from the source of heat, will keep boiling for a few minutes, and when the ebullition begins to slacken, it may be renewed by dipping the

retort into cold water.

The water during boiling becomes converted into vapour; this vapour expels the air of the vessel, and occupies its place; on diminishing the heat, it condenses; when the retort is stopped, a partial vacuum is formed; the pressure becomes diminished, and a less degree of heat is sufficient to cause an ebullition.

For the same reason water may be made to boil under the exhausted receiver at 94° Fahr. or even at a much lower degree; alkohol at 56°, and ether at—20°.

On the conversion of fluids into gases is founded the following experiment, by which water is frozen by means of sulphu-

ric ether.

Take a thin glass tube, four or five inches long, and about two or three-eighths of an inch in diameter, and a two-ounce bottle furnished with a capillary tube fitted to its neck. In order to make ice, pour a little water into the tube, taking care not to wet the outside, nor to leave it moist. Having done this, let a stream of sulphuric ether fall through the capillary tube upon that part of it containing the water, which by this means will be converted into ice in a few minutes, and this it will do even near a fire, or in the midst of summer.

If the glass tube containing the water be exposed to the brisk thorough air, or free draught of an open window, a large quantity of water may be frozen in a shorter time; and if a thin spiral wire be introduced precious to the congelation of the

water, the ice will adhere to it, and may thus be drawn out conveniently.

A person might be easily frozen to death during very warm weather, by merely pouring upon his body, for some time, sulphuric ether, and keeping him exposed to a thorough draught of air.

Artificial Refrigeration.

The cooling or refrigeration of rooms in the summer season by sprinkling them with water, becomes likewise obvious on this account.

The method of making ice artificially in the East-Indies depends on the same principle. The ice-makers at Benares dig pits in large open plains, the bottom of which they strew with sugar-canes or dried stems of maize or Indian corn. Upon this bed they place a number of unglazed pans, made of so porous an earth that the water penetrates through their whole substance. These pans are filled towards evening in the winter season with water that has boiled, and left in that situation till morning, when more or less ice is found in them, according to the temperature of the air; there being more formed in dry and warm weather, than in that which is cloudy, though it may be colder to the human body.

Every thing in this process is calculated to produce cold by evaporation; the beds on which the pans are placed suffer the air to have free passage to their bottoms; and the pans, constantly oozing out water to their external surface, are cooled by the

evaporation of it.

In Spain, they use a kind of earthen jars, called buxaros, which are only half-baked, the earth of which is so porous, that the outside is kept moist by the water which filters through it, and though placed in the sun, the water in the jar becomes as cold

as ice.

It is a common practice in China to cool wine or other liquors by wrapping the bottle in a wet cloth, and hanging it up in the sun. The water in the cloth becomes converted into vapour, and thus cold is produced.

The Blacks in Senegambia have a similar method of cooling water by filling tanned leather bags with it, which they hang up in the sun; the water oozes more or less through the leather, so as to keep the outward surface wet, which by its quick and continued evaporation cools the water re-

markably.

The winds on the borders of the Persian Gulph are often so scorching, that travelers are suddenly suffocated, unless they cover their heads with a wet cloth; if this be too wet, they immediately feel an intolerable cold, which would prove fatal if the mosture was not speedily dissipated by the heat.

If a cold vessel is brought into a warm room, particularly where many people are assembled, the outside of it will soon become covered with a sort of dew.

Before some changes of weather, the stone pavements, the walls of a house, the balustrades of starcases and other solid objects, feel clammy and damp.

In frosty nights, when the air abroad is colder than the air within, the dampness of this air, for the same reason, settles on the glass panes of the windows, and is there frozen into curious and beautiful figures.

Thus fogs and dews take place, and in the higher regions clouds are formed from the condensed vapour. The still greater condensation produces mists and rain.

Capacity of Bodies for containing Heat.

The property which different bodies possess, of containing at the same temperature, and in equal quantities, either of mass or bulk, unequal quantities of heat, is called their capacity for heat. The capacities of bodies for heat are therefore considered as great or small in the ratio as their temperatures are either raised or lowered by the addition, or diminished by the deprivation

of equal quantities of heat.

In homogeneous bodies, the quantities of caloric which they contain are in the ratio of their temperature and quantity of mass; for instance, when equal quantities of water, oil, or mercury, of unequal temperatures, are mingled together, the temperature of the whole will be the arithmetical mean between the temperatures of the two quantities that had been mixed together. It is a self-evident truth that this should be the case, for the particles of different portions of the same substance being alike, their effects must be equal. For instance:

Mix a pound of water at 172°, with a pound at 32°, half the excess of heat in the hot water will quit it to go over into the colder portion; thus the hot water will be cooled 70°, and the cold will receive 70° of temperature; therefore 172—70, or 32+70—102 will give the heat of the mixture. To attain the arithmetical mean very exactly, several precautions how-

ever are necessary.

When heterogenous bodies of different temperatures are mixed together, the temperature produced is never the arithmetical mean of the two original temperatures.

In order to ascertain the comparative quantities of heat of different bodies, equal weights of them are mingled together; the experiments for this purpose being in general more easily executed than those by which they are compared from equal bulks.

Thus, if one pound of mercury heated to 110° Fahr, be added to one pound of water of 44°, the temperature of the blended fluids will not be changed to 77°, as it it would be if the surplus of heat were divided among those fluids in the

proportion of their quantities. It will be found on examination to be only 47°.

On the contrary; if the pound of mercury be heated to 44° and the water to 110°, then on stirring them together the common temperature will be 107°.

Hence if the quicksilver loses by this distribution 63° of caloric, an equal weight of water gains only 3° from this lose of 63° of heat. And on the contrary, if the water

loses 3°, the mercury gains 63°.

When, instead of comparing the quantities of caloric which equal weights of different bodies contain, we compare the quantities contained in equal volumes, we still find that the same difference takes place. Thus it is found by experiment, that the quantity of caloric necessary to raise the temperature of a given volume of water any number of degrees, is, to that necessary to raise an equal volume of mercury, the same number of degrees as 2 to 1. This is therefore the proportion between the comparative quantities of caloric which these two bodies contain, estimated by their volumes; and similar differences exist with respect to every other kind of matter.

From the nature of the experiments by which the quantities of caloric which bodies contain are ascertained, it is evident that we discover merely the *comparative*, not the *absolute* quantities. Hence water has been chosen as a standard, to which other bodies may be referred; its capacity is stated as the arbitrary term of 1000, and with this the capacities of other bodies are

compared.

It need not be told that pains have been taken to estimate on these experiments that portion of heat which diffuses itself into the air or into the vessel where the mercury and water are blended together. As however such valuations cannot be made with complete accuracy, the numbers stated above are only an approximation to truth.

Radiation of Caloric.

Caloric is thrown off or radiates from heated bodies in right lines, and moves through space with inconceivable velocity. It is retarded in its passage by atmospheric air, by colourless fluids, glass, and other transparent bodies.

If a glass mirror be placed before a fire, the mirror transmits the rays of light, but

not the rays of heat.

If a plate of glass, tale, or a glass vessel filled with water be suddenly interposed between the fire and the eye, the rays of light pass through it, but the rays of caloric are considerably retarded in its passage; for no heat is perceived until the interposed substance is saturated with heat, or has reached its maximum. It then ceases to intercept the rays of caloric, and allows

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them to pass as freely as the rays of

light.

It has been lately shewn by Dr. Herschel that the rays of caloric are refrangible, but less so than the rays of light; and the same philosopher has also proved by experiment, that it is not only the rays of caloric emitted by the sun, which are refrangible, but likewise the rays emitted by common fires, by candles, by heated iron, and even by hot water.

Whether the rays of caloric are differently refracted, in different mediums, has not yet been ascertained. We are certain, however, that they are refracted by all transparent bodies which have been employed as burning glasses.

The rays of caloric are also reflected by polished surfaces, in the same manner as

the rays of light.

This was long ago noticed by Lambert, Saussure, Sheele, Pictet, and lately by Dr.

Herschell.

Professor Pictet placed two concave metallic mirrors opposite to each other at the distance of about twelve feet. When a hot body, an iron bullet for instance, was placed in the focus of the one, and a mercurial thermometer in that of the other, a substance radiated from the bullet; it passed with incalculable velocity through the air, it was reflected from the mirrors, it became concentrated, and influenced the thermometer placed in the focus, according to the degree of its concentration.

An iron bail, two inches in diameter, heated so that it was not luminous in the dark, raised the thermometer not less than ten and a half degrees of Reaumur's scale,

in six minutes.

A lighted candle occasioned a rise in the

thermometer nearly the same.

A Florence flask, containing two ounces and three drachins of boiling water, raised Fahrenneit's thermometer three degrees. He blackened the bulb of his thermometer, and found that it was more speedily influenced by the radiation than before, and that it rose to a greater height.

M. Pictet discovered another very singulor fact; namely, the apparent radiation of cold. When, instead of a heated body, a Florence flask full of ice or snow is placed in the focus of one of the mirrors, the thermometer placed in the focus of the other immediately descends, and ascends again whenever the cold body is removed.

This phenomenon may be explained on the supporition, that from every body at eyery temperature caloric radiates, but in less quantity as the temperature is low; so that in the above experiment, the thermometer gives out more caloric by radiation, than it receives from the body in the opposite focus, and therefore its temperature is lowered. Or, as Pictet has supposed,

when a number of bodies near to each other have the same temperature, there is no radiation of caloric, because in all of them it exists in a state of equal tension; but as soon as a body at an inferior temperature is introduced, the balance of tension is broken, and caloric begins to radiate from all of them, till the temperature of that body is raised to an equality with theirs. In the above experiment, therefore, the placing the snow or ice in the focus of the inirror causes the radiation of caloric from the thermometer, and hence the diminution of temperature which it suffers.

These experiments have been lately repeated by Dr. Young and Professor Davy, at the theatre of the Royal Institution. These gentlemen inflamed phosphorus by reflected caloric; and proved that the heat thus excited was very sensible to the organs

of feeling.

It is therefore evident that caloric is thrown off from bodies in rays which are invisible, or incapable of exciting vision, but which are capable of exciting heat.

These invisible rays of caloric are propagated in right lines, with extreme velocity, and are capable of the laws of reflection and refraction.

The heating agency however is different in the different coloured rays of the prismatic spectrum. According to Dr. Herschel's experiments, it follows inversely the order of the refrangibility of the rays of light. The least refrangible possessing it

in the greatest degree.

Sir Henry Englefield has lately made a series of experiments on the same subject, from which we learn that a thermometer, having its ball blackened, rose when placed in the blue ray of the prismatic spectrum in 3' from 55° to 56°; in the green, in 3' from 45° to 58°; in the yellow, in 3' from 56° to 62°; in the full red, in 2 1-2' from 56° to 72°; in the confines of the red, in 2' from 58° to 73 10-2tn; and quite out of the visible light, in 2' from 61° to 79°.

Between each of the observations, the thermometer was placed in the shade so long, as to sink it below the heat to which it had risen in the preceding observation, of course its rise above that point could only be the effect of the ray to which it was exposed. It was continued in the focus tong after it had ceased to rise; therefore the heats given are the greatest effects of the several rays on the thermometer in each observation. A thermometer placed constantly in the shade near the apparatus, was found scarcely to vary during the experiments.

Sir Henry made other experiments with thermometers with naked balls, and with others whose balls were painted white, for which we refer the reader to the interesting paper of the Baronet, from which the above experiments are transcribed.

The coloured rays emitted from the sun and combustible bodies, since they excite heat and vision, must consist of a mixture of heat-making rays, and rays of light.

And as the rays of heat and light accompany each other when emitted from luminous bodies, the velocity with which the rays of caloric move must be equal to that of light, and hence its particles must be equally minute. They differ however in this particular, that the rays of light produce the sensation of vision, and possess certain chemical properties, whilst in those of caloric the peculiar agency of heat resides.

CALORIMETER. An instrument by which the whole quantity of absolute heat existing in a body in chemical union can be ascertained.

CALTHA. (Kaλθa, corrupted from χαλχα, yellow, from whence, says Vossius, come calthula, caldula, caledula, calendula.) Marsh marigold.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polyandria. Order,

2. The pharmacopæial name of the herb marigold, so called from its colour. Colendula arvensis.

CALTHA PALUSTRIS. The marsh marigold. The young buds of this plant make, when properly pickled, very good substitutes for capers.

CALTHA VULGARIS. See

arvensis.

CALTHULA. The caltha is so called.

CALTROPS. A name of the Trapa natans of Linnæus, whose fruit is said to be nrtritious and demulcent, and to be useful in diarrhoas from abraded bowels, and against calculus.

CALUMBA. The name now adopted by the London college of physicians for the

columbo. See Cotumbo.

CALVA. (From calvus, bald.) The scalp or upper part of the cranium or top of the head; so called because it often grows

CALVARIA. (From calvus, bald.) The upper part of the cranium which becomes soon bald. It means all above the orbits, temples, ears and ocipital eminence.

CALVITIES. (From calvus, bald.) vitium Baldness; want or loss of hair, particularly upon the sinciput.

CALX. (Kalah, to burn. Arab.)

1. Chalk. Limestone.

2. Lime. Calx viva. The London College direct it to be prepared thus: Take of limestone one pound. Break it into small pieces and heat it in a crucible in a strong fire for an hour, or until the carbonic acid is entirely driven off, so that on the addition of acetic acid, no bubbles of gas shall be extricated. Lime may be made by the same process from shells previously washed in

boiling water, and cleared from extraneous matters. Sce Line.

CALX ANTIMONII. See Oxydum antimonii. CALX CUM KALI PURO. The preparation formerly called by this name is now termed, in the London pharmacopæia, potassa cum calce.

CALX HYDRARGYRI ALBA. See hydrargyrus præcipitatus albus.

CALX VIVA. See Calx.

CALYPTER. (From καλυπτω, to hide.) A carneous excrescence covering the hemorrhoidal vein.

CAMARA. (камара, a vault.) Camarium. The fornix of the brain: also the vaulted part of the auricle of the heart.

CAMARIUM. (From Kamasa, a vault.)

See Camara.

CAMAROMA. (From намара, a vault.) Camarosis. Camaratio. A fracture of the skull, in the shape of an arch or vault.

CAMBING. A tree of the Molucca islands, whose bark has been recommended in dysenteries.

CAMBIREA. So Paraselsus calls the venereal bubo.

CAMBIUM. (From cambio, to exchange.) That nutricious humour which is changed into the matter of which the body is composed.

Cambodia. See Gambogia.

CAMBOGIA GUTTA. See Gambogia.

CAMBOGIUM. (From the province of Cambogia, whence it was brought.) See Gam-

CAMBRO-BRITANNICA. See Chamamorus. CAMBUCA. Cambuta membrata. Paracelsus calls the venereal cancer. by some it is described as a bubo, an ulcer, an abscess on the pudenda: also a boil in the groin.

CAMBUI. The wild American myrtle of Piso and Margrave, which is said to be

astringent.

Camel's hay. See Juncus odoratus.

The chambers or cavities CAMERA. of the eye are termed cameræ.

CAMERATIO. See Camaroma. CAMES. Camet. Silver.

CAMINGA. See Canella alba.

CAMINUS. A furnace and its chimney. In Rulandus it signifies a bell.

CAMISIA FŒTUS. (From the Arabic term kamisah, an under garment.) The shirt of the fœtus. It is frequently put for the chorion.

Camomile. See Chamemelum.

Camomile, stinking. See Cotula fatida.

CAMOMILLA. Corrupted from chamæmelum.

CAMMORUM. (xauuceov, quia homines, κακω μερω, perimat; because, if eaten, it brings men to a miserable end.) A species of monkshood. See . Iconitum.

CAMPANA. A bell. In Chemistry, a receptacle like a bell, for making sulphuric acid; thus the oleum sulphuris per campanam.

CAMPANULA. (From Campana, a bell, named from its shape.) The bell-flower.

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

CAMPE. (From καμπτω, to bend.) flexure or bending. It is also used for the ham, and a joint, or articulation.

Campeachy wood. See Lignum campe-

CAMPECHENSE LIGNUM. See Lignum Campechense.

Camphire. See Camphora. Camphor. See Camphora.

CAMPHORA. (Camphura, Arab. The ancients by camphor meant what now is called asphaltum, or Jews' pitch; καφερα.) Camphura. Caf. Cafar. Ligatura veneris. Caphora. Capur. Alkovor. Altesor. Camphire. Camphor. A peculiar concrete substance prepared by distillation from the Laurus camphora of Linnæus;—foliis triplinerviis lanceolato-ovatis, a tree indigenous to Japan, where it grows abundantly. The camphice is found to lodge every where in the inter-stices of the fibres of the wood, pith, and knots of the tree. The crude camphire, exported from Japan, appears in small greyish pieces, and is intermixed with various extraneous matters; in this state it is received by the Dutch, and purified by a second sublimation; it is then formed into loaves, in which state it is sent to England. When pure, it is white, pellucid, somewhat unctuous to the touch; of a bitterish, aromatic, acid taste, yet accompanied with a sense of coolness; of a fragrant smell, and approaching to that of rosemary, but much stronger. It is totally volatile and inflammable, soluble in vinous spirits, oils, and the mineral acids; not in water, fixed nor volatile alkaline liquors, nor in acids of the vegetable kingdom. The use of this important medicine, in different diseases, is very considerable. It has been much employed, with great advantage, in fevers of all kinds, particularly in nervous fevers attended with delirium and much watchfulness. The experienced Werlhoff has witnessed its utility in several inflammatory diseases, and speaks highly in favour of its refrigerant qualities. The benefit derived from it in putrid fevers, where bark and acids are contra-indicated, is remarkable. In spasmodic and convulsive affections it is also of much service, and even in epilepsy. In chronic diseases this medicine is likewise employed; and against rheumatism, arthritis, and mania, we have several accounts of its efficacy. Nor is it less efficacious when applied externally in certain diseases: it dissipates inflammatory tumours in a short time; and its antisceptic quality, in resisting and during gangrene, is very considerable. Another property peculiar to this medicine must not, however, be omitted; the power it possesses of obviating the strangury that is produced by cantharides, when sprinkled over a blister.

The preparations of camphor are, spiritus camphoratus, oleum camphoratum, linimentum camphora, tinctura opii camphorata, and the mistura camphorata. Camphor dissolved in acetic acid, with some essential oils, forms the aromatic vinegar.

The subtile sub-CAMPHORÆ FLORES. stance which first ascends in subliming camphor. It is nothing more than the camphor.

CAMPHORE FLORES COMPOSITI. Camphor

sublinied with gum benzoin.

CAMPHOROSMA. (From camphora. and orun, to smell; so called from its smelling of camphirc.) The camphor-smelling

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Tetrandria.

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the camphorala. Sce Camphorala.

CAMPHORASMA. (From camphora: so called from its camphor-like smell.) Balm of Gilead. See Moldavica.

CAMPHORATA. Chamepeuce. Camphorata hirsuta. Camphorasma Monspeliaca. Stinking ground-pine. This plant, Camphorosma Monspeliensis of Linnaus:-foliis hirsutis linearibus, took its name from its smell resembling so strongly that of camphor: it has been exhibited internally, in form of decoction, in dropsical and asthmatic complaints, and by some is esteemedin fomen. tations agains pain. It is rarely or ever used inmodern practice.

CAMPHORAS. A salt formed by the union of the camphoric acid with different bases: thus. camphorat of allumin, camphorat

of ammoniac, &c.

CAMPHORATUM OLEUM. A mixture of olive oil, two parts, with one of camphor: of use in inflammatory swellings of the throat, if mixed with a proper cataplasm, and applied to it. In ascites, when the ab-domen is much distended, if rubbed on freely every night and morning, it is sup-

posed to be useful.

CAMPHORIC ACID. Acidum camphoricum. If nitric acid be distilled several times (six or eight) from camphor, a crystallized salt is obtained, called the acid of camphor, which reddens syrup of violets and the tincture of turnsole. Its taste is bitter, and it differs from oxalic acid in not precipitating lime from the muriatic acid. The union of this acid with different bases forms what is called camplorates, none of which have vet been used medicinally.

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELIENSIS. systematic name of the plant called camphorata in the pharmacopæias. See Cam-

CAMPTER. (From naundo, to bend.) An inflexion or incurvation.

CAMPULUM. (From καμπτω, to twist about.) A distortion of the eyelids or other parts.

CAMPYLOTIS. (From nammunos, bent. A preternatural incurvation, or recurvation of a part. A distortion of the eyelids

CAMPYLUM. See Campylotis.
CANABIL. A sort of medicinal earth.
CANABINA AQUATICA. See Bidens.

CANABIS INDICA. See Banque and Can-

Canada Bulsam, See Bulsamum Canadense

CANABIS PEREGRINA. See Cannabis

Canadansis. (Brought from Canada.) A name of the copina and other baisams.

CANALES SEMICIRCULARES. Three semicircular canals placed in the posterior part of the labyrinth of the ear. They open by five orifices into the vestibulum. See Ear

Canaliculus. (Dim. of canalis, a channel) That blood-vessel, which in a fætus is situated between the pulmonary artery and the aorta, but in the adult is extinct, is called the canaliculus arteriosus. The

same as canalis arteriosus.

canalis. (From \$\chize{x}\chick{e}\_0\$; an aperture, or rather from \$canna\$, a reed.) A Canal. A hollow round instrument like a reed, for embracing and holding a broken limb. The hollow of the spine. Also it is specifically applied to many parts of the body; as \$canalis venosus\$.

CANALIS ARTERIOSUS. Canalis Rotalii. A blood-vessel peculiar to the factus, d;sappearing after birth; through which the blood passes from the pulmonary artery

into the aorta.

CANALIS NASALIS. A canal going from the internal canthus of the eye downwards into the nose: it is situated in the superior maxillary bone, and is lined with the pituitary membrane continued from the nose

CANALIS PETITIANUS. A triangular cavity, naturally containing a moisture, between the two lamina of the hyaloid membrane of the eye, in the anterior part, formed by the separation of the anterior lamina from the posterior. It is named after its discoverer, M. Petit.

CANALIS SEMISPETROS. The half bony canal of the car

CANALIS VENOSUS. A canal peculiar to the fætus, disappearing after birth, that conveys the maternal blood from the porta of the liver to the ascending vena cana.

Canary balm. See Melissa Turcica.

CANCELLI. Lattice work; generally applied to the reticular substance in bones.

CANCELLUS. (From cancer, a crab.) The wrong heir. Bernard the hermit. A species of cray-fish supposed to cure rheumatism, if rubbed on the part.

CANCER. (From naphnoc, a crab; so called by the ancients, because it exhibited large blue veins like crab's claws.)

1. The name of a disease likewise called Carcinoma, carcinos by the Greeks, Lupus by the Romans, because it eats away the flesh like a wolf. Dr. Cullen places this genus of disease in the class locales, and order tumores. He defines it a painful scirrhus tumour, terminating in a fatal ulcer. Any part of the body may be the seat of cancer, though the glands are most subject to it. It is distinguished according to its stages into occut and open; by the former is meant its scirrhous state, which is a hard tumour that sometimes remains in a quiet state for many years. When the cancerous action commences in it, it is attended with frequent shooting pains : the skin that covers it becomes discoloured, and ulceration sooner or later takes place; when the disease is denominated open cancer. Mr. Pearson says, "When a malignant scirrhus or a warty excrescence, hath proceeded to a period of ulceration, attended with a constant sense of ardent and occasionally shooting pains, is arregular in its figure, and presents an unequal surface; if it discharges sordid, sanious or fetid matter; if the edges of the sore be thick, indurated, and often exquisitely painful, sometimes inverted, at other times retorted, and exhibit a serrated appearance; and should the ulcer in its progress be frequently attended hamorrhage, in consequence of the erosion of blood-vessels; there will be little hazard of mistake in calling it a cancerous ulcer." In men, a cancer most frequently seizes the tongue, mouth, or penis; in women, the breasts, or the uterus, particularly about the cessation of their periodical discharges; and in children, in the eyes. The following description of Scirrhus and Cancer, from the above writer, will serve to elucidate the subject. A hard unequal tumour that is indolent and without any discoloration in the skin is called a scirrhus; but when an itching is peceived in it, which is followed by a pricking, shooting or lancinating pain, and a change of colour in the skin, it is usually denominated a cancer. It generally is small in the beginning and increases gradually; but though the skin changes to a red or livid appearance, and the state of the tumour from an indolent to a painful one, it is sometimes very difficult to say when the scirrhus really becomes a cancer, the progress being quick or slow according to concurring causes. When the tumour is attended with a peculiar kind of burning, shooting pains, and the skin hath acquired the dusky purple or livid hue, it may then be deemed the malignant scirrhus or con-firmed cancer. When thus far advanced in women's breasts, the tumour sometimes increases speedily to a great size, having a knotty unequal surface, more glands becoming obstsucted, the nipple sinks in, turgid veins are conspicuous, ramifying around and resembling a crab's claw. These are the

characteristics of an occult cancer on the external parts; and we may suspect the existence of one internally when such pain and heat as has been described, succeed in parts where the patient hath before been sensible of a weight and pressure, attended with obcuse pain. A cancerous tumour never melts down in suppuration like an inflammatory one: but when it is ready to break open, especially in the breast, it generally becomes proniment in some minute point, attended with an increase of the peculiar kind of burning, shooting pain, felt before at intervals, in a less degree and deeper in the body of the gland. In the prominent parts of the tumour, in this state, a corroding ichor sometimes transudes through the skin, soon forming an ulcer; at other times a considerable quantity of a thin lymphatic fluid tinged with blood from eroded vessels is found on it. Ulcers of the cancerous nature discharge a thin, fetid, acrid sames, which corrodes the parts, having thick dark-coloured retorted lips; and fungous excressences frequently rise from these ulcers, notwithstanding the corrosiveness of the discharge. In this state they are often attended with excruciating, pungent, lancinating, burning pains, and sometimes with bleeding.

Though a scirrhus may truly be deemed a cancer, as soon as a pain is perceived in it, yet every painful tumour is not a cancer: nor is it always easy to say whether a cancer is the disorder or not: irregular hard lumps may be perceived in the breast; but on examining the other breast, where no uneasiness is perceived, the same kind of tumours are sometimes found, which renders the diagnostic uncertain. Yet in every case, after the cessation of the catamenia, hard unequal tumours in the breast are suspicious; nor, though without pain, are they to be supposed indolent or innoxious.

2. The name of a crab-fish, from which the chelæ cancrorum, oculi cancrorum, or lapides cancrorum are produced The shell-fish so called is the Cancer astacus of Linnaus: the officinal preparations are neverth-less obtained also from the cancer gammarus, macurus and pagarus of Linnæus. Crab's claws and crab's eyes, as they are called, which are cerebral concretions, are of a calcareous quality and possess antacid virtues. They are exhibited with their compounds in pyrosis, diarrhæa and in infantile convulsions from acidity.

CANCER MUNDITORUM. Chimney-sweeper's cancer.

CANCHRYS. Cachrys. Libanotis. Galen saye it sometimes means parched barley.

CANCRENA. Paracelsus uses this word instead of gangræna.

CANCRORUM CHELE. Crab's claws. Carbonas calcis durior,

CANCHRORUM OCULI. See Carbonas calvis durior.

CANCHRUM ORIS. (From cancer, a spreading ulcer.) Canker of the mouth; called also aphthæ serpentes, gangræna oris, &c. See Aphtha.

CANDELA. (From candeo, to shine.) A

candle.

CANDELA FUNALIS A candle made of odoriferous powders and resinous matters, to purify the air and excite the spirits.

CANDELA REGIA See Candelaria.

CANDELARIA. (From candela, a candle, so called from the resemblance of its stalks to a candle.) The herb mullein. See Verbascum.

Candy carrot. See Daucus Creticus.

CANELA Sometimes used by the ancients for cinnamon, or rather cassia.

CANELLA (Canella, dim. of canna, a reed; so named because the pieces of bark are rolled up in the form of a reed.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dodecandria. Order, Mo-

nogynia. The canella-tree.

CANELLA ALBA The pharmacopæial name of the laure-leaved canella Winteranus spurius. Canella cubana. nella alba of Linnæus. The tree which produces the bark so called, is a native of the West-Indies. It is brought into Europe in long quills, somewhat thicker than cinnamon; their taste is moderately warm, aromatic, and bitterish; and of an agreeable smell, somewhat resembling that of cloves. Canella alba has been supposed to possess considerable medicinal powers in the cure of the scurvy and some other complaints. It is now merely considered as a useful and cheap aromatic, and is chiefly employed for the purpose of correcting, and rendering less disagreeable the more powerful and nauseous drugs; with which view it is used in the tinctura amara, vinum amarum, vinum rhei, &c. of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia.

CANELLA CUBANA. See Canella alba. CANELLA CUURDO. The true cinnamon-

tree.

CANELLE MALABARICA: CORTEX. Cassia lignea.

CANELIFERA MALABARICA. See Cassia

lignea.

CANEON. (From MATTIN, because it was made of split cane.) A sort of tube or instrument, mentioned by Hippocrates, for conveying the fumes of antihysteric drugs into the womb.

CANICA. A spice used in the Island of Cuba, probably the pimento; or from some

of the species of myrrhs.

CANICE. (From canis.) Coarse meal was so called by the ancients, from canis, a dog, because it was food for dogs. Hence panis caniceus, very coarse bread

CANICIDA. (From canis, a dog, and cado, to kill; so called because dogs are destroyed by eating it.) The herb dog's bane or

aconitum.

CANICIDIUM. (From canis, a dog, and eado, to kill.) The anatomical dissection of living dogs.

CANINA BRASSICA. The mercurialis syl-

Canina Lingua. The cynoglossum. Canina malus. The mandragora.

CANINA RABIES. The hydrophobia. CANINE. Whatever partakes of, or has

any relation to the nature of a dog. Canine appetite. See Bulimia.

Canine madness Se Hydrophobia. CANINE TRETH Dentes canini. Cynodontes. Cuspidati of Mr. John Huner; because they have the two sides of their edge sloped off to a point, and this point is very sharp or cuspidated Cohi-mellares of Varro and Pfiny. The four eye-teeth are so called from their resemblance to those of the dog. They are situated, two in each jaw, on the side of the four middle or incisor teeth. fangs are longer than those of the incisores, and therefore, from the fangs of those in the upper jaw heing supposed to extend the greatest part of the way to the eye, they have been called the eye-teeth.

Caninus, (Caninus, sc. musculus; because it arises near the canine or eye-tooth.)

See Levator anguli oris.

Caninus sentis. (From canis, a dog, and sentis, a horn; from its being prickly like a thorn.) See Cynosbatos.

CANIRAM. (Indian.) See Nux vomica. CANIRUBUS. (From canis, and rubus, a

bramble.) See Cynosbatos.

CANIS. A dog. The white dung of this animal called album gracum, was for merly in esteem, but now disused. This term was also applied to the frænum of the penis.

CANUS INTERFECTOR. Indian caustic bar-

ley or cevadilla.

CANIS PONTICUS. See Castor.
CANNA. (Heb.) A reed or hollow cane: also a name of the fibula, from its resemblance to a reed.

CANNA FISTULA. See Cassia fistula.

CANNA INDICA. The Sagittaria alexipharmica.

CANNA MAJOR. The tibia.

CANNA MINOR CRURIS. A name formerly applied to the fibula

CANNABINA. (From canua, a reed; named from its reed-like stalk.) So Tournefort named the Datisca.

(From xayya, a reed. CANNABIS. KavvaCos are foul springs, wherein hemp, &c. grow naturally. Or from kanaba, from grow naturally. Or from kan kanah, to mow. Arab.) Hemp.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dioecia. Order,

Pentandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Cannabis sativa of Linnans. It has a rank smell of a narcotic kind. The effluvia from the fresh herb are said to affect the eyes and

head, and that the water in which it has been long steeped is a sudden poison. Hemp-seeds, when fresh, afford a considerable quantity of oil. Decoctions and emulsions of them have been recommended against coughs, ardor urinæ, &c. Their nse, in general, depends on their emollient and demulcent qualities. The leaves of an oriental hemp, called bang or bangue, and by he Egyptians assis, are said to be used in Eastern countries, as a narcotic and aphrodisiac. See Bangue.

CANNABIS SAVITA. The systematic name of the hemp plant. See Cannabis.

CANNACORUS RADICE CROCEA See Cur-

CANNULA. (Dim. of canna, 2 reed.)

The name of a surgical instrument. See CANON. (Kavav.) A rule or canon, by

which medicines are compounded.

CANONIAI. (Kayovai.) Hippocrates in his book De Aëre, &c. calls those persons thus, who have straight, and not prominent beilies He would intimate that they are disposed, as it were by a straight rule.

CANOPICON (From x2varce, the flower of the elder.) A sort of spurge named from its resemblance; also a collyrium, of which the chief ingredient was elder-flowers.

CANOPITE. The name of a collyrium mentioned by Celsus.

CANOPUM. (Kaywoov.) The flower or bark of the elder-tree, in Paulus Ægineta.

CANTABRICA. Convolvulus minimus spica Convolvulus linaria folio. Convolvalus Cantabrica of Linneus. Lavender-leaved bindweed. Pliny says it was dis-covered in the time of Augustus, in the country of the Cantabri in Spain; whence its name. It is anthelmintic and actively cathartic.

CANTABRUM. (From kanta. Heb.) In Cœlius Aurelianus it signifies bran or fur-

CANTACON. Garden saffron. CANTARA. The plant which bears the St. Ignatius's bean

CANTARI FIGULINI. Earthen cucurbits.

CANTHARIS (Cantharis, pl. cantha. rides; from xaybapos, a beetle, to whose tribe it belongs.) Musce Hispanice Lytta vesi-catoria of Linnaus. The blistering fly. Spanish fly. The importance of these flies, by their stimulant, corrosive, and epispastic qualities, in the practice of physic and surgery, is very considerable; indeed, so much so, as to induce many to consider them as the most powerful medicine in the materia medica. These flies have a green shining gold body, and are common in Spain, Italy, France, and Germany, The largest come from haly, but the Spanish cantharides are generally preferred. When applied on the skin, in the form of a plaster, it soon raises a blister full of serous matter, and thus

relieves inflammatory diseases, as phrenitis, pleuritis, hepatitis, phelgmon, bubo, myositis, arthritis, &c. The tincture of these flies is also of great utility in several cutaneous diseases, rheumatic affections, sciatic pains, &c. but ought to be used with much caution. See Blister.

CANTHUM. Sugar-candy.

CANTIIUS. (Κανθως, the iron binding of a cart-wheel. Dr. Turton, in his glossary, supposes, from its etymology, that it originally signified the circular extremety of the eye-lid.) The angle or corner of the eye, where the upper and under eye-lids meet. That next the nose is termed the internal or greater canthus, and the other, the external or lesser canthus.

CANTION. An epithet for sugar.

CANTUARIENSIS AQUA. Canterbury water is strongly impregnated with iron, sulphur, and carbonic acid gas; recom-mended in disorders of the stomach, in gouty complaints, jaundice, diseases of the skin and chlorosis

CANULA. (Dim. of canna, a reed.) tube adapted to a sharp instrument, with which it is thrust into a cavity or tumour, containing a fluid; the perforation being made, the sharp instrument is withdrawn, and the banula left, in order that the fluid may pass through it

CANUSA. Crystal.

CAOUTCHOUC. See Indian rubber.

Capaiva balsam. See Bulsamum Copaibx. CAPELINA. (From capeline, a woman's hat, or bandage, French.) A doubleheaded roller put round the head.

CAPELLA. A cupel or test. Caper-bush. See Copparis.

CAPETUS. (Καπέλος per aphæresin, pro σκαπείος: from σκαπίω, to dig.) Hippocrates means by this word a foramen, which is impervious and needs the use of a chirurgical instrument to make an opening; as the anus of some new-born infants.

CAPHORA. (Arab ) Camphire.

C. PHURA BAROS INDORUM. A name for camplifre.

CAPHURE OLEUM. An aromatic essential oil distilled from the root of the cinnamontree.

CAPILLARES VERMICULI. See Crinones and Dracunculi.

CAPILLARY VESSELS. (Vasa capillaria; from capillus, a little hair; so called from their resemblance to hairs or fine threads.) The very small ramifications of the arteries, which terminate upon the external surface of the body, or on the surface of internal cavities.

CAPILLATIO. (From capillus, a hair.) A

capillary fracture of the cranium

CAPILLUS. (Quasi capitis pilus, the hair of the head.) The hair. Small, cylindrical, transparent, insensible, and elastic filaments, which arise from the skin, and are fastened in it by means of small roots.

The human hair is composed of a spongy, cellular texture, containing a coloured liquid, and a proper covering. divided into two kinds : long, which arises on the scalp, cheek, chin, breasts, of men, the anterior parts of the arms and legs, the arm-pits, groins, and pelvis: and short, which is softer than the long, is present over the whole body, except only the palm of the hand and sole of the foot. The hair originates in the adipose membrane from an oblong membraneous bulb, which has vessels peculiar to it. The hair is distinguished by different names in certain parts: as, capillus, on the top of the head; crinis, on the back of he head; circrinnus, on the temples; cilium, on the eye-lids; supercilium, on the eyebrows; vibrussa, in the nostrils; barba, on the chin; pappus, on the middle of the chin; mystax, on the upper lip; pilus, on the body.

CAPILLUS VENERIS. See Adianthum. CAPILLUS VENERIS CANADENSIS.

Adiantum Canadense.

CAPIPLENIUM. (From caput, the head, and plenus, full.) A catarrh. It is a barbarous word; but Baglivi uses it to signify that continual heavmess or di-order in the head, which the Greeks call Carebaria. सबदृह्दिवदाव.

CAPISTRATIO. (From capistrum, a bridle; so called because the prapuce is restrained as it were with a bridle ) See

Phymosis.

CAPISTRUM. (From caput, the head.) A bandage for the head is so called. In Vogel's Nosology it is the same as Trismus. CAPITAL. The upper part of an alem-

bic; likewise called the head.

CAPITALIA. (From caput, the head.) Cephalics: medicines which relieve disorders of the head.

CAPITELLUM. The head or seed vessels, frequently applied to mosses, &c. Some say it signifies soapy water, others say it is a lixivium.

CAPITILUVIUM. (From caput, the head, and lave, to wash. A lotion or bath for the head.

Capitis obliquus inferior et major. Obliquus inferior.

Capitis par tertium Follopii plexus minor

Capitis posticus. See Rectus major ca-

Capitis rectus. See Rectus minor capitis. CAPITULUM. (Dim. of caput, the head.) An alemb.c. In anatomy, a small head or protuberance of a bone, received into the concavity of another bone.

CAPIVI. (Indian.) A tree of Brazil. which affords the drug called balsam of

capivi. See Balsamum copaibæ.

CAPNELEUM (From narros, smoke, and exacev, oil; so named from its smoky exhatations when exposed to heat.) In Galen's works, it is said to be a resin.

CAPNIAS. (From RETTYOS, a smoke.) A jasper of a smoaky colour. Also a kind of vine which bears white and part black

CAPNISTOM. (From KATTVOS, Smoke) preparation made of spices and oil, by

kindling the spices and funngating the oil. CAPNITIS. (From RATIVOS, SINOKE; called from its smoky colour.) Tutty.

CAPNOIDES. (From καπνος, fumitory, and suboc, likeness.) A species of fumitory.

CAPNOS. Karros Fumitory: so called, says Blanchard, because its juice if applied to the eyes, produces the same effect and sensations as smoke.

CAPO MOLAGO. The Piper Indicum.

CAPPA. (à-capite, from the head; so called from its supposed resemblanee.) The herb monkstrood.

CAPPARIS. (From cabar, Arab or wapa to nattavely apay, from its curing madness and inclandingly.) The caper plant.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Cfass, Polyandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Capparis spinosa of Linuxus:-pedinculis solitariis unifloris, stipulis spinosis, foliis annus, capsulis ovalibus. The buss or unexpanded flowers of this plant, are in common use as a pickle, which is said to possess antiscorbutic virtues. The bark of the root was formerly in high esteem as a deobstruent,

The systematic CAPPARIS SPINOSA. name of the caper plant. See Capparis

CAPHEOLARIS. (From capreolus, a ten-Capreolatus. Resembling in its contortions, or other appearance, the tendrils of a vine; as the spermatic vessels.

CAPHEOLATUS. See Capreolaris.

CAPREOLUS (Dun. of caprea, a tendril.) It means the helix or circle of the ear, from its tendrild ke contortion. Dr. Turton suggests its derivation from caper, a goat, whose hom its contortions somewhat resemble.

Capricounus. Lead.

CAPRIFICUS. (From caper, a goat, and ficus, a fig; because they are a chief food of goats.) The wild fig-tree.

CAPRIZANS. Is by Galen and others used to express an inequality in the pulse, when it leaps, and, as it were, dances in uncertain strokes and periods.

CAPSELLA. (Dim. of capsa, a chest, from its resemblance.) A name in Marcellus Empiricus for viper's bugloss.

CAPSICUM. (From xx7/w, to bite, on account of its effect on the mouth.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linear n system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Guinea pepper.

2. The phermacopoial name of the Capsicum annuum of Linnaus What is generally used under the name of Cayenne pepper, is an indiscruminate mixture of the powder

of the dried pods of many species of cap-sicums, but e pecially of the capsicum manimum, or bird pepper, which is the hottest of all. These peppers have been chiefly used as condiments. They prevent flaturence from vegetable food and give warmth to the stomach, possessing all the virtues of the oriental spices, without producing those complaints of the head which the latter are apt to occasion. An abuse of them, however, gives rise to visceral obstructions, especially of the liver. In the practice of medicine, there can be little doubt that they furnish us with one of the purest and strongest stimulants which can be introduced into the stomach. Dr. Adair who first introduced them into practice, found them useful in the cachexia Africana, which he considers as a most frequent and fatal predisposition to disease among the slaves. Dr. Wright says, that in dropsical and other complaints where chalybeates are indicated, a minute portion of powdered capsicium forms an excellent addition and recommends its use in lethargic affections. This pepper has also been successfully employed in a species of eynanche maligna, which proved very fatal in the West Indies, resisting the use of Peruvian bark, wine, and other remedies commonly employed. In tropical fevers, coma and delirium arc common attendants, and in such cases cataplasms of capsicum have a speedy and happy effect. They redden the parts, but seldom blister unless when kept on too long. In ophthalmia from retaxation, the diluted juice of capsicum is found to be a valuable remedy. Adair gave six or eight grains for a dose, made into pills; or else he prepared a tincture by digesting half an ounce of the pepper in a pound of alcohol, the dose of which was one or two drachins, diluted with a sufficient quantity of water. A tinctura capsaci is now for the first time introduced into the London pharmaco. pœia.

CAPSULA. (Dim. of capsa, a chest or case.) A term given by anatomists to any membranous production enclosing a part of the body like a bag; as the capsular ligaments, the capsule of the crystalline lens, &c.

CAPSULE ATRABILARIÆ. See Renal capsules.

CAPSULE RENALES. See Renal capsules. CAPSULAR LIGAMENT. (Capsularis; from capsa, a bag.) Ligamentum capsulare. The figament which surrounds every movable articulation, and contains the synovia like a bag.

CAPSULE OF GLYSSON. Capsula communis, Glissonii. Vagina portæ. Vagina Glyssonii. A strong tunic, formed of cellular texture, which accompanies the vena

p rix, and its most minute ramifications throughout the whole liver.

CAPULUM. (From καμπτω, to bend.) A contortion of the eye-lids, or other parts.

CAPUR. (Arab.) Camphor. CAPUT. (From capio, to take; because from it, according to Varro, the senses take their origin.) The head, cranium or skull. It is situated above or upon the trunk, and united to the cervical vertebræ

For its bones, see Skull. It is distinguished into skull and face. On the skull are observed vertex, or crown; sinciput, or fore-part; occiput, or hinder part; and the temples. The parts distinguished on the face are well known; as the forehead, nose, eyes, &c. The arteries of the head are branches of the carotids; and the veins empty themselves into the jugulars.

CAPUT GALLINAGINIS. Verumontanum A cutaneous eminence in the urethra of men, before the neck of the bladder, somewhat like the head of a cock in miniature, around which the seminal duets, and the ducts of the prostate gland,

CAPUT MORTUUM. A fanciful term, much used by the old chymists, but now entirely rejected. It denoted the fixed residue of operations. As the earlier chymists did not examine these, they did not find any inconvenience in one general term to denote them : but the most slender acquaintance with modern chymistry must show that it is utterly impracticable to denote, by one general term, all the various matters that remain fixed in certain degrees of heat.

CAPUT OBSTIPUM. The wry neck.

mostly a spasmodic complaint.

CAPUT PURGIA. (A barbarous word, from caput, the head, and purgo, to purge.) Medicines which purge the head. Errhines. Masticatories.

CAPARIDION. (From narrogos, burnt.) Capyrion A medicated cake, much baked.

CAPYRION. See Capyridion.

CARABE. (Persian.) Amber. CARABE FUNERUM. A name given to

bitumen. CARABUS. A genus of insects of the beetle kind. Two species, the chrysocephalus and ferruginous, have been recommended for the tooth-ach. They must be pressed between the fingers, and then rubbed on the gum and tooth affected.

CARACOSMOS. A name of the sour mare's milk, so much admired by the Tar-

CARAGUATA. The common aloe of

CARANNA, Caragna. Caranna gummi. (Spanish.) Bresilis. A concrete resinous juice, that exudes from a large tree, of which we have no particular account. It

in little masses, rolled up in leaves of flags; externally and internally it is of a brownish colour, variegated with irregular white streaks. When fresh, it is soft and tenacious, but becomes dry and friable by keeping. Pure caranna has an agreeable aromatic smell, especially when heated, and a bitterish slightly pungent taste. It was formerly employed as an ingredient in vulnerary balsams, strengthening, discutient, and suppurating plaisters; but its scarcity has caused it to be forgotten.

CARA SCHULLI. (Indian) Frutex Indica spinosa. An Indian shrub, like the caper-bush. A decoction of the root

proves diuretic. Ray

Carawayseed. See Carum.

CARBASUS. (Kaglasos) Scribonius Lar-

gus uses this word for lint

CARBO (Carbah, Heb. burnt, or dried.) Coal. In medicine and chymistry, it is commonly understood to mean charcoal, and receives its name from its mode of preparation, which is by burning pieces of light wood into a dry black coal.

CARBO LIGNI. Charcoal. As an external application, powdered charcoal has been recommended in the cure of gangrene, from external causes, and all descriptions of fætid ulcers. Meat which has acquired a mawkish or even putrid smell, is found to be rendered perfectly sweet by rubbing

it with powdered charcoal.

CARBON. (From carbo, coal.) The chymical name of charcoal. It is the black residue of vegetables, which have suffered a complete decomposition of their volatile principles by fire. Charcoal is black, brittle, sonorous and light. It is placed among simple bodies, because no experiment has hitherto shown the possibility of decomposing it. It exists in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdom. When it is required to procure carbon in a state of great purity, it must be dried by strong ignition in a closed vessel. The diamond when burnt in oxygen gas forms charcoal. Charcoal is therefore considered to be an oxyd of diamond, and the diamond pure carbon.

CARBON, GASEOUS OXID Gaseous oxyd of carbon was first described by Dr. Priestley, who mistook it for a hydro-carbonate. With the true nature of it we have been only lately acquainted. It was first proved to be a peculiar gas, by Mr. Cruikshank, of Woolwich, who made it known to us as such, in April 1801, through the medium of Nicholson's Journal for that month. Several additional properties of this gas were soon afterwards noticed by Desormes, Clement and others. Gaseous oxyd of carbon forms an intermediate substance between the pure hydro-carbonates and carbonic acid gas; but not being possessed of is brought from New Spain and America, acid properties. Mr Cruikshank has called

it conformable to the rules of the chymical nomenclature, gaseous oxyd of carbon, for it con ists of oxygen and carbon rendered

gascons by caloric

Though the gaseous oxyd of carbon has some of the properties peculiar to the common hidro-carbonates, the following characteristic properties sufficiently prove that none of those at present known are similar to it. We are, therefore, entitled to con-

sider it as a peculiar gas.

Properties.—Gaseous oxyd of carbon is considerably lighter than any of the hydrocarbonates. It is lighter than common air, in the proportion of 22 to 23 When mingled with common air, and ignited, it does not explode, but burns with a lambent blue flame, and the product is carbonic acid. It is very little absorbable by water; it is void of taste and odour. A mixture of 20 parts of gascous oxyd of carbon and 8 of oxygen gas, fired over mercury, by electricity, diminishes to a volume equal to about 18 or 19 parts, which is carbonic acid gas. It contains neither water nor the basis of that fluid. It is exceedingly noxious; animals die in it instantly; when breathed for a few minutes only, it produces giddiness Neither light, heat, nor and faintings. electricity have any effect upon it. When equal quantities of gaseous oxyd of carbon and hydrogen gas are passed through a red-hot glass tube, the tube is lined with charcoal, water is formed, and an excess of hydrogen makes its escape. If a piece of iron be put into the tube, it is oxydated, but not converted into steel. Neither nitrogen gas nor sulphur have any action on it even at high temperatures. It is capable of dissolving a minute quantity of charcoal, and increases in bulk. It dissolves phosphorus and acquires the property of The alkalies burning with a yellow flame. have no effect on this gas. It is not altered when passed with ammonia through an When the red oxyd of merignited tube. cury is heated in it, a commencement of reduction takes place. Neither sulphuric, nitric, nor nitro-muriatic acids, alter it, when passed with it through a red-hot tube. Four parts of oxygenated muriatic acid gas teft with one of carbonic acid gas, decompose it completely. Nitrous gas has no effect upon it. When mixed with sulphurated hydrogen gas, and passed through a red-hot tube, sulphur is deposited, and sulphurated hydrogen gas remains mixed with gaseous oxyd of carbon.

Methods of obtaining Gaseous Oxyd of Carbon.—Gaseous oxyd of carbon may be obtained by a decomposition of carbonic acid at high temperatures, by means of various fixed substances which have a considerable affinity to oxygen. This may be done by distilling a mixture of charcoal with any of the metallic oxyds, or by ex-

posing to a strong red heat, a mixture of carbonate of lime or barytes, and filings of iron, zinc, &c.

The method of obtaining the gaseous oxyd of carbon in a state of purity, recommended by Mr. Cruikshank, is the follow-

ng:

1. Take one part of chalk, previously exposed to a low red heat, for about ten minutes, mix it with an equal quantity of perfectly dry filings of z nc; let the mixture be introduced into a retort, and expose it to a heat gradually increased. As soon as the retort becomes of a dull red heat, gas will be disengaged in great abundance. The gas which comes over first is carbonic acid gas, but as soon as the retort becomes thoroughly ignited, pure gaseous oxyd of carbon is liberated in a prodigious quantity, which may be collected in the usual manner over water.

In this process, a decomposition of the carbonic acid of the chalk takes place in its nascent state. The zinc robs the carbonic acid of part of its oxygen at a high temperature, and becomes to a certain degree oxydated. The carbonic acid, by being thus deprived of part of its oxygen, becomes converted into a new inflammable gas, which is the gascous oxyd of carbon.

Carbonaceous acid. See Carbonic acid. CARBONAS A carbonate. A neutral salt, formed by the union of carbonic acid with an alkaline, earthy, or metallic base. The carbonates employed in medicine are some of them perfect and some imperfect.

The imperfect carbonates in use are-

1. The subcarbonas potassæ.

The subcarbonas sodæ.
 The subcarbonas sodæ exsiccata.

4. The subcarbonas plumbi. The perfect carbonates are—

The carbonas ammoniæ.
 The liquor carbonatis ammoniæ.

3. The carbonas potassæ.

4 The carbonas sodæ.5. The creta præparata.

6. The carbonas magnesiæ.

7. The carbonas ferri

CARBONAS AMMONIÆ. Carbonate of animonia. This preparation was formerly called animonia preparata, and sal volatilis salis animoniaci, and sal volatilis. It is made thus:—take of muriate of animonia, a pound; of prepared chalk, dried, two pounds. Reduce them seperately to powder; then mix them together, and sublime in a heat gradually raised, till the retort becomes red.

This salt possesses nervine and stimulating powers, and is highly beneficial in the dosc of from two to eight grains, in nervous affections, debilities, flatulency,

from acidity and dyspepsia.

CARBONAS CALCIS. Carbonate of lime. Several of these are used in medi-

cine; the purest and best are the creta preparati, chelæ cancrorum, testæ ostrearum, testæ ovorum, and occuli cancrorum.

CARBONAS PLUMBI. See Cerussa. CARBONAS POTASSÆ. Carbonate of potash. This preparation, which has been long known by the name of Kali ara tum, appeared in the last London pharmacopæia, for the first time. It is made thus:—Take of subcarbonate of potash, made from tartar, a pound; carbonate of ammonia three ounces; distilled water, a pint. Having previously dissolved the subcarbonate of potash in the water, add the carbonate of ammonia: then, by means of a sand-bath, apply a heat of 180° for three hours, or until the ammonia shall be driven off; lastly, set the solution by, to crystallize. The remaining solution may be evaporated in the same manner, that

crystals may again form when it is set by. This process was invented by Bertholet. The potash takes the carbonic acid from the ammonia, which is volatile, and passes off in the temperature employed. It is, however, very difficult to detach the ammonia entirely. Potash is thus saturated with carbonic acid, of which it contains double the quantity that the subcarbo-nate of potash does; it gives out this proportion on the addition of muriatic acid, and may be converted again into the subsalt, by heating it again a short time, to redness. It is less nauseous to the taste than the subcarbonate; it crystallizes, and does not deliquesce. Water, at the common temperature, dissolves one fourth its weight, and at 212°, five-sixths; but this latter heat detaches some of the carbonic

The carbonate of potash is generally used for the purpose of imparting carbonic acid to the stomach, by giving a scruple in solution with a table spoon-ful of lemon-

juice, in the act of effervescing.

CAREONAS SODE. Carbonate of soda, a pound; of the subcarbonate of soda, a pound; of the carbonate of ammonia, three ounces; of distilled water, a pint. Having previously dissolved the soda in the water, add the ammonia: then, by means of a sand-bath, apply a heat of 180° for three hours, or until the ammonia is driven off. Lastly, set the solution by, to crystallize. The remaining solution may, in the same manner, be evaporated, and set by, that crystals may again form.

This salt which is called also aërated soda and natron, bears to the subcarbonate of soda, the same relation that the carbonate of potash does to its subcarbonate. It is prepared in the same way, possesses the same comparative advantages, and contains double the quantity of carbonic acid.

CARBONAS MAGNESIÆ. Magnesia alba. The carbonate of magnesia. This

preparation is variously prepared. The college of physicians of London direct it thus:—Take of sulphate of magnesia, of subcarbonate of potash, of each a pound; water, three gallons. Dissolve the subcarbonate of potash in three pints of the water, and strain. Dissolve also the sulphate of magnesia separately, in five pints of the water, and strain; then add the rest of the water to the latter solution, apply heat, and, when it boils, pour in the former solution, stirring them well together; next, strain through a linen cloth; lastly, wash the powder repeatedly with boiling water, and dry it upon bibulous paper, in a heat of 200 deg.

Carbonate of magnesia is esteemed as an aperient and antacid, and is given against constipation, flatulency, acidity of the stomach, and its effects. The dose is from

ten grains to a drachm.

CARBONAS FERRI Ferrum practipitatum. Carbonate of iron. This preparation is made by decomposing the sulphate of iron by the subcarbonate of soda, thus—Take of the sulphate of iron, eight ounces; subcarbonate of soda, ten ounces; boiling water, a gallon. Dissolve the sulphate of iron and subcarbonate of soda separately, each in four pints of water; next mix the solutions together, and set it by, that the precipitated powder may subside; then, having poured off the supernatant liquor, wash the carbonate of iron with hot water, and dry it upon bibulous paper, in a gentle heat.

This salt is a subcarbonate of iron, and not a perfect carbonate. It is substituted for the rubigo ferri of the former pharmacopæias. It is much esteemed as a mild chalph-ate, and is given in the dose of

from five grains to a scruple.

CARBONATED HYDROGEN GAS, LIGHT Light carbonated hydrogen gas is hydrogen gas holding charcoal in solution. There are several combinations of this kind of gas obtained by different processes, which differ in their properties, and in the proportion of their constituent principles.

Properties.—Light carbonated hydrogen gas has a fætid odour. It is neither absorbed nor altered by water. It is inflammable, and burns with a denser and deeper coloured flame than hydrogen gas. It is unalterable by acids or alkalies, and by water. Its specific gravity is greater than that of hydrogen gas, or that of common air. Its combustion with a due proportion of oxygen gas, is product ve of water and carbonic acid. When passed through melted sulphur, it becomes converted into sulphurated hydrogen gas, and charcoal is deposited. Electrization dilates it permanently to a little more than twice its original bulk. The air thus expanded, re-

dures a greater quantity of oxygen to decompose it, than the same quantity of gas not dilated by electricity; 100 cubic inches of pure carbonated hydrogen gas weigh from

16 to 24 grains.

Light carbonated hydroden gas may be obtained from animal, vegetable, or mineral substances. Nature produces it ready formed in marshes and disches, on the surface of putrid water, in burying-places, common sewers, and in those situations where putrid animal and vegetable matters are accumulated. It is also generated in the intestinal canal of living animals.

1. Light carbonated hydrogen gas may be plentifully procured from most stagnant waters: to do this, fill a wide-mouthed bottle with the water, and keep it inverted therem, with a finnel in its neck; then, with a stick, stir the mid at the bottlom, just under the funnel in the bottle, so as to let the bubbles of air, which rise from the mid, enter into the bottle; when, by thus stirring the inud in various places, and catching the air in the bottle, it is filled, it must be corked nader water.

2. It may be also obtained during the distillation of animal and vegetable mat-

ters. For instance:

Let shavings of wood, or saw-dust, be put into a retort, and begin the distillation with a gentle heat, increasing it gradually, till the retort becomes red hot; a great quantity of gas will be liberated, which may be caught over water. On examining this gas, it will be found to consist of carbonic acid gas and carbonated hydrogen gas. In order to obtain the latter in a state of purity, the whole must be mixed with lime-water, or with a caustic alkalme solution. The carbonic acid gas will be absorbed, and the carbonated hydrogen gas left behind, in a pure state.

The production of this gas in this manner, is the result of a partial analysis of the wood. It proves that wood contains solid hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen. When the intensity of the heat has reached a certain degree, a part of the charcoal unites with part of the oxygen and produces carbonic acid, which, by means of caloric, is melted into the gaseous state, and forms carbonic acid gas; at the same time, a part of the hydrogen of the wood combines with another portion of carbon and caloric, and forms carbonated hydrogen gas.

Remark.—The flame of burning wood, &c. is the inflamed carbonated hydrogen gas, liberated on the application of caloric

to such bodies.

3. Charcoal is in general made use of for obtaining light carbonated hydrogen gas. For this purpose, put some moistened charcoal into an earthen retort, apply heat, and increase it till the retort becomes ig-

nited; gas will be evolved, consisting partly of carbonic acid gas, and partly of light carbonated hydrogen gas, which may be separated as before.

In this case a decomposition of the water takes place, by means of the charcoal. The oxygen forsakes its hydrogen, and unites to part of the charcoal, at this temperature, and forms carbonic acid gas, in conjunction with caloric; the liberated hydrogen assisted by caloric, dissolves another portion of the charcoal, and forms with it light carbonated hydrogen gas.

4. Light carbonated hydrogen gas may be formed in a dovet manner, by dissolving charcoal in hydrogen gas. This may be effected by directing the rays of the sun collected in the focus of a mirror, upon a small piece of charcoal placed on mercury, in a receiver filled with hydrogen

gas.

CARBONATED HYDROGEN GAS, HEAVY. This gas was first brought into notice by a society of Dutch chymists, consisting of Deiman, Troostwyk, Bond, and Laurenburgh. They observed in this gas the particular property, that when it was combined with oxygenated nutriatic acid gas, in a certain proportion, the elastic form of both fluids became destroyed, and an oil was produced; for which reason

they called it Olefiant gas.

Properties .- He vy carbonated hydrogen gas is not absorbed craftered by water. Its weight, compared with common air, is as 909 to 1000. It has a disagreeable fætid odour, different from that of light carbonated hydrogen gas. It burns with a strong compact flame, similar to that of a resinous oil. When mixed with oxygenated muriatic acid gas, its bulk is diminished, and an oil is formed. When the mixture of these two gases is fired, a quantity of charcoal is immediately deposited, in the form of fine soot. Sulphuric, sulphureous. nitrie, nitrous, and muriatic acids do not act upon it; neither does nitrous gas, nor any of the fixed alkalies. Ammonia adds to its volume without occasioning any other change. Phosphorus heated in it, even to fusion does not affect it. When made to pass through an Ignited glass tube, it does not diminish in volume, but loses the property of forming oil with exvengated muriatic acid gas. Electric shocks passed through it, dilate and likewise d prive it of this property. When passed through an ignited porcelain tube, it affords hydrogen gas mingled with carbonic acid, and carbon is deposited. When passed through a tube with sulphur in fusion, sulphurated hydro. gen gas is obtained, and charcoal-deposited. When burnt with oxygen gas, or when passed through a red-hot tube, filled with oxyd of manganese, carbonic acid gas is formed,

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Preparation.—Heavy carbonated hydrogen gas is obtained by decomposing alcohol by sulphuric acid, at high temperatures. It is also obtained in abundanc when alcohol or other is passed through a red-liberature, sulphuric ether mixed with sulphuric acid, and subjected to heat, also thards it, but in a less pure state.

The Dutch chymists observed, that if the vapour of ardent spirit or ether be made to pass through a glass tube, over the component parts of the earthern tube, namely, alumine and silex, this gas was also produced; or by passing it through a

red-not tube of pipe-clay.

In order to obtain this gas the following

method may serve:

Let four parts of concentrated sulphuric acid, and one of highly rectified ardent spirit, be mingled together gradually in a glass retort; heat will be developed, the mixture will become brown, and heavy carbonated hydrogen gas will be extricated without the application of external heat. When a moderate heat is applied, the action is very violent, and the gas is liberated very copiously, and may be received over water.

The gas obtained, is always mixed with a considerable quantity of sulphureous acid gas, from which it may be freed by agitating it in contact with lime-water, or a

solution of potash.

Remark.—In this operation the heat ought to be regulated with great care, and the retort holding the mixture ought to be very capacious, otherwise the matter will be forced over into the receiver. The heat of a candle, or lamp, is sufficient,

CARBONIC ACID GAS. Acidum Carbonicum. Fixed air. Carbonaecous acid. Acidal acid. Carbonic acid gas is the first elastic acriform fluid that was known. We find that the ancients were in some measure acquainted with it Van Helmont called it the gas of Must, or of the vintage, or gas sylvestre.

We are indebted to Dr. Black of Edinburgh for the knowledge of some of the most remarkable properties of this fluid. In the year 1755 he discovered the affinity between this gas and alkalies: and Bergman, in 1772, proved that it was an

acid.

Properties—Carbonic acid gas is invisible. It extinguishes flame. It is fatal to animal life. It exerts powerful effects on living vegetables. Its taste is pungent and acid. Its energy, as an acid, is but feeble, although distinct and certain. Neither light or caloric seem to produce any distinct effect upon it, except that the latter dilates it. It mixes without combining with oxygen gas. It unites with wa'er slowly. These two fluids, after considerable agitation, at last combine, and form a sub-acid fluid. The

colder the water, and the greater the pressure applied, the more carbonic acid gas will be absorbed. The water impregnated with it, sparkles upon agitation; it has a pungent acidulous taste, and reddens tincture of litmus. Heat again disengages the gas from the water. This gas precipitates lime, strontia, and barytes, from their solutions in water. It is greedily attracted by all the alkalies. It undergoes no alteration by light. Its specific weight is to that of atmospheric air, as 1500 to 1000. It may be poured out of one vessel into another. It is not acted upon by oxygen, nor is it altered by any of the simple combustible bodies at common temperatures; but phosphorus, iron, and lime, are capable of decomposing it, when assisted by heat. Methods of obtaining Carbonic Acid Gas.

Of all the gases, carbonic acid gas is that, perhaps, which is diffused in the greatest abundance throughou, nature. It

greatest abundance throughout nature. It is found in three different states:—1st, In that of gas; 2dly, In that of mixture; and 3dly, In that of combination. The various processes for obtaining it are the

following:

1. Put into a common glass-bottle, or retort, a little marble, ehalk, or limestone and pour on it sulphuric acid, diluted with about six times its weight of water, an effervescence will ensue, and earbonic acid gas will be liberated, which those who have an opportunity may collect over mereury; but a mercurial apparatus is not absolutely necessary, since the gas may be collected over water, if it is to be used immediately when procured.

In this instance the carbonic acid is disengaged from the state of combination, and reduced to the acriform state of gas. The marble, lime-stone, or chalk, consists of this acid and lime; on presenting to it sulphuric acid, a decomposition takes place, the sulphuric acid has a greater affinity to the lime than the car-

bonic acid has; it therefore unites to it, and forms sulphate of lime, disengaging at the same time, the carbonic acid in the state of gas, at the temperature of our at-

mosphere.

Remark.—Carbonic acid gas may, in this manner, be disengaged from all its combinations with alkales; by using indifferently any other dense acid, possessing a superior affinity to the alkali in the common acceptation of the word.

2. It may likewise be obtained from the same substances by the action of caloric.

For this purpose, reduce marble, or chalk, to powder; introduce it into a gunbarrel, which must be placed across a furnace; adapt a bent tube to its lower extremity, and insert it below a receiver in the pneumatic apparatus. Maintain a strong heat, till the barrel is brought to a state of

ignition, and at that temperature carbonic acid gas will be liberated in abundance.

In this case, a decomposition of the marble or carbonate of ame takes place, on account of the action of caloric, which at a high temperature breaks the affinity of the carbonic acid and lime; it unites with the first, and leaves the lime behind in that state which is generally called quick line.

5. Carbonic acid gas may also be obtained by burning charcoal in oxygen gas.

Take a bell-glass, filled with oxygen gas, resting inverted in a basin of mercury; pass up into it some bits of new-made charcoal, with some touch-paper affixed to then; set fire to them by means of a lens collecting the sun's rays, and carbonic acid will be produced by the combustion of the

Carbonic acid gas is often found occupying the lower parts of mines, caverus, tombs, and such other subterraneous places as contain materials for producing it. It is called choke, or chaik-damp. The grotto del Cane, near Naples, has long been famous for the quantity of carbonic acid gas produced there, which runs out at the opening like a stream of water. The quantity of carbonic acid gas generated in this cavern, is so great, that a dog, or any other animal, is immediately killed if his nose be thrust into it.

The carbonic acid, existing naturally in the state of gas, may be collected by filling bottles with water and emptying them into the atmosphere of this gas; the gas takes the place of the water, and fills the bottles, which must then be

Carbonic acid gas is likewise formed during fermentation; on account of its great weight, it occupies the apparently empty space, or upper part of the vessel, in which the fermenting process is going on. It may in this case, be collected in a

manner smilar to that above.

Carbonic acid gas is also obtained during the reduction of metallic oxyds, and during the deflagration of nitrates with combustible bodies. This gas is much esteemed in the cure of typhus fevers, and irritability and weakness of stomach producing vomit-Against the former diseases it is given by administering yeast, bottle porter, and the like; and for the latter it is disengaged from the carbonated alkali by lemon juice in a draught given while efferveseing

CARBUNCLE. (Dim. of carbo, a burning coal.) Carbo. Rubinus verus. Codesella. Erythema gangranosum. Granatristrum. Pruna. Persicus ignis of Avicenua. An inflammatory tumour which soon becomes gangrenous. See .Inthrax.

CARBUNCULUS. Sce Carbuncle. Cancarus. Carcaros. (From xxexxee,

o resound.) A kind of fever in which the

patient has a continual horror and trembling, with an uncesasing sounding in his

CARCAS. The Barbadoes nut-tree, the Cataputia,

CAREAX. (From Raga, a head.) A spe-

CARCER. Paracelsus means by it, a remedy proper for restraining the disorder by motions of body and mind, as in curing the chorea Sancti Viti.

CARCHESIUS. (Kaganous.) A mane of some bandages noticed by Galen, and described by Oribasius. Properly it is the top of a ship's mast.

CARCINOMA. (From ragents, a cancer, and using, to feed upon.) See Cancer. CARCINOS. (Kagniy 3, a cancer.) See

CARDAMANTICA. (From nagoapor, the nasturtium.) A species of sciatica cresses. CARDAMELEUM. A medicine of no note,

mentioned by Galen,

CARDAMINE. (From nagolia, the heart; because it acts as a cordial and strengthener, or from its having the taste of cardamum, that is, nasturtium, or cress.) Cuckoo flower.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Or-

der, Siliquosa.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common lady's smock, or cuckoo flower. Cardamine pratensis of Linnaus:—foliis pinnatis, foliolis radicalibus subrotundis, cantinis lanceolatis. This plant is also called Cardamantica. Nasturtium aquaticum Culi flos. Iberis sophia. It is the flower of this plant which has a place in the materia me-dica, upon the authority of Sir George Baker, who has published five cases, two of chorea Sancti Viti, one of spasmsodic asthma, and hemiphlegia, and a case of spasmodic affections of the lower limbs, wherein the flores cardamines were supposed to have been successfully used. A variety of virtues have been given to this plant, which do not deserve the attention of practitioners.

CARDAMINE PRATENSIS. The systematic name of the plant called cardamine in the pharmacopæias. See Cardamine.

CARDAMINES FLORES. See Cardamine.

CARDAMOMUM. (From καρθαμον, and αμωμον: because it partakes of the nature, and is like both the cardamum and amomum.) The cardamom seed, or grains of Paradise.

CARDAMOMUM MAJUS. A large, brown, somewhat triangular husk, the thickness of one's thumb, and pyramidial. A large, The seeds resemble the grana paradisi; their virtues are similar to those of the cardamomum minus.

CARDAMOMUM MEDIUM. seeds correspond, in every respect, with the lesser, except in size, they being twice as long, but no thicker than the cardamo -mum minus.

CARDAMOMUM MINUS. Officinal cardan ini. Amomum repens, seu le cardamome de la côte de Malabar, of Sonnerat. Eletturia cardamomum, of Maton in Act. Soc. Liu. Class, Monandria. Order, Monogynia. The seeds of this plant are imported in their capsules or husks, by which they are preserved, for they soon lose a part of their flavour when freed from this covering. On being chewed they impart a glowing aroma ic warmth, and grateful pungency; they are supposed gently to stimulate the stomach, and prove cordial, carminative, and antispasmodic, but without that irritation and heat which many of the other spicy aromatics are apt to produce. Simple and compound spirituous tinctures are prepared from them, and they are ordered as a spicy ingredient in many of the officinal compositions.

CARDAMONUM PIHERATUM. The grains

of Paradise.

CARDAMOMUM SIBERIENSE. The Ani-

sum Indicum.

CARDAMUM. (From xxgdx, the heart; because it comforts and strengthens the heart.) Garden cresses.

CARDIA. (From reag, the heart; so the Greeks called the heart.) The superior opening of the stomach.

CARDIACA. (From ungoin, the heart.)

1. Cordials. See Cordials.

2. The pharmacoperal name of motherwort. So named from the supposed relief it gives in fain-ings and disorders of the stomach. Agripalma gallis. Marrubium. Cardiaca crispa. Leonurus cardiaca of Lanavus:—fodis caulinis lanceolatis, trilobis. The leaves of this plant have a disagreeable smeil and a bitter taste, and are said to be serviceable in disorders of the stomach of children, to promot the uterine discharge, and to a lay p. lpitations of the heart.

CAHDIACA CONFECTIO. See Confectio aro-

matica.

Campiaca passio. The cardiac passion. Ancient writers frequently mention a disor or under this name, but the moderns always speck of it as a syncope.

CARDIACTS MORBUS. A name by which

the ancients called the typhus fever.

CARDIALGIA. (From napola, the cardia, and axyew, to be pained.) Pain at the The heartburn. Dr. Callen ranks it as a species of dyspepsia. burn is an uneasy sensation in the stomach, with anxiety, a heat more or less violent, and sometimes attended with oppression, faintness, an inclination to vomit, or a plentiful discharge of clear lymph, like saliva, This pain may arise from various and different causes; such as flatus; from sharp humours, either acid, bilious, or rancid; from worms gnawing and vellicating the coats of the stomach; from acrid and pungent food, such as spices, aromatics, &c; as also from rheumatic and gouty humours, or surfeits; from too free a use of tea, or watery fluids relaxing the stomach, &c.; from the natural mucus being abraded, particularly in the upper ordice of the stomach

CARDIALGIA INFLAMMATORIA. Inflam-

mation in the stomach.

Cardialgia sputatoria, i- e. pyrosis. See Purosis.

CANDIMELECH. (From ragedia, the heart, and meleck, Heb. a governor.) A fictuous term in Doiæus's Encyclopædia, by which he would express a particular active principle in the heart, appointed to what we call the vital functions.

CARDIMONA. A name for Cardialgia. Cardinal flowers, blue. See Lobelia.

CARDINAMENTUM. (From cardo, a hinge,) A sort of articulation like a hinge.

CARDIOGMUS. (From x2geluarax, to have a pain in the stomach.) The same as Cardialgia. Also an aneurism in the aorta, near the beart, which occasions pain in the præcordia.

Cardionchus. (From angola, the heart, and opass, a tumour.) An aneurism in the heart, or in the aorta near the heart.

Carpiotrotes. (From καρδία, the heart, and τιτεωσκω, to wound.) One who bath

a wound in his heart.

. CARDITIS. (From xagdia, the heart.) Inflammation of the heart. It is a genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class pyrexiae, and order phlegmasiae. It is known by pyrexia, pain in the region of the stomach, great anxiety, difficulty of breathing, cough, irregular pulse, palpitation, and fainting, and the other symptoms of inflammation.

CARDO. (A hinge.) The articulation called Ginglymus; also the second vertebra

of the neck.

Cardonium. So Paracelsus calls wine medicated with herbs.

CARDOPATIA. The low carline thistle,

said to be diaphoretic,

CARDUUS. (à carere, quusi aptus carende lanz, being fit to tease wool; or from xiga, to abrade; so named from its roughness, which abrades and tears whatever it meets with) The thistle, or teasel. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqualis.

CARDUUS ACANTHUS. The bear's breech.

CARDUUS ALTILIS. The artichoke.

CARDUUS BENEDICTUS. Cuicus sylvestris. Blessed or holy thistle. Centaurea benedicta; calycibus duplicato spinosis lanatis involucratis, folis semi decurrentibus denticulato-spinosis of Linnæus. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia frustranea. This exotic plant, a native of Spain and some of the Archipelago islands, obtained the name of Benedictus, from its being supposed to possess extraordmary medicinal virtues. In loss of apetite, where the stomach was injured by irregularities, its good effects

have been frequently experienced. It is a powerful bitter tonic and adstringent. Bergius considers it as antacid, corroborant, stomachic, sudorific, diuretic, and eccoprotic. Ch momile flowers are now generally substituted for the carduus benedictus, and are thought to be of at least equal

CARDUUS HEMORRHOIDALIS. (So called because it is said to relieve the pains of the hæmorrhoids, if beat into a poultice and applier.) Also called carduus vinearum re-pens, sonchi folio, cirsum arvense, ceanothos. The common creeping way thistle. Serratula arvensis of Linuxus.

CAUDUUS LACTEUS. See Cardinis Maria. CARDUUS LACTEUS SYRIACUS. Spanish milk-thistle. Stomachic and ano-

CARDUUS MARIE. Carduus afois maculis notatus vulgaris, C. B. Common milk-thistle, or Lady's thistle. The seeds of this plant, Carduus marianus; foliis amplexicaulibus, hastato-pinnatifidis, spinosis; calicibus aphyllis; spinis caniliculatis, du-plicato-spinosis, of Linnaus, and the herb have been employed medicinally. former contains a bitter oil, and are re-commended as relaxants. The juice of the latter is said to be salutary in dropsies, in the dose of four ounces; and, according to Millar, to be efficacious against pungent

The systematic CARDUES MARIANUS. name of the officinal Carduns maria.

CARDUUS SATIVUS. The artichoke.

CARDUUS SOLSTITIALIS. The calcitrapa officinalis.

CARDULS TOMENTOSUS. The woolly thistle. The plant distinguished by this name\* in the pharmacopaias, is the Onopordium acanthium of Vinneus:—calycibus squaveosis; squamis patentibus; foilis avato oblongis, sinuatis. Is expressed juice has been recommended as a cure for cancer, either applied by moistening last with it, or mixing some simple farmaccous substance, so as to form a poultice, which should be in contact with the disease, and renewed twice

CAREHHARIA. (From xzgn, the head, and £zgoc, weight.) A painful and uneasy heavi-

ness of the head.

CARENUM. (From wage, the head.) Galen uses this word for the head

CAREUM VINUM Strong wine, CAREUM. From Carea, the country wheree they were brought) The caraway.

CAREX. (From cares, not quia riribus careat, but because, from its rouganess, it is fit ad carendum, to card, tease, or pull.) Sedge. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnean system. Class, Monoecia. Order, Triandria.

CAREX AREVARIA. The systematic name of the officinal sarsaparilla Germanica. See Sursaparilla Germanica.

(From Carica, the place CARICA.

where they are cultivated.) Ficus. Ficus vulgaris. Ficus communis. Yuxn of tle Greeks. The fig. The plant which affords this fruit is the Ficus Carica of Linnæus. Fresh figs, are, when completely ripe, soft, succutent, and easily digested, unless eaten in immoderale quantities, when they are apt to occasion flatulency, pain of the bowels, and dearrhosa. The dried fruit, which is sold in our shops, is pleasanter to the taste, and more wholsome and nutritive. They are directed in the decoctum hordei compositum, and in the electuarium lenitivum. Applied externally, they promote the suppuration of tumours; hence they have a place in maturing cataplasms; and are very convenient to apply to the gums, and, when boiled with milk, to the throat.

Carica Papara. Papaw tree. Every part of the p paw tree, except the tipe fruit, affords a misky jusce, which is used, in the Isle of France, as an eff ctual remedy for the tape worm. In Europe, however, whither it has been sent in the concrete state, it has not answered, perhaps from some change it had undergone, or not having been given in a sufficient dose.

CARICUM. (From Caricus, its inventor.) Carycum. An ointment for cleansing ulcers, composed of helleborc, lead, and cantharides.

CARIES. (From carah, Chald) Bottenness, or mortification of the bones.

CARIMA. The cassada bread.

CARINA. A name formerly applied to the back bone.

CARLUM TERRA. Lime.

CARIVILLANDI. A name of sarsaparilla

CARLINA. (From Carolus, Charles the Great, or Charlemagne; because it was believed that an angel shewed it to him, and that, by the use of it, his army was preserved from the plague.) Carline thistle. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygama aqualis. The officinal name of two kinds of plants. See Chamæmelon album and Cirlina gummifera.

CARLINA SCAULIS. The systematic name

of the chamemelon album.

CARLINA GUMMIFERA. Carduus pinea. Ixine Pine thistle. This plant is the Atracylis gumnifera of Linnaus. The root, when wounded, yields a milky, viscous juice, which concretes into tenacious masses, at first whitish, resembling wax, when much handled growing black; it is said to be chewed with the same views as mastich.

Cariine thistle. S & Chameleon album.

CARLO SAVETO RADIX. St. Charles's roct; so called by the Spaniards, on account of its great virtues. It is found in Mechaechan, a province in America. Its bark bath an aromatic flavour, with a bitter acrid taste. The root itself consists of slender fibres. The bark is sudoritic, and strengthens the gums and stomach.

CARMEN. (A verse; because charms usually consisted of a verse.) A charm; an

amulet.

Canmelite water; so named from its inventors; composed of baum, lemon-pecl, &c.

CARMINANTIA. See Carminatives.
CARMINATIVES. (Carminativa, sc. medicamenta. from carmen, a verse or charm; because practitioners, in ancient times, ascribed their operation to a charm or enchantment.) A term applied to those substances which allay pain, and disperflatulencies of the prima via. The principal carminatives are the semina cardamouni, anisi et carni; olca essentialia carui, anisi et juniperi; confectio aromatea; pulvis aromaticus; tinctura cardamomi; tinctura cinamomi composita; zinziber; tonics, bitters, and astringents.

CARNABADIUM. Caraway seed.

CARNEÆ COLUMNÆ. The fleshy pillars or columns in the cavities of the heart. See *Heart*.

CARNICULA. (Dim. of caro, carnis, the flesh) The fleshy substance which sur-

rounds the gunis.

CANTIFORMIS. (From caro, flesh, and forma, likeness) Having the appearance of flesh. It is commonly applied to an abscess where the flesh surrounding the orifice is hardened and of a firm consistence.

CARO Flesh. The red part or belly of

a muscle; also the pulp of fruit.

CARO ADNATA. The recent swelled testicle.

CARDLINA See Carlina.

Canopi. The amomum verum.

Carona. The name of a vessel that resembles an urisal.

Canosis. See Carus. Canora. See Daucus.

CAHOTIDIE ARTERIE, See Carotides.

CAROTID ARTERY. (From nagow, to cause to sleep; so called because, if tied with a ligature, they cause the animals to be comatose, and have the appearance of being asleep. The carotids are two considerable arteries that proceed, one on cach side of the cervical vertebia, to the head, to supply it with blood. The right carotid does not arise immediately from the arch of the aorta, but is given off from the arteria innominata. arises from the arch of the aorta. Each carotid is divided into external and internal, or that portion without and that within the cranium. The external gives off eight branches to the neck and face, viz. anteriorly, the superior thyroidcal, the sublingual, the inferior maxillary, the external maxillary; posteriorly, the internal maxillary, the occipital, the external auditory, and the temporal. The internal carotid or cerebral artery, gives off four branches within the cavity of the cranium; the

anterior cerebral, the posterior, the central artery of the optic nerve, and the internal orbital.

CAROUM. The caraway seed.

CARPASUS. (So named @422 TO XA25) @2010 Act : because it makes the person who eats it appear as if he was asleep.) An herb, the juice of which was formerly called opocarpason, opocarpathon, or opocalpason: according to Galen it resembles myrch; but is esteemed highly poisonous.

Carpathicus Balsamus. Oleum Germanis. Carpathicum. This balsam is obtained both by wounding the young branches of the Pinus cembra of Linnaus: —foliis quinis, levibus, and by boiling them. It is mostly diluted with turpentine, and comes to us in a very liquid and pellucid state, rather white.

CARPENTARIA. (From Earpentarius, a carpenter; and so named from its virtues in healing cuts and wounds made by a tool.) A vulnerary herb; but not properly

known what it is.

Carphaleus. (From wagow, to exsiccate,) Hippocrates uses this word to mean dry, opposed to moist.

CARPHUS. (From \*\*zep\*\*, a straw.) In Hippocrates it signifies a mote, or any small substance. A pustule of the smallest kind. Also the herb frangreek.

CARPIA. (From carpo, to pluck off, as lint is from linen cloth.) Lint. See Lint.

CARPISMUS. The wrist.

CARPOBALSAMUM. (From μαςπος, frait, and βαλσαμον, balsam.) See Balsamum Gileadense.

CARPOLOGAI. (From curpo, to pluck or pull gently.) Picking the clothes, as in dangerous fevers.

CARPUS. (Kagros, the wrist.) The wrist, or carpus. It is situated between the fore arm and hand. See Bones.

Carrot. See Daucus.

Carrot, candy. See Daucus Creticus. Carrot poultice. See Cataplasma dauci.

CARTHAMUS. (From xxbx1ga, to purge.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Syngenesia.

Order, Polygamia aqualis.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the saffron flower, Carthamus tinctorius of Linnæus:-foliis ovatis, integris, serrato aculeatis: called also Cnicus, Crocus Saracenicus, Carthamum officinarum, Carduus sativus. plant is cultivated in many places on account of its flowers, which are used as a yellow die. The seeds, freed from their shells, have been celebrated as a gentle cathartic in a dose of one or two drachms. They are also supposed to be diuretic and expectorant; particularly useful in humoral asthma, and similar complaints. The carthamus lanatus is considered in France, as a febrifuge and sudorific. The dried flowers are frequently mixed with saffror, to adulterate it.

CARTHAMUS TINCTORIES. The systematic name of the safflower plant. See Carthamus.

CARTHUSIANUS. (From the Monks of that order, who first invented it.) A name of the precipitated sulphur of antimony.

CARTILAGE. (Quasi carnilago; from caro, carmis, flesh.) A white clastic, glistering substance, growing to bones, and commonly called gristle. Cartilages are divided, by anatomits into obducent, which cover the moveable articulations of bones; inter-articular, which are situated between the articulations, and uniting cartilages, which unite one bone with another. Their use is to lubricate the articulations of bones, and to connect some bones by an immoveable connexion.

CARTILAGO ANNULARIS. See Car-

tilago cricoidea.

CARTILAGO ARYTÆNOIDEA.

CARTILAGO CRICOIDEA, The cricoid cartilage belongs to the larynx, and is situated between the thyroid and arytenoid cartilages and the trachea; it constitutes, as it were, the basis of the many annular cartilages of the trachea.

CARTILAGO ENSIFORMIS. Cartilago xyphoidea Ensiform cartilage. A cartilage shaped somewhat like a sword or dagger, attached to the lowermost part of the sternum, just at the pit of the stomach.

CARTILAGO SCUTIFORMIS. See Thyroid

cartilage,

CARTILAGO THYROLDEA. See Thyroid car-

CARTILAGO XYPHOIDEA.

ensi formis. CARUI. (Carnia, Arabian.) The cara-

See Cartilago

way. See Carum.

CARUM. (Kagos: so named from Caria, a province of Asia.) The caraway.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the caraway plant. It is also called Carvi Cuminum pratense. Caros. Carnon. And is the Carum carui of Linnæus. The seeds are well known to have a pleasant spicy smell, and a warm aromatic taste; and, on this account, are used for various economical purposes. They are esteemed to be carminative, cordial, and stomachic, and recommended in dyspepsia, flatulencies, and other symptoms attending hysterical and hypochondriacal disorders. An essential oil and distilled water are directed to be prepared from them by the London college.

CARUM CARUI. The systematic name

for the plant whose seeds are called cara-

way. See Carum.

(Diminutive of care, CARUNCLE. flesh.) Caruncula. A little fleshy excrescence; as the carunculæ myrtiformes, carunculæ lachrymales, &c.

CARUNCULA LACHRYMALIS. long considal gland, red externally, situated in the internal canthus of each eye, before the union of the eyelids. It appears to be formed of numerous sebaceous glands, from which many small hairs grow. The hardened smegma observable in this part of the eye in the morning, is separated by this carmincle.

CARUNCULE CUTICULARES ALE.

uymphæ.

CARUNCULE MAMMILLARES. The extre-

mities of the tubes in the nipple.

CARUNCULÆ MYRTIFORMES. When the hymen has been lacerated by attrition, there remains in this place two, three, or four caruncles, which have received the name of myrtiform.

CARUNCULE PAPILLARES. The protuberances within the pelvis of the kidney, formed by the papillous substance of the

CARUNCULOSA ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine, from caruncles in the ure-

Canuon. See Carum.

CARUS. (Kagos: from naga, the head, as being the part affected.) Caros. Carosis. 1. Insensibility and sleepiness, with quiet respiration.

2. A profound sleep, without fever. A

lethargy.

3. The name of the caraway-seed.

Carva. The cassia lignea.

CARYEDON. (From xagua, a nut.) rydon. A sort of fracture, where the bone is broken into small pieces, like the shell of a cracked nut.

CARYDON. See Carnedon.

CARYOCOSTINUM. (From xxeucv, the caryophyllus, and xosivos, composed of the costus.) An electuary, named from its in-

gredients.

CARYOPHYLLATA. (From καξυοφυλ-Nov, the carrophyllus; so named because it smells like the caryophyllus, or clove July flower.) Herba benedicta. Caryophyllus vulgaris. Garyophilla. Janamunda. Avens, or herb bennet. The root of this plant, Geum urbanum of Linnaus:-floribus erectis, fructibus globosis villosis, aristis uncinatis nudis, foliis lyratis, has been employed as a gentle styptic, corroborant, and sto-machic. It has a mildly austere, somewhat aromatic taste, and a very pleasant smell, of the clove kind. It is also esteemed, on the continent, as a febrifuge.

CARYOPHYLLOIDES CORTEX: See Culi-

CARYOPHYLLUS. (Καξυοφυλλον: from uzguor, a nut, and φυλλον, a leaf; so named because it smells like the leaves of the Indian nut, or clove-tree.) The clove-tree.

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Monogynia.

CARYOPHYLLUM AROMATICUM,

The tree which affords this The clove. spice is the Eugenia caryophyllata of Wildenow, which grows in the East Indies, the Moluccas, &c. The clove is the unexpanded flower, or rather the calyx; it has a strong agreeable small, and a oitterish, hot, not very pungent, taste. The oil of cloves, commonly met with in the shops, and received from the Dutch, is highly acrimonious, and sophisticated. Clove is accounted the hottest and most acrid of the aromatics; and, by acting as a powerful stimulant to the muscular fibres, may, in some cases of atonic gout, paralysis, &c. supersede most others of the aromatic class; and the foreign oil, by its great acrimony, is also well adapted for several external purposes: it is directed by several pharmacopæias, and the clove itself enters many officinal preparations.

Tuni-CARYOPHYLLUM RUBRUM. Vetonica. Betonica. Coronaria. ryophillis hortensis. Clove pink. gilliflower. Clove July flower. This fragrant plant, Dianthus caryophyllus of Linnæus :- floribus solitariis, squamis calycinis subovatis, brevissimis, corollis crenatis, grows wild in several parts of England; but the flowers, which are pharmaceutically em-ployed, are usually produced in gardens: they have a pleasant aromatic smell, somewhat allied to that of clove spice: their taste is bitterish and sub-adstringent. These flowers were formerly in extensive use, but are now merely employed in form of syrup, as a useful and pleasant vehicle

for other medicines.

CARYOPHYLUS AROMATICUS AMERICANUS. The piper Jamaicensis.

CARYOPHYLLUS HORTENSIS.

phyllum rubrum.

CARYOPHYLLUS VULGARIS. The caryo-

The caryo-

phyllata.

CARYOTIS. (From Exeguor, a nut.) Caryota. Galen uses this word to mean a superior sort of dates, of the shape of a nut.

CASCARILLA. (Dim. of cascava, the bark, or shell. Span.) Chocarilla Eluteria. Eluteria. The tree that shords the cascarilla bark, is the Croton cascarilla of Linnæus. The bark comes to us in quills, covered upon the outside with a rough, whitish matter, and brownish on the inner side, exhibiting, when broken, a smooth, close, blackish brown surface. It has a lightly agreeable smell, and a moderately bitter taste, accompanied with a considerable aromatic warmth. It is a very excellent tonic, adstringent, and stomachic, and is deserving of a more general use than it has hitherto met with.

CASCHU. See Catechu.

Cashew nut See Anacardium occidentale.
Cashoo. An aromatic drug of Hindostan, said to possess pectoral virtues.

CASIA. See Cassia.

CASMINARIS. The cassamunia of Bengal.

Cassa. (Arab.) The thorax, or breast, Cassaba. S e Cassava.

Cassamum. The fruit of the balsam tree.

CASSAVA. Cassada. Cacavi. Cassare. Pain de Madagascar. Ricinus minor. Maniot. Yucca. Maniibar. Aipi. ma coxera. Aipipoca. Janipha. plant so called is the Jatropha manihot of Linnæus. The leaves are boiled, and eaten as we do spinage. The root abounds with a milky juice, and every part, when raw, is a fatal poison. It is remarkable that the poisonous quality is destroyed by heat: hence the juice is boiled with meat, pepper. &c. into a wholesome somp, and what remains after expressing the juice, is formed into cakes, or meal, the principal food of the inhabitants. This plant, which is a native of three quarters of the world, is one of the most advantageous gitts of Providence, entering into the composition of innumerable preparations of an economical

Cassada roots yield a great quantity of starch, called tapacea, exported in little lumps by the Brazilians, and now well known to us as diet for sick and weakly persons.

CASSADA. See Cassara.

CASSIA. (From the Arabic katsia, which is from katsa, to tear off; so called from the act of stripping the bark from the tree.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Decandric. Order, Monogynia. Cassia and Seneca belong to this genus. See Cassia fistularis, and Senna.

CASSIA CARYOPHYLLATA. Clove bark tree. The bark of this tree, Myrtus caryophyllata of Lienæus:—pedunculis trifido-multiflorus, foliis ovatis, is a warm aromatic, of the smell of clovespice, but weaker, and with a little admixture of the cinnamon flavour. It may be used with the same views as cloves, or cinnamon.

Cassia fistula. The systematic name of the purging cassia. See Cassia fistularis. CASSIA FISTULARIS. Cassia nigra. Cassia fistula. Alexandrina. Chaiarxumbar. Canna Cussia solutiva. Tlai. Xiem. Purging cassia. This tree, Cassia fistula of Linnans:-foliis quinquejugis ovatus acuminatis glabris, petrolis eglandulatis, is a native of both Indies. The pods of the East-India cassia are of less diameter, smoother, and afford a blacker, sweeter, and more grateful pulp, than those which are brought from the West-Indies. Those pods which are the heaviest, and in which the seeds do not rattle on being shaken, are commonly the best, and contain the most pulp, which is the part medicinally employed, and to be obtained in the manner described in the pharmacopæias. The best pulp is of a bright shining black colour, and of a sweet taste, with a slight degree of acidity. It

has been long used as a laxative medicine, and being gentle in its operation, and seldom disturbing the bowels, is well adapted to children, and to delicate or pregnant women. Adults, however, find it of little effect, unless taken in a very large dose, as an ounce or more; and, therefore, to them this pulp is rarely given, but usually conjoined with some of the brisker purgatives. The officinal preparation of this drug, is the confectio cassiæ; it is also an ingredient in the confectio sennæ.

CASSIÆ ARAMENTUM. The pulp of cas-

Sia.

CASSLE FLORES. What are called cassia flowers in the shops, are the flowers of the true cinnamon tree, Laurus cinnamomum of Linnaus. They possess aromatic and adstringent virtues, and may be successfully employed in decoctions, &c. in all cases where cinnamon is recommended.

See Cinnamomum.

CASSIA LIGNEA. Cortex canella Malabarica. Cassialignea Malabarica. Xylocassia. Canella Malabarica et Javensis. Karva. Canella Cubana Arbor Judaica. Cussia canella. Canellifera Malabarica. Cortex crassior. Cimamomum Malabaricum. Calihacha canela. Wild cinnamon-tree. Malabar cinnamon-tree, or cassia lignea tree. Cassia lignea is the bark of the Laurus cassia of Linnaus :- foliis triplinerviis lanceolatis, whose leaves are called folia malabathri in the shops. The bark and leaves abound with the flavour of cinnamon, for which they may be substituted; but in much larger doses, as they are considerably weaker.

Cassia, purging. See Cassia fistularis.
Cassia senna. The systematic name of the plant which affords senna. See Senna.

CASSIÆ PULPA. See Cassia fistularis. CASSOB, An obsolete term for kali.

Casso Leta. Warm finnigations described by Marcellus.

CASSONADA. Sugar.

Cassymmentar. (Of uncertain derivation, perhaps Indian.) Casumunar. Casmina. Risagon. Bengale Indorum. The root, occasionally exhibited under one of these names, is brought from the East Indies. It comes over in irregular slices of various forms, some cut transversely, others longitudinally. The cortical part is marked with circles of a dusky brown colour: the internal part is paler, and unequally yellow. It possesses moderately warm, butter, and aromatic qualities, and a smell like ginger. It is recommended in hysterical, epileptie, and paralytic affections.

CASTANEA. (Castanea, Kaszwer: from Castana, a city in Thessaly, whence they were brought.) Lopima. Mota. Glans Jovis Theophrasti. Jupiter's acorn, and Sardinian acorn. The common chesnut. The fruit of this plant, Fagus castanea of

Linneus:—folis lanceolatis, acuminato-serratis, subtus nudis, are much esteemed as an article of luxury, after dinner. Toasting renders them more easy of digestion; but, notwithstanding, they must be considered as improper for weak stomachs. They are moderately nourishing, as containing sugar, and much farinaceous substance.

CASTANEA EQUINA. The horse-chesnut.

See Ihppocastanum.

Castanea flore albo. Coffee.

CASTLE-LEOD WATERS. A sulphureous spring in Rosshire, celebrated for the cure of cutaneous diseases and foul ulcers.

CASTOR FIBER. The generic name of the beaver. See Castoreum Russicum.

the beaver. See Castoreum Russicum. Castor. See Castoreum Russicum.

Castor oil. See Ricinus.

Custor, Russian. See Castoreum Russi-

CASTOREUM RUSSICUM. reum, from uzsug, the beaver, quasi pasug; from pasug, the belly; because of reum, the largeness of its belly; or à castrando, because he is said to castrate himself in order to escape the hunters.) Castoreum. Russian castor. A peculiar concrete substance, obtained from the Castor fiber of Linnxus, or beaver, an amphibious quadruped inhabiting some parts of Prussia, Russia, Germany, &c.; but the greatest number of these animals is met with in Canada. name of custoreum is given to two bags, situated in the inguinal regions of the male beaver, which contain a very odorous substance, soft, and almost fluid when recently cut from the animal, but which dries, and assumes a resinous consistence in process of This substance has an acrid, bitter and a nauseous taste; its smell is strong, aromatic, and even fortid. It is used medicinally, as a powerful antispasmodic in hysterical and hypochondriacal affections, and in convulsions, in doses of from 10 to S0 grains. It has also been successfully administered in epilepsy and tetanus. It is occasionally adulterated with dried blood, gum-ammoniacum, or galbanum, mixed with a little of the powder of castor, and some quantity of the fat of the beaver,

CASTORIUM. See Castoreum Russi-

cum.

CASTRATION. Celotonia. Orchotomia. A chirurgical operation, by which a testicle is removed from the body.

CASTRENSIS. (From castra, a camp.) A name applied to those diseases with which soldiers, encamped in marshy places, are afflicted.

CATABASIS. (From natabawa, (to descend.) A descent or operation down-

wards.

CATABIBASIS. (From καταδιδαζω, to eause to descend.) An exclusion, or expulsion of the humours downwards.

CATABLACEUSIS. (From xatashaneum, to be useless.) Hippocrates uses this word

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to signify carelessness and negligence in the attendance on, and administration to the

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CATABLENA. (From καταβαλλω, to throw round.) The outermost fillet, which se-

cures the rest of the bandages.

CATABRONCHESIS (From Raia, and Booy xos the throat; or nalabeogyzizw, to swallow.) The act of swallowing.

CATACAUMA. (From uzlanau, to burn.)

A burn, or scald.

CATACAUSIS. (From nalanaia, to burn.) The act of combustion, or burning.

CATACECLIMENUS. (From nalandivopal, to lie down.) Keeping the bed, from the violence of a disease.

GATACECRAMENUS. (From nalanegavvupu, to reduce to small particles.) Broken into small pieces. It is used of fractures.

CATACERASTICA. (From κεθακεζαννυμι, to mix together.) Medicines which obtund the acrimony of humours, by mixing

with them and reducing them.

CATACHLIDESIS. (From κλαχλιδίαω, to indulge in delicacies.) A gluttonous indulgence in sloth and delicacies, to the generation of diseases.

(From nalaxer, to CATACHRYSTON. anoint.) An unguent, or ointment.

CATACHRYSMA. An ointment.

CATACLASIS. (From nalandam, to break, or distort.) Distorted eyelids.

CATACLEIS. (From nala, beneath, and khus, the clavicle.) The subclavicle, or first rib, which is placed immediately under the clavicle.

CATACLINES. (From nalanning, to lie down.) One who, by disease, is fixed to

his bed.

CATACLISIS. (From nalanhwa, to lie down.) A lying down. It means also in-

CATACLYSMA. (From nalandula, to wash.)

A clyster

CATACLYSMUS. (From καλακλυζω, to wash.) An embrocation. A dashing of

water upon any part.

CATACHREMNOS. (From nala, and nenuthis word, a swoln and inflamed throat, from the exuberance of the parts.

CATACRUSIS. (From nalangew, to drive

back.) A regulsion of humours.

CATABOULESIS. (From uxlad 8200, to enslave.) The subduing of passions, as in a phrensy, or fever.

CATEGIZESIS. (From nalar, ila, to repel.) A revulsion or rushing back of hu-

mours, or wind in the intestines.

CATRONESIS. (From nalatorso, to irrigate.) Irrigation by a plentiful affusion of liquor on some part of the body.

CATAGMA. (From unla, and aya, to break.) A fracture. Galen says a solution of the bone is called catagma, and elcos is a solution of the continuity of he flesh: that when it happens to a cartilage, it has no name, though Hippocrates calls it ca-

CATAGMATICA. (From nalayma, a fracture.) Cataginatics. Remedies proper for cementing broken bones, or to promote

a callus. CATAGOGE. (From uxlayopus, to abide.) The seat or region of a disease or part.

CATAGYIOSIS. (From unlayuna, to debilitate.) An imbecility and enervation of the strength and limbs.

CATALEPSIS. (From καλαλαμβανευς, to seize, to hold.) Catoche. Catochus. Congelatio. Detentio. Encatalepsis; and by Hippocrates uphonia; by Antigenes anaudia: by Calius Aurelianus apprehensio. oppressio; comprehensio. Apoplexia cataleptica of Cullen. A sudden suppression of motion and sensation the body remaining in the same posture that it was in when

seized. Dr. Cullen says, he has never seen the catalepsy except when counterfeited; and is of opinion, that many of those cases related by other authors, have also been counterfeited. It is said to come on suddenly, being only preceded by some languor of body and mind, and to return by paroxysms. The patients are said to be for some minutes, sometimes (though rarely) for some hours, deprived of their senses, and all power of voluntary motion; but constantly retaining the position in which they were first seized, whether lying or sitting; and if the limbs be put into any other posture during the fit, they will keep the posture in which they are placed. When they recover from the paroxysm, they remember nothing of what passed during the time of it, but are like persons awakened out of a sleep.

CATALOTICA. (From uzlahoza, to grind down) Medicines to soften and make smooth the rough edges and crust of cica-

trices.

CATALYSIS. (Καταλυσις: from καταλυω, to dissolve or destroy.) It signifies a palsy, or such a resolution as happens before the death of the patient; also that dissolution which constitutes death.

CATAMARASMUS. (From Ralauagawa, to grow thin.) An emaciation, or resolution

of tumours.

CATAMASSESIS. (From nalamaggomas, to manducate.) The grinding of the teeth, and biting of the tongue; so common in

epileptic persons.

CATAMENIA. (From nala, according to, and pur the month.) Mensec. The monthly discharge of blood from the uterus of females, between the ages of 14 and 45. Many have questioned whether the catamenial discharge arose from a mere rupture of vessels, or whether it was owing to a secretory action. There can be little doubt of the truth of the latter. The secretory organ is composed of the arterial

vessels situated in the fundus of the uterus. The dissection of women who have died during the time of their menstruating, proves this. Sometimes, though very rarely, women, during pregnancy, menstruate; and when this happens, the discharge takes place from the arterial vessels of the va-During pregnancy and lactation, when the person is in good health, the catamenia, for the most part, cease to flow. The quantity a female menstruates at each time, is very varied; depending on climate, and a variety of other circumstances. It is commonly, in England, from five to six ounces: it rarely exceeds eight. Its duration is from three to four, and sometimes, though rarely, five days. With respect to the nature of the discharge, it differs very much from pure blood; it never coagulates, but is sometimes grumous, and membranes like the decidua are formed in difficult menstruations: in some women it always smells rank and peculiar; in others it is inodorous. The use of this monthly secretion is to render the uterus fit for the conception and nutrition of the fœtus; therefore girls rarely conceive before the catamenia appear, and women rarely after their entire cessation; but very easily soon after menstruation.

CATANANCE. Succory.

CATANIPHTHIS. (From Ralarvalae, to wash.) Washed, or sconred. It is used by Hippocrates of a diarrhoa washed and cleansed by boiled milk.

CATANTLEMA. (From xalavlaaa, to pour upon.) A lotion by infusion of water, or

medicated fluids.

CATANTLESIS. A medicated fluid.

CATAPASMA. (From @200w, to sprinkle.) Catapastum. Conspersio. Epipaston. Pasma symposmata. Aspersio. Aspergines. The ancient Greek physicians meant by this, any dry medicine reduced to powder, to be sprinkled on the body. Their various uses may be seen in Paulus of Egina, lib. vii. cap. xiii.

CATAPAUSIS. (From nalarauw, to rest, or cease.) That rest or cessation from pain which proceeds from the resolution of un-

easy tumours.

(From Rala, against, and CATAPELTES. wealn, a sheild.) This word means a sling, a granado, or battery; and is also used to signify the medicine which heals the wounds and bruises made by such an instrument.

CATALHORA. (From Katapego, to make sleepy.) Coma somnolentum. A preternatural propensity to sleep. A mild apoplexy.

CATAPHORA ARTHRITICA. Apoplexy from

Sanguineous apo-Сатарнова сома.

CATAPHORA EXANTHEMATICA. A lethargy in eruptive diseases.

Serous CATAPHORA HYDROCEPHALICA. apoplexy.

Apoplectic CATAPHORA SCORBUTICA. symptoms in scurvy.

CATAPHORA TIMOR, A lethargic dispo-

CATAPHHACTA (From nalapeasow, to fortify.) A han age on the thorax.

CATAPLASMA. (From αθαπλασσω, to spread like a plaister.) A pounice. following are among the most useful.

CATAPLASMA ALUMINIS. This application was formerly used to inflammation of the eyes, which was kept up from weakness of the vessels; it is now seldom used, a solution of alum being mostly substituted.

CATAPLASMA ACETOSE. Sorrel ponitice; Acctosæ, ibj. To be beaten in a mortar into pulp. A good application to scor-

butic ulcers.

CATAPLASMA DIRATEW. See Cutaplusma fermenti.

CATAPLASMA CICUTAL. Hemlock poultice. g. Herbæ cicutæ exfoliatæ, 5,jj, Aquæ fontanæ, ibjj. To be boiled till only a pint remains, when as much linseed meal as necessary is to be added. This is an excellent application to many cancerous and scrophulous ulcers, and other malignant ones; frequently producing great dimunition of the pain of such diseases, and improving their appearance. Justamond preferred the herb fresh bruised.

This is a warm CATAPLASMA CUMINI. and stimulating poultice, and was formerly much used as an arritating antiseptic application to gangrenous ulcers, and the like.

It is now seldom ordered.

CATAPLASMA BAUCI. Carrot poultice, R. Radicis dauce recentis, Ibj. Bruize it in a mortar into pulp. Some, perhaps with reason, recommend the carrots to be first boiled. The carrot poultice is employed as an application to ulcerated cancers, scrophulous sores of an irritable kind, and various inveterate malignant ulcers.

CATAPLASMA FERMENTI. Yest cataplasm. Take of flour a pound; yest half a pint. Mix and exopse to a gentle heat, until the mixture begins to rise. This is a celebrated application in cases of sloughing and

mortification.

CATAPLASMA LINI. Linseed poultice, R. Farinæ lini, Hbss. Aquæ ferventis, 16 jss. The powder is to be gradually sprinkled into the water, while they are quickly blended together with a spoon. This is the best and most convenient of all emollient poultices for common cases, and has, in a great measure, superseded the bread and milk one, so much in use formerly.

rataplasma lythargthi acetati. g. Aquæ lithargyri acetati, 5j. Aquæ distill. lbj. Micæ panis, q. s. Misce. Practitioners who place much confidence in the virtues of lead, often use this poultice in cases of

inflammation.

CATAPLASMA QUERCUS MARINI. This is prepared by bruizing a quantity of the marine plant, commonly called sca-tang, which is afterwards to be applied by way of a poultice. Its chief use is in cases of scrophula, white swellings, and glandular tumours more especially. When this vegetlabe cannot be obtained in its recent state, a common poultice of sea-water and oatmeal has been substituted by the late Mr-Hunter, and other surgeons of eminence.

CATAPLASMA SINAPEOS. See Culuplasma

sinapis.

Mustard cata-CATAPLASMA SINAPIS. plasm. Take of Mustard-sced, linseed, of each powdered half a pound; boiling vinc-gar, as much as is sufficient. Mix until it acquires the consistence of a cataplasm.

CATAPLEXIS. (From window, to strike.) Any sudden stupefaction, or deprivation of sensation, in any of the members, or organs.

CATAPOSIS. (From natarive, to swallow down.) According to Aretæus, it signifies the instruments of deglutition. Hence also catapotium.

CATATOTIUM. (Katamotion) A pill.

(From ψυχω, to refrigerate.) A refrigeration without shivering, either universal, or of some particular part. A chilliness, or, as Vogel defines it, an uneasy sense of cold in a muscular or cutaneous part.

(From натальто, to fall CATAPTOSIS. down.) It implies such a falling down as happens in apoplexies; or the spontaneous

falling down of a paralytic limb.

CATAPUTIA. (From καλαπυθω, to have an ill savour; or from the Italian, cacapuzza, which has the same meaning; so named Spurge. from its fætid smell.)

CATAPUTIA MAJOIL. See Ricinus.

CATAPUTIA MINOR. The plant so called in the pharmacopæias, is the Euphorbia lathyris; umbella, quadrifida, dichotoma, foliis oppositis integerrimis, of Linnaus. The seeds possess purgative properties; but if exhibited in an over dose, prove drastic and poisonous; a quality peculiar to all the euphorbiæ.

CATARACT. (Cataracta; from xara. gaσσω, to confound or disturb; because the sense of vision is confounded, if not destroy-

ed.) The Caligo lentis of Cullen.

Hippocrates calls it manyana. Galen, υποχυμα. The Arabians, gutta opuca. Celsus, suffusio. A species of blindness, arising almost always from an opacity of the crystalline lens, or its capsule, preventing the rays of light passing to the op-It commonly begins with a tic nervc. dimness of sight; and this generally continues a considerable time before any opacity can be observed in the lens. As the disease advances, the opacity becomes sensible, and the patient imagines there are particles of dust, or motes, upon the eye, or in the air, which are called musce volitantes. This opacity gradually increases till the person either becomes entirely blind, or

can mercly distinguish light from darkness. The disease commonly comes on rapidly, though sometimes its progress is slow and gradual. From a transparent state, it changes to a perfectly white, or light gray colour. In some very rare instances, a black cataract is found. The consistence also varies, being at one time hard, at another entirely dissolved. When the opake lens is either more indurated than in the natural state, or retains a tolerable degree of firmness, the case is termed, a firm or hard cataract. When the substance of the lens seems to be converted into a whitish or other kind of fluid, lodged in the capsule, the case is denominated a milky or fluid cataract. When the substance is of a midling consistence, neither hard nor fluid, but about as consistent as a thick jelly, or curds, the casc is named a soft or caseous cataract. When the anterior or posterior layer of the crystalline capsule becomes opake, after the lens itself has been removed from this little membranous sac, by a previous operation, the affection is named a secondary membranons cataract. There are many other distinctions made by authors. Cataract is seldom attended with pain; sometimes, however, every exposure to light creates uneasiness, owing probably to the inflammation at the bottom of the eye. The real cause of cataract is not yet well understood. Numbers of authors consider it as proceeding from a preternatural contraction of the vessels of the lens, arising from some external violence, though more commonly from some internal and occult cause. The cataract is distinguished from gutta serena, by the pupils in the latter being never affected with light, and from no opacity being observed in the lens It is distinguished from hypopyon, staphyloma, or any other disease in the fore part of the eye, by the evident marks which these affections produce, as well as by the pain attending their beginning. But it is difficult to determine when the opacity is in the lens, or in its capsule. If the retina (which is an expansion of the optic nerve in the inside of the eye) be not diseased, vision may, in most cases, be restored, by either depressing the diseased lens, or extracting it enterely, which is termed couching.

CATARRHEUMA. (From Ralaggeon, to flow from.) A catarrh, or defluxion of hu-

mours.

CATARRHEXIS. (From nalagenyoua, to pour out.) A violent and copious eruption, or effusion, joined with nothing: it is a copious evacuation from the belly, and sometimes alone it is of the same signification. In Vogel's Nosology, it is defined, a discharge of pure blood from the intestines, such as takes place in dysentery.

CATARRHECUS. (From ullagger, to flow from.) A word applied to diseases, pro-

ceeding from a discharge of phlegm.

CATARHHOPA PHYMATA. (Kataggona quata.) Tubercles tending downward; or, as Galen relates, those that have their apex on a depending part.

CATARRHOPOS NOUSOS. (Kataggonos ve-

cline, and opposed to the paroxysm. CATARRHUS. (From nalaggew, to flow down,) Coryza. A catarrh. An increased secretion of mucus from the membranes of the nose, fauces, and bronchiæ, with fever, and attended with sneezing, cough, thirst, lassitude, and want of appetite. It is a genus of disease in the class pyrexiæ, and order profluvia, of Cullen. There are two species of catarrh, viz. catarrhus à frigore, which is very common, and is called a cold in the head; and catarrlous à contagione, the influenza, which sometimes seizes a whole city. Catarrh is also symptomatic of several other diseases. Hence we have the catarrhus rubeolosus; tussis variolosa, verminosa, calculosa, phthisica, hysterica, à dentitione, gravidarum, metallicolarum, &c.

CATARRHUS A FRIGORE. Catarrh from cold.

CATARRIUS BELLINSULANUS. Muinps, or evnanche parotidæa.

CATARRHUS A CONTAGIO. The influenza.

CATARRIUS SUFFOCATIVUS. The croup, or cynanche trachealis.

CATARRHUS VESICE. Strangury, with

discharge of mucus.

CATARTISMUS. (From κΩαξηζα, to make perfect.) According to Galen, it is a translation of a bone from a preternatural to its natural situation.

CATASARCA. (From xala. and oage, flesh.)

The same as Anasarca.

CATASBESTIS. (From καλα, and σδεννυμι, to extinguish.) The resolution of tumours without suppuration.

Catasenasmus. (From ualarzala, to scarify.) Scarification.

scaring.) Scarincation.

CATASEISIS. (From uala, and out, to shake.) A concussion.

CATASPASMA. (From nalaotaw, to draw backwards.) A revulsion or retraction of

humours, or parts.

CATASTAGNOS. (From RATA, and 52 Za, to distil.) This is the name which the Greeks, in the time of Celsus, had for a distillation.

CATASTALTICUS. (From καταστελλα, to restrain, or στελλα, to contract.) It signifies styptic, astringent, repressing.

CATASTASIS. (Καταστασις.) The constitution, state, or condition of any thing.

CATATASIS. (From xalslawa, to extend.) In Hippocrates it means the extension of a fractured limb, or a dislocated one, in order to replace it. Also the actual replacing it in a proper situation.

CATAXIS. (From unlayse, to break.) A fracture. Also a division of parts by an

instrument.

CATECHOMENUS. (From zaleza, to resist.) Resisting and making meffectual the remedies which have been applied or

CATECHU. Catechu. It is said, that, in the Japanese language, kate signifies a tree, and chu, juice.) Terra Japonica. Japan earth. An extract prepared in India, it was supposed till lately, from the juice of the Mimosa catechn of Linnxus: -spinis stipularibus, foliis bipinnatis multijugis, glandulis partialium singulis, spicis axillaribus genunis seu ternis pedunculatis; by boiling the wood and eva-porating the decoction by the heat of the sun. But the shrub is now ascertamed to be an acacia, and is termed Acacia catechu. In its purest state, it is a dry, pulverable substance, outwardly of a reddish colour, internally of a shiring dark brown, tinged with a reddish hue; in the mouth it discovers considerable adstringency, succeeded by a sweetish mucilaginous taste. It may be advantageously employed for most purposes where an adstringent is indicated, and is particularly useful in alvine fluxes, where astringents are required. Besides this, it is employed also in uterine profluvia, in laxity and debility of the vicera in general; and it is an excellent topical adstringent, when suffered to dissolve leisurely in the mouth, for Lixities and ulcerations of the gums, aphthous ulcers in the month, and similar affections. This extract is the basis of several formulæ in our pharmacopæias, particularly of a tincture: but one of the best forms under which it can be exhibited, is that of a simple infusion in warm water with a proportion of cinnamon, for by this means it is at once freed of its impurities and improved by the addition of the aromatic. Fourcroy says that catechu is prepared from the seeds of

a kind of palm, called areca.

CATELATION. (From MATA, and MA, a blade of grass.) An instrument, having at the end a blade of grass, or made like a blade of grass, which was thrust into the nostrils to provoke a hæmorrhage when the head ached. It is mentioned by Are-

taus.

CATELLUS. (Dim. of catillus, a whelp.)
A young whelp. Also a chymical instrument called a cupel, which was formerly in the shape of a dog's head.

CATHERESIS. (From ππθαιζα, to take away.) The subtraction or taking away any part or thing from the body. Sometimes it means an evacuation, and Hippocrates uses it for such. A consumption of the body, as happens without manifest evacuation.

CATHERETICA. (From καθαιζω, to take away.) Medicines which consume or remove superfluous flesh.

CATHARMA. (From καθαιζω, to remove.) The excrements, or humours, purged of from the body.

CATHAUMUS. (From nasaigu, to remove.) A purgation of the excrements, or humours. A cure by incantation, or the royal touch.

(From xabage, to purge.) CATHARSIA. Cathartics, having a purging property.

(From nabasea, to take CATHARSIS. away.) A purge, or purgation of the excrements, or humours, either medically or naturally.

CATHARTICS. (Cathartica, sc. medicamenta: καθαρτικα: from καθαιρω, to purge.) Those medicines which, taken internally, increase the number of alvine evacuations. The different articles referred to this class of medicines are divided into five orders:

1. Stimulating cathartics, as jalap, aloes, and bitter apple, which are well calculated to discharge accumulations of serum, and are mostly selected for indolent and phlegmatic habits, and those who are hard to purge.

2. Refrigerating cathartics, as Glauber's salts, Epsom salts, sal polychrest, and cremor tartar. These are better adapted for plethoric habits, and those with an inflam-

matory diathesis.

3. Adstringent cathartics, as rhubarb and damask roses, which are mostly given to those whose bowels are weak and irritable, and subject to diarrheea.

4. Emollient cathartics, as manna, malva, castor oil, and olive oil, which may be given in preference to other cathartics, to

children and the very aged.

5. Narcotic cathartics, as tobacco, hyoseyamus, and digitalis. This order is never given but to the very strong and indolent, and to maniacal patients, as their operation

is very powerful.

Murray, in his Materia Medica, considers the different cathartics under the two divisions of laxatives and purgatives; the former being mild in their operation, and merely evacuating the contents of the intestines; the latter being more powerful, and even extending their stimulant operacion to the neighbouring parts. The following he chamerates among the principal laxatives :- Manna, Cassia fistularis, Tamarindus Indica, Ricinus communis, Sulphur, Magnesia. Under the head of purgatives, he names Cassia senna, Rhæum palma-tum, Convolvulus jalapa, Helleborus ni-ger, Brionia alba, Cucumis colocynthis, Momordica elaterium, Rhamnus catharticus, Aloe perfoliata, Convolvulus scammo- and xeilos, the lip.) The lower lip. nia, Gambogia gutta, Submurias liydrargyri, Sulphas magnesiæ, Sulphas sodæ, Sulphas potassæ, Supertartris potassæ, Tartris potassæ, Tartris potassæ et sodæ, Phosphas sodæ, Murias sodæ, Tercbinthina veneta, Nicotiana tabacum.

CATHARTICUS SAL. See Sulphas magne-

siæ, and Sulphas sodæ.

CATHARTICUS HISPANICUS SAL. A kind of Glauber's salt, produced near Madrid, from some springs.

CATHARTICUS GLAUBERI SAL. See Sul-

(From natizomai, to sit.) CATHEBRA. The anus, or rather, the whole of the buttocks, as being the part on which we sit.

CATHERETICA. (From nabaigo, to remove.) Corrosives. Medicines which, by corrosion, remove superfluous flesh.

CATHEFER. (From xabinai, to thrust into.) A long and hollow tube, that is introduced by surgeons into the urinary bladder, to remove the urine, when the person is unable to pass it. Catheters are either made of silver or of the elastic gum, That for the male urcthra is much longer than that for the female, and so curved, if made of silver, as to adapt itself to the

CATHETERISMUS. (From nabelne, a catheter.) The term given by P. Ægineta to the operation of introducing the

catheter.

(From καθιδευω, CATHIDRYSIS. place together.) The reduction of a fracture. The operation of setting a broken

CATHMIA. A name for litharge.

CATHODOS. (From nata, and ofos.) descent of humours.

CATHOLCEUS. (From nata, and ohnew, to draw over.) An oblong fillet, made to draw over and cover the whole bandage of the head.

CATHOLICON. (From мата, and омиюс, universal.) A panacea, or universal medicine. A term formerly applied to medicines that were supposed to purge all the humours.

CATHYPNIA. (From nara, and unvos, sleep.) A profound but unhealthy sleep.

CATIAS. (From καθιημι, to place in.) An incision knife, formerly used for opening an abscess in the uterus, and for extracting a dead focus.

CATILLUS. See Catellus.

CATINUM ALUMEN. A name given to

CATINUS. (Katavov.) A crucible.

Catmint. See Nepeta.

CATOCATHARTICA. (From KATO, down, wards, and xabasew, to purge.) that operate by stool.

(From κατεχω, to detain.) CATOCHE.

See Catalepsis.

(From κατω, beneath, CATOCHEILUM.

CATOCHUS. (From κατεχω, to detain.) A catalepsy. Also a tetanus or spasmodic disease in which the body is rigidly held in an upright posture.

CATOCHUS CERVINUS. Tetanus, particu-

larly affecting the neck.

CATOCHUS DIURNUS. An occasional tetanus.

CATOCHUS HOLOTONICUS. Another name for tetanus.

(Fr in karw, below, and CATONISHUS. apos, the should ... ) By this word, P. Ægineta expresses a method of reducing a luxated shoulder, by raising the patient over the shoulder of a strong man, that, by the weight of the body the dislocation may be reduced.

CATOPSIS. (From катотторы, to see clearly.) An acute and quick perception. The acuteness of the faculties which accompanies the latter stage- of en samption.

CATOPTER (From Rata and offtomat, to see, and, by metaphor, to probe.) A probe. An instrument called a speculum ani.

CATORCHITES. (From nata, and eggie the orchis.) A wine in which the orchis root has been infused.

CATORETICA. (From μετω, downwards, and geω, to flow.) Catoteretica. Catoterica. Medicines which purge by stool.

CATOTERETICA. See Catoretica.
CATULOTICA. (From MATENDO, to cicatrize.) Medicines that cicatrize wounds.

CATUTRIPALI. A name of the piper lon-

gum.

CAUCALIS. (From REMURION, a CIP; OF from fauxaxis, the daucus.) Bastard parsley, so named from the shape of its flower. Also, the wild carrot.

CAUCALOIDES (From caucalis, and essos, a likeness; from its likeness to the flower of the caucalis.) The patella is sometimes so called.

CAUDA. (From cado, to full; because it hangs or falls down behind.) A tail.

1. The tail of animals.

2. A name formerly given to the os coccygis, that being in tailed animals the beginning of the tail.

3. A fleshy substance, protuberating from the lips of the vegina of the pudendum muliebre, and resembling a tail, according to Ætins.

4. Many herbs are also named cauda, with the affixed name of some animal, whose tail the herb is supposed to be like; as cauda equina, horse-tail; cauda muris, mouse tail; and in many other instances.

The spinal marrow, CAUDA EQUINAat its termination about the second lumbar vertebra, gives off a large number of nerves, which, when unravelled, resemble the horse's

tail; hence the name. See also Equisetum. CAUDATIO. (From cauda, a tail.) An

clongation of the clitoris.

CAUL. The English name for the omentum. See Omentum.

CAULEDON. (From καυλος, a stalk.) A transverse fracture, when the bone is bro-

ken, like the stump of a tree.
CAULIFLOWER. A species of brassica, whose flow r is cut before the fructification The observations which have been made concerning cabbages are applicable here. Cauliflower is, however, a far more delicious vegetable.

CAULIS. (Kalab. A Chaldean word.)

1. The stem or stalk of a plant.

2. A cabbage.

3. It means too the penis of a man. CAULIS FLORIDA. Cauliflower.

CAULODES. (From REUNOS, the cabbage.)

The winte or green cabbage. CAULOTON. (From RAUNOS a stem: because it grows upon a stalk.) A name given to the beet.

CAUNA. (From Raise, to burn.) The heat of the body or the heat of the atmosphere, in a fever.

Caunga. A name of the areca.
Causis. (From \*210, to burn.) A burn; or rather, the act of combustion, or burn-

CAUSODES. (From name, to burn.) A term applied by Celsus to a burning fever.

CAUSIMA. (From Raise, to burn.) An ardent or burning heat and inflammation. A term used by Hippocrates.

CAUSTIC ALKALI. To so called. See Alkali The pure alkalis are

Caustic barley. See Cevadilla.

CAUSTICS (Caustica, sc. medicamenta; from xaio, to burn; because they always produce a burning sensation.) Eschurotics.

CAUSTICUM AMERICANUM. The ceva-

CAUSTICUM ANTIMONIALE. See Muriate

of antimony. CAUSTICUM COMMUNE FORTIUS. See Po-

tassa cum calce. CAUSTICUM LUNARE, Sec Nitras ar-

genti. Causus. (From xage, to burn.) highly ardent fever. According to Hippocrates, a fiery heat, insatiable thirst, a rough and black tongue, complexion yellowish, and the saliva bilious, are its peculiar characteristics. Others also are particular in describing it; but whether ancients or moderns, from what they relate, this fever is no other than a continued ardent fever in a billious constitution. In it the heat of the body is intense: the breath is particularly fiery; the extremities are cold; the pulse is frequent and small; the heat is more violent internally than externally, and the whole soon ends in recovery or death.

\*Causus, endemial. The name given, by Dr. Mesely, to the yellow fever of the West Indies.

CAUTERY. (From name, to burn.) Cauteries were divided, by the ancients, into actual and potential; but the term is now given only to the red-hot iron, or actual cautery. This was formerly the only means of preventing hemorrhages from divided arteries, till the invention of the ligature. It was also used in discases. with the same view as we employ a blister. Potential cautery was the name by which kali purum, or potassa, was di trigu shed in the former dispensatories of Edinburgh, Surgeons understand, by this term, any caustic application.

CAVA. The name of a vein, and also of

the pudendum muliebre. See Veins. CAVERNA. (From cavus, hollow.) Also the name of the pudendum cavern. muliebre.

CAVIARE. Caviarium. A food made of the hard roes of sturgeon, formed into cakes, and much esteemed by the Russians.

CAVICULA. (Dim. of cavilla.) See Cavilla.

CAVILLA. (From cavus.) The ankle, or hollow of the foot.

CAVITAS. (From cavus, hollow.) Any cavity, or hollowness. The auricle of the heart was formerly called the cavitas innominata, the hollow without a name.

Cayenne pepper. See Piper Indicum.

CAZABI. See Cassada.

CEASMA. (From xee, to split, or divide.) Ceasmus. A fissure, or fragment.

CEBER. (Arab.) The agallochum. Also

the capparis.

CEBIPIRA. (Indian.) A tree which grows in Brazil, decoctions of whose bark are used in baths and fomentations, to relieve pains in the limbs, and cutaneous dis-

CEDAR. See Cedrinum lignum.

CEDMA. (From nesaw, to disperse.) defluxion, or rheumatic affection, scattered over the parts about the hips.

CEDRA, ESSENTIA DE. See Bergamotte.

CEDRINUM LIGNUM. Cedar of Leba-Vinus cedrus of Linnæus. An odoriferous wood, more fragrant than that of the fir, but possessing similar virtues.

CEDRITES. (From xs/gos, the cedar-tree.) Wine in which the resin which distils from

the cedar-tree has been steeped.

CEDRIUM. Cedar. It is also a name for common tar, in old writings.

CEDROMELA. The fruit of the citrontree

CEDRONELLA, Turkey baum.

CEDROSTIS. (From nedgos, the cedar-tree.) A name of the white bryony, which smells like the cedar.

CEDRUS. (From Kedron, a valley where they grew abundantly.) The Pinus cedrus of Linnaus, or the cedar-tree.

CEDRUS AMERICANA. The arbor vitæ. CEDRUS BACCIFERA. The savine.

CEIRIA. (From nugw, to abrade.) The tape-worm; so called from its excoriating and abrading the intestines.

Celandine. See Chelidonium majus.

CELASTRUS. (From MENA, a dart or pole, which it represents.) Ceanothus Americanus of Linnæus. Some noted Indians depend more on this than on the lobelia, for the cure of syphilis, and use it in the same manner as lobelia.

CELE. (From unha.) A tumour caused by the protusion of any soft part. Hence the compound terms hydrocele, bubonocele. frustanea. Class, Syngenesia.

CELERY. The English name for a variety of the apium graveolens ...

Celiac artery. See Caliac artery.

CELIS. (From xxxxx, to burn.) A spot or blemish upon the skin, particularly that which is occasioned by a burn.

CELLA TURCICA. See Sella turcica. (Dim. of cella, a cell.) CELLULA. little cell or cavity.

CELLULÆ MASTOIDEÆ See Temporal

CELLULAR MEMBRANE. Membra-Tela cellulosa. Panniculus adina cellulosa posus. Membrana adiposa, pinguedinosa, et reticularis. The cellular structure of the body, composed of laminæ and fibres variously joined together, which is the connecting medium of every part of the body. It is by means of the communication of the cells of this membrane, that the butchers blow up their veal. The cellular membrane is, by some anatomists, distinguished into the reticular and adipose membrane. former is evidently dispersed throughout the whole body, except the substance of the brain. It makes a bed for the other solids of the body, covers them all, and unites them one to another. The adipose membrane consists of the reticular substance, and a particular apparatus for the secretion of oil, and is mostly found immediately under the skin of many parts, and about the kidneys.

CELOTOMIA. (From κηλη, hernia, and τεμνω, to cut.) The operation for hernia. Celsa. A term of Paracelsus's, to sign

nify what is called the beating of the life in a particular part.

CEMENTERIUM. A crucible.

(From ney xgos, millet.) CENCHRAMIS. A grain or seed of the fig.

CENCHRIUS. A species of Herpes that

resembles nex xgos, or millet.

CENEANGEIA. (From 18900, to empty, and 27705, a vessel.) The evacuation of blood, or other fluids, from their proper vessels.

CENIGDAM. Ceniplam. Cenigotam. Cenipolam. The name of an instrument anciently used for opening the head in epilepsies.

formerly of use in the venerial disease,

supposed to be mercurial.

CENOSIS. (From REVOS, empty.) cuation. It must be distinguished from Catharsis. Cenosis imports a general evacuation; Catharsis means the evacuation of a particular humour, which offends with respect to quality.

CENTAUREA. (So called from Chiron, the centaur, who is said to have employed one of its species to cure himself of a wound accidentally received, by letting one of the arrows of Hercules fall upon his foot.)

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system, of the Order Polygamia

CENTAUREA BEHEN. The systematic name of the officinal behen album. See Behen album.

CENTAUREA BENEDICTA. The systematic name of the blessed thistle. See Carduus benedictus.

CENTAUREA CALCITRAPA. The systematic name of the calcitrapa. See Calci-

CENTAUREA CYANUS, The systematic name of the plant which affords the flores cyani. See Cyanus

CENTAUNIOIDES. The gratiola.

CENTAURIUM MAGNUM MAJUS. The great

CENTAURIUM. (From nevlaugos, a centaur; so called because it was teigned that Chiron cured Hercules's toot, which he had wounded with a poisonous arrow, with Centaurium minus vulgare. taurium parvum. Centaurium minus. Cen-Chironia centaurium of Linnæ-115 :- corollis quinquefidis infundibuliformibus, caule dichotomo, pestillo simplici. This plant is justly esteemed to be the most efficacious bitter of all the medicinal plants indigenous to this country. It has been recommended, by Cullen, as a substitute for gentain, and by several is thought to be a more useful medicine. The tops of the centaury plant are directed for use by the colleges of London and Edinburgh, and are most commonly given in infusion; but they may also be taken in powder, or prepared into an extract.

Centaury. See Centaurium.

CENTAURIUM MINUS. See Centaurium.

CUNTIMORBIA (From centum, a hundred, and morbus, a disease.) Nummularia, or moneywort; named from its supposed efficacy in the cure of a multitude of disorders.

CENTINODIA. (From centum, a hundred, and nodus, a knot.) The herb polygonum; so called from its many knots, or

CENTIPEDES. (From centum, a hundred, and pes, a foot.) Woodlice, named from

the multitude of their feet.

CENTRATIO. (From centrum, a centre.) The concentration and affinity of certain substances to each other. Paracelsus expresses by it the degenerating of a salme principle, and contracting a corrosive and exuleerating quality. Hence Centrum Salis. is said to be the principle and cause of

CENTRIUM. (From KEYTEA, to, prick.) A plaister recommended by Galen against

Stieltes and prieks in the side.

CENTRUM. (From \*\*175\*\*, to point or prick.) The middle point of a circle. In eliginistry, it is the residence or founda-tion of matter. In medicine, it is the point in which its virtue resides, In anatomy, the middle point of some parts is so

named, as centrum nerveum the middle or tendinous part of the dupliragm.

CENTRUM OVALE. When the two hemispheres of the brain are removed on a line with the level of the corpus callosum, the internal medullary part presents a somewhat oval centre; hence it is called centrum ovale Vieussenius supposed all the medullary fibres met at this place.

CENTRUM TENDINOSUM. The tendinous centre of the diaphragm is so called. See

Diaphragm.

CENTRUM NERVEUM. The centre of the diaphragm is so called. See Dia-

CENTUMNODIA. (From centum, a hundred, and nodus, a knot; so called from its many knots, or joints.) Common knotgrass. This plant, Polygonum aviculare of Linnæus, is never used in this country; it is said to be useful in stopping hæmorrhages, diarrhous, &c. but little credit is to be given to this account.

CENTUNCULUS. Bastard pimpernel. CEPA. (From MATOS, a woolcard, from

the likeness of its roots.) The onion. This bulbous root belongs to the Allium cepa of Linnaus :- scapo nudo inferne ventricoso longiore, foliis teretibus. Dr. Cullen says, onions are acrid and stimulating, and possess very little nutriment. With bilious constitutions they generally produce flatu-lency, thirst, head-ach, and febrile symp-toms; but where the temperament is phlegmatic, they are of infinite service, by stimulating the habit and promoting the natural secretions, particularly expectoration and urine. They are recommended in scorbutic cases, as possessing antiscorbutic properties. Externally, onions are employed in suppurating poultices, and suppression of urine in children is said to be relieved by applying them, roasted, to the pubes.

CEPEA. A species of onion which used to be esteemed for salads in spring, but is

now disregarded.

CEPHALEA. (From nepan, the head.) The flesh of the head, which covers the skull. Also a long continued pain of the cerebrum, and its membranes.

CEPHALALGIA. (From negann, the head, and axyos, pain.) Cephalea. The head-ach. It is symptomatic of very many diseases, but is rarely an original disease itself. When mild, it is called cephalalgia; when inveterate, cephalæn. When one side of the head only is affected, it takes the names of hemicrania, migrana, hemipagia, and megrim; in one of the temples only, crotaphos; and that which is fixed to a point, generally in the crown of the head, is distinguished by the name of clavus.

CEPHALALGIA CATARRHALIS. Head-ach,

with catarrh, from cold.

CEPHALALGIA INFLAMMATORIA. tis, or inflammation of the brain.

CEPHALALGIA SPASMODICA. Tire sick head-ach. A species of indigestion.

CEPHALARTICA. (From REGARN, the head, and aprison, to make pure.) Medicines which purge the head.

CEPHALE. (Kepann.) The head.

CEPHALIC VEIN. (Vena cephalica; so called, because the head was supposed to be relieved by opening it.) The anterior vein of the arm, that receives the cephalic of the thumb.

CEPHALICA. (From REPURA, the head.) Cephalics. Such remedies as are adapted for the cure of disorders of the head. Of this class are the snuffs, which produce a discharge from the mucous membrane of

the nose, &c.

CEPHALICA POLLICIS. A branch from the cephalic vein, sent off from about the lower extremity of the radius, running superficially between the thumb and the me-

CEPHALIEUS PULVIS. A powder prepar-

ed from asarum.

CEPHALINE. (From REPARI, the head.) The head of the tongue. That part of the tongue which is next the root and nearest the fauces.

CEPHALITIS. (From nepann the head.) Inflammation of the head. See Phrenitis.

CEPHALONOSUS. (From κηφαλη, the head, and νοσος, a disease.) This term is applied to the febris hungarica, in which the head is principally affected.

(From REDANK, CEPHALO-PHARYNGEUS. the head, and pagen &, the throat.) muscle of the pharyux, otherwise named constrictor pharyngis inferior; which

CEPHALOPONIA. (From REGAN, the head, and wever, pain.) Head-ach; heaviness of the h ad.

CEPINI. Vinegar.

CERA. Wax. Bees' wax. A solid concrete substance, collected from vegetables by bees; and extracted from their combs after the honey is got out, by heating and pressing them. With rectified spirit it forms, by the assistance of heat, a gelatinous liquid. It is perfectly insoluble in watery liquors. When melted, it assumes the appearance of oil, and in this state is easily combined with oils and liquid It is very inflammable, and burns totally away. In the state in which it is obtained from the combs, it is called yellow wax, cera flava; and this, when new, is of a lively yellow colour, somewhat tough, yet easy to break : by age it loses its fine colour, and becomes harder and more brittle. Yellow wax, after being reduced into thin cakes, and bleached by a long exposure to the sun and open air, is again mel'ed, and formed into round cakes. called virgin's wax, or white wax, cera alba, The chief medicinal use of wax, is in plaisters, unguents, and other like external applications, partly for giving the requisite consistence to other ingredients, and partly on account of its own emollient quality.

CERA ALBA. See Cera.

CERA DICARDO. The carduns pinea. Yellow wax-CERA FLAVA.

CEREE. (From aseas, a horn.) Rufus Ephesius calis the cornua of the ute-

Per together.) A name formerly applied to a pastil, or troch, by Galen.

CERAS. (Keezs, a horn.) A wild sort of

parsnip is so named from its shape.

CERASA NIGRA. (Kegaros, the cherrytree : from Kegasovin, a town in Pontus, whence Lucullus first brought them to Rome; or from ung, the heart; from its resemblance to it in shape and colour.) Eucoilia, because cherries keep the body open. The black cherry. The ripe fruit of the Prunus avium of Linnaus:-umbellis sessilibus, foliis ovato-lanceolatis, subtus pubescentibus, conduplicatis. The flavour of these is esteemed by many, and if not taken in too large quantities, they are extremely salutary. A gum exudes from the tree, whose properties are similar to those of gum arabic.

CERASA RUBRA. Cerasa sativa, or anglica. The red cherry. The ripe fruit of the Prunys cerasus of Linnaus :- umbellis subpedunculatis. foliis ovato-lanceolatis, glabris, conduplicatis. This species possesses a pleasan, acidulated, sweet flavour, and is extremely proper in fevers, scurvy, and bilous obstructions. Red cherries are mostly eaten as a luxury, and are very wholesome, except to those whose bowels

are remarkably irritable.

CERASIATUM. (From cerasus, a cherry.) A purging medicine in Libavius; so called because the juice of cherries is an ingredient.

Crasios. (From cerasus, a CERASIUS, cherry.) The name of two ointments in

Messue.

CERASMA. (From negannul, to mix.) A mixture of cold and warm water, when the warm is poured into the cold.

CERASUS. (From Kegasovan a town in Pontus, from whence Lucullus is said first to have brought them to Rome.) The

cherry-tree.

CERATE. (From cerum, wax.) Ceratum. The obsolete synonyms, are cerelea, ceromata, ceronia, cerota. Ceratomalgamata. Cerates take their name from the wax which enters into their composition, and to which they owe their consistence, which is intermediate between that of plaisters and that of ointments; though no very definite rule

for this consistence is, in fact, either given or observed.

CEHATIA. (From upas, a horn, which its fruit is supposed to resemble.) Ceratium. Ceratmia. The siliqua dulcis.

CERATIA DIPHYLLUS. Sce Courbaril.

CERATO-GLOSSUS. (From kepas, a horn, and platoa, a tongue.) A muscle, so named from its shape and inscrtion into the tongue. See Hyoglossus.

CEHATO-HYOIDEUS. (From the os hyo-

ides.) See Stylo-hyoiden.

CLIATOIDES. (From xegalos, the genitive of xegas, a horn.) See Cornea.

CERATO-MALGAMA. A cerate.

CEHATONIA SILIQUA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the sweet pod. See Siliqua dulcis.

CERATUM. See Cerate.

CEHATUM COMMUNE. Common cerate. Take of olive oil, six fluid onnces; yellow wax, four ounces. Having melted the wax, mix in the oil.

CERATUM ALBUM. See Ceratum cetacei. CEHATUM CALAMELANOS. By Calom. 3j. Cerat. calam. 3ss. Misce. Some practitioners are partial to this as a dressing for chancres.

CEHATUM CALAMINE. Formerly called ceratum lapidis calaminaris, and ceratam epuloticum. Calamine ceratc. Take of prepared calamine, yellow wax, of each half a pound; olive oil, a pint. Mix the oil with the melted wax; then remove it from the lire, and, as soon as it begins to thicken, add the calamine, and stir it constantly, until the mixture becomes cold. A composition of this kind was first meroduced under the name of Turner's cerate. Its virtue is desiccative, epulotic, and is well calculated to promote the cicatrization of ulcers.

CEHATUM CETACEL. Ceratum spermatis Cerutum album. Spermaceti cerate. Take of spermaccti, half an ounce; white wax, two ounces; olive oil, 4 fluid-ounces. Add the oil to the spermaceti and wax, previously melted together, until the mixture becomes cold. This cerate is cooling and emollient, and applied to excoriations, &c. and may be applied with advantage to all ulcers, where no stimulating substance can be applied, being extremely mild and unctuous.

Hemlock cerate. CERATUM CICUTAL . unguenti cicutæ lb.j. Spermatis ceti 3jj. Cera alba Ziii. Misce. One of the formula of St. Bartholomew's hospital, occasionally applied to cancerous, scrophulous, phagedenic, herpetic, and other inveterate sores.

See Ceratum re CERATUM CITHINUM. sine.

CERATUM EPULOTICUM. Sec Ceratum calamin.e.

CERATUM LAPIDIS CALAMINARIS. See Ceratum calamine.

CENATUM LITHARGYRI ACETATI COMPOSI-TIM. See Ceratum plumbi compositum

CERATUM LYTTE. Ceratum cantharidis. Cerate of bistering fly. Take of spermaceti cerate, six drachms; blistering flies, very fine powder, a drachm. Having softened the cerate by heat, add the flies, and mix them together.

CERATUM PLUMBI SUPERACETATIS. guentum cerussæ acetatæ. Cerate of superacetate of lead. Take of superacetate of lead, powdered, two drachms; white wax, two ounces; olive oil, a pint. Dissolve the wax in seven fluid-ounces of oil; then gradually add thereto the superacetate of lead, separately rubbed down with the remaining oil, and stir the mixture with a wooden slice, until the whole has united. This cerate is cooling and desiccative.

CERATUM PLUMBI COMPOSITUM. Ceratum lithargyri acetati compositum. Com-pound cerate of lead. Take of solution of lead, two fluid-onaces and a half; yellow wax, four ounces; olive oil, nine fluid ounces; campnor, half a drachm. Mix the wax previously melted, with eight fluid ounces of oil; then remove it from the fire, and, when it begins to thicken, add gradually the solution of acetate of lead, and constantly stir the mixture with a wooden slice, until it gets cold. Lastly, mix in the camphor, previously dissolved in the remainder of the oil. Its virtues are cooling, desiccative, resolvent against chronic rheumatism, &c. &c.; and as a proper application to superficial ulcers, which are inflamed.

CERATUM RESINE. Ceratum resina flave. Ceratum citrinum. Resin cerate. Take of yellow resin, yellow wax, of each a pound; olive oil, a pound. Melt the resin and wax together, over a slow fire; then add the oil, and strain the cerate, while hot, through a linen cloth. Digestive.

CENATUM SABINE. Savine cerate. Take of fresh leaves of savine, brused, a pound; yellow wax, half a pound; prepared lard, two pounds. Having melted together the wax and lard, boil therein the savine leaves, and strain through a linen cioth. This article is of late introduction, for the purpose of keeping up a discharge from blistered surfaces. It was first described by Mr. Crowther, and has since been received into extensive use, because it does not produce the inconveniencies that follow the constant application of the common blistering cerate. A thick white layer forms daily upon the part, which requires to be removed, that the cerate may be applied immediately to the surface from which the discharge is to be made.

CERATUM SAPONIS. Soap cerate. of hard soap, eight ounces; yellow wax, ten ounces; scini-vitreous oxyd of lead, powdered, a pound; olive oil, a pint; vinegar, a gallon. Boil the vinegar, with the oxyd of lead, over a slow fire, constantly stirring, until the union is complete; then add the soap, and boil it again in a similar manner, until the water is entirely evaporated; then mix in the wax, previously melted with the Resolvent; against srophulous tumours, &c. It is a convenient application in fractures, and may be used as an external dressing for nicers.

CERATUM SPERMATISCETI. See Ceratum

cetacei.

CERBERUS. (Keglepos.) A fanciful name given to the compound powder of scammony, because, like the dog Cerberus, it has three heads, or principal ingredients, each of which is emminently active.

CERCHNALEUM. (From nepxw, to make a noise.) A wheezing, or bubbling noise,

made by the trachea, in breathing.

CERCINOS. (From usexw, to wheeze.) Wheezing.

CERCHNODES. (From xeexw, to wheeze) One who labours under a dense breathing, accompanied with a wheezing noise.

CERCHODES. The same as cerclinodes.

CERCIS. (From usexw, to shriek) This word literally means the spoke of a wheel, and has its name from the noise which wheels often make. In anatomy it means the radius, a bone supposed to be like a spoke. Also a pestle, from its shape.

CERCOSIS. (From nepros, a tail.) A polypus of the uterus. It is sometimes ap-

plied to an enlargement of the clitoris. CEREA. (From cera, wax.) The cerumen aurium, or wax of the ear.

CEREALIA (Solemn feasts to the goddess Ceres.) All sorts of corn, of which bread or any nutritious substance is made, come under the head of cerealia, which term is applied by bromatologists as a ge-

CEREBELLA URINA. (Paracelsus thus distinguishes urme which is whitish, of the colour of the brain, and from which he pretended to judge of some of its dis-

tempers.

CEREBELLUM. (Dim. of cerebrum.) A somewhat round The little brain. viscus, of the same use as the brain; composed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary substance, divided by a septum into a right and left lobe, and situated under the tentorium, in the inferior occipital In the cerebellum are to be observed the crura cerebelli, the fourth ventricle, the valvula magna cerebri, and the protuberantiæ vermiformis.

CEREBRUM. (Quasi carebrum; from raga, the head.) The brain. A large round viscus, divided superiorly into a right and left hemisphere, and inferiorly into six lobes, two anterior, two middle, and two posterior; situated within the cramium, and surrounded by the dura and pia mater, and tunica arachnoides. It is composed of a cortical substance, which is external; and a medullary, which is internal. It has three

cavities, called ventricles; two anterior, or lateral, which are divided from each other by the septum licidum, and in which is the choroid piexus, formed of blood-vessels; the third ventricle is a space between the thalami nervorum opticorum. The principal prominences of the brain are, the corpus callosum, a meduilary eminence, conspicuous upon laying aside the hemispheres of the brain; the corpora stricta, two striated protuberances, one in the anterior part of each lateral ventricle; the thalami nervorum opticorum, two wintish eminences behind the former, which terminate in the optic nerves; the corpora quadrigemina, four medullary projections called by the ancients, nates and testes; a little cerebrine tubercle lying upon the nates, called the pineal gland; and lastly, the crura cerebri, two medullary columns which proceed from the basis of the brain to the medulla oblonguta. The cerebral arteries are branches of the carotid and vertebral arteries. The venus of the head are called sinusses, which return their blood into the internal jugulars. The use of the brain is to give off nine pairs of nerves, through whose means the various senses are performed, and muscular motion excited.

The medulla CEREBRUM ELONGATUM.

oblongata.

CEREFOLIUM. (A corruption of chærophyllum.) Cherophyllum. Cherefolium. Chervil. This plant, Scandix cerefolium of Linnaus :- seminibus nitidis, ovato-subulatis; umbellis sessilibus, lateralibus, is a salubrious culmary herb, sufficiently grateful both to the palate and stomach, slightly aromatic, gently aperient, and diuretic.

The plant CEREFOLIUM HISPANICUM. called by us Sweet-cicely.

CEREFOLIUM SYLVESTRE. See Cerefo. lium.

CEREI MEDICATI. See Bougies.

CERELEUM. (From ungos, wax, and shator, oil.) A cerate, or liniment, composed of wax and oil. Also the oil of tar.

CEREVISIÆ FERMENTUM. Yeast.

CEREVISIA. (From ceres, corn, of which it is made ) Ale. Beer. Any liquor made from corn.

CEREVISIÆ CATAPLASMA. Into the grounds of strong beer stir as much oatmeal as will make it of a suitable consistence. This is sometimes employed as a stimulant and antiseptic to mortified parts.

CERIA. (From cereus, soft, taper.) riæ. The flat worms which breed in the

intestines.

CERION. (From ungion, a honey-comb.) A kind of achor.

CEHOMA. (From ungos, wax.) Ceronium. Terms used by the ancient physicians for an unguent, or cerate, though originally applied to a particular compesation which the wrestlers used in their are also diuretic and emetic. The dose to excreises.

(From xneos, wax, and CEROPISSUS. wiora, pitch.) A plaister composed of pitch and wax.

CERUTUM. (Kegator.) A cerate. CERUMEN AURIUM. (Cerumen; dim. of cera, wax.) Aurium sordes. Marmorata aurium, Cypsele. Cypselis fugile. The waxy secretions of the ears, situated in the meatus auditorius externus.

CERUSSA. (Arab.) Cerusse, or white lead. A subcarbonate of lead. See Sub-

curbonas plumbi.

See Super-acetus CERUSSA ACETATA. p!umbi.

CERVI SPINA. See Rhamnus catharti-

CERVICAL. (Cervicalis; from cervix, the neck.) Belonging to the neck; as cervical nerves, cervical muscles, &c.

CERVICAL ARTERIES. Arteriæ cervicales.

Branches of the subclavians.

CERVICAL VERTERRE. The seven uppermost of the vertebræ, which form the spine. See Vertebræ.

CERVICARIA. (From cervix, the neck; so named because it was supposed to be efficacions in disorders and aiments of the throat and neck.) The herb throat-wort.

CERVIX. (Quasi cerebri via; as being the channel of the spinal marrow.) The neck. That part of the body which is between the head and shoulders. The cervix uters is the neck of the uterus; or that part of it which is immediately above or beyond the os tincæ. This term is also applied to other parts, as cervix vesica, ossis, &c.

CESTRITES. (From RESTEON, betony.)

Wine impregnated with betony.

CESTRUM. (From x55gz, a dart; so called from the shape of its flowers, which resemble a dart; or because it was used to extract the broken ends of darts from wounds.) The herb betony.

CATERACII. (Bianchard says this word is corrupted from Pteryga, mingue, q. v. as peteryga, ceteryga, and ceterach) Scolo-Doradilla? Spleenwort. pendria vera. Milewaste. This small bushy plant, Asplenium ceterach of Linnaus :- frondibus pinnatifidis, lobis alternis confluentibus obtusis, grows upon old walls and rocks. It has an herbaceous, mucilaginous, roughish taste, and is recommended as a pectoral. In Spain it is given, with great success, in nephritic and calculous diseases.

CEVADILLA. (Din. of ceveda, barley. Spanish.) Cevadula Hispanorum. Sevadilla. Sabadilla. Hordeum causticum. Canis in-Sabadilla. Hordeum causticum. Ca tersector. Indian caustic barley. plant whose seeds are thus denominated, is a species of veratrum: they are powerfully caustic, and are administered with CHALYBEATE WATERS. Any mivery great success as a vermitage. They need water which abounds with steel.

a child, from two to four years old, is two grains; from hence to eight, five grains; from eight to twelve, ten grains.

Cayenne pepper. See Capsicum. Cu va. A Chinese name for tea. Симпородим. See Cerefolium. Симпорическим. (Ханофиялог

(Χαιροφυλλον: χαις», to rejoice, and φυλλον, a leaf; so called from the abundance of its leaves.) Chervil.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of some plants. See Cicutaria and Cerefolium.

CHEROPHYLLUM SYLVESTRE. See Cicu-

CHACARILLE CORTEX. See Cascarilla. CHETA. (From Xee, to be diffused.) The human hair.

CHALASIS. (From xanae, to relax.) Relaxation.

CHALASTICA. (From xaxae, to relax.)

Medicines which relax.

CHALAZION. (From xanafa, a hailstone.) Chalaza. Chalazium Grando. An indolent, moveable tuberele, on the margin of the cyclid, ike a hailstone. A species of hordeolum. It is that well-known affection of the eye, called a stye, or stian. It is white, hard, and encysted, and differs from the crithe, another species, only in being moveable. Writers mention a division of Chalazon into scirrhous, cancerous, cystic, and earthy.

CHALBANE. (Καλθανη.) Galbanum. CHALBANTHUM. (From χαλκος, brass, and arbos, a flower.) Vitriol; or rather, vitriol calcined red. The flowers of brass. CHALCRION. A species of pimpinella.

CHALCOIDEUM OS. The os cuneiforme of

the tarsus,

CHALK. Creta. A carbonate of line, Pure chalk is a neutral salt, formed by the union of the cretaceous acid with lime. It is much used as an absorbent and antacid, to stop diarrhoas, accompanied with acidity. See Carbonas calcis.

CHALK STONES. A name given to the concretions of calcareous matter in the hands and feet of people violently afflicted

with the gout.

CHALICRATUM. (From Xaxis, an old word that signifies pure wine, and xegarrouns, to mix.) Wine mixed with water.

CHALINOS. Chalinus. That part of the cheeks, which, on each side, is contiguous to the angles of the mouth.

CHALYBEATE. (Chalybeata, sc. medicamenta; from chalybs, steel.) Of or belonging to iron. A term given to any medicine into which iron euters; as chalvbeate

mixture, pills, waters, &c. CHALYBEATE WATERS.

iron; such as the waters of Tunbridge, Spa, Pyrmont, Cheltenham, Scarborough, and Hartfel; and many others.

CHALYBIS RUBICO PREPARATA. See

Carbonas ferri.

CHALYBS. (From Chaiybes, a people in Pontus, who dug iron out of the earth.) Acies. Seel. The best, hardest, finest, and the closest-grained forged iron. As a medicine, it differs not from iron.

CHALYBS TARTARISATUS. The ferrum

tarta isatum.

CHAMEBALANUS. (From χαμαι, on the ground, and βαλαγος, a nut.) Wood peas. Earth nucs.

CHAMEBUXUS. (From xamai, on the ground, and over, the box-tree.) The

dwarf box-tree

CHAMECEDRUS. (From xama, on the groun i, and resigns the cedar tree.) Chamecedrys. A species of dwarf abrotanum.

CHAMECISSUS. (From χαμαι, on the ground, and κισσος, ivy.) Ground-ivy.

(From Xamai, CHAMÆDRYS. ground, and fevs, the oak; so called from its leaves resembling those of the oak.) Chamædrys minor repins, vulgaris. Quer-cula calamandrina. Trissago. Chamædrops of Paulus Agineta and Oribasius. This plant, creeping germander, small germander, and English treacle; Tencrium chamedrys of Linnæus :- foliis cuneiformi ovatis incisis crenatis, petiolatis; floribus terms; caulibus procumbentibus, subpilosis, has a moderately bitter and somewhat aromatic taste. It was in high repute amongst the ancients in intermittent fevers, rheumatism. and gout; and where an aromatic bitter is wanting, germander may be administered with success. The best time for gathering this herb is when the seeds are formed, and the tops are then preserable to the leaves. When dry, the dose is from 3ss to 3j. Either water or spirit will extract their virtue; but the watry infusion is more bitter. This plant is an ingredient in the once celebrated powder called from the Duke of Portland.

CHAMÆDRYS INCANA MARITIMA. The

marum syriacum.

CHAMEDRYS FRUTESCENS. A name for teucrium.

Chamædres Palustris. A name given to scordium,

CHAMÆDRYS SPURIA. A name given to veronica.

CHAMÆLEA. (From χαμαι, on the ground, and ελαια, the olive-tree.) Chamelea. The herb widow-wail, or Daphne alpina of Linnæus. A sort of dwarf olive-tree, said to be purgative in the dose of 3j. The mezereon is also so called, because it has leaves like the olive-tree.

CHAMÆLEAGNUS. (From χαμαι, on the ground, and ελαιαγνος, the wild olive.) The

myrtus brabantica.

CHAMÆLEMA. (From χαμαι, on the ground, and ηλεμα, ivy.) The ground-

ivy

CHAMÆLEON. (From  $\chi^{\alpha}\mu^{\alpha}u$ , on the ground, and  $\lambda\epsilon_{\alpha\theta}$ , a lion, i. e dwarf lion.) The chanæleon, an animal supposed to be able to change its colour at pleasure. Also the name of many thistles, so named from the variety and uncertainty of their colours.

CHAMELEON ALBUM. Carlina. Cardopatium. Carline thistle. Carlina acaulis of Linnaus:—caule unifloro, flore breviore. The root of this plant is bitter, and said to possess diaphoretic and anthelimintic virtues. It is also extolled by foreign physicians in the cure of acute, malignant, and chronic disorders.

CHAMÆLEON VERUM. The distaff

thistle.

CHAMELEUCE. (From  $\chi \alpha \mu \alpha t$ , on the ground, and  $\lambda \nu \nu \pi a$ , the herb colt's-foot.) Tussilago, or call's-foot.

CHAMÆLINUM. (From xamas, on the ground, and anos, fl. x.) Linum catharti-

cum, or purgang of flax.)

CHAMEMELUM. (From xapas, on the ground, and maker, an apple; because it grows upon the ground, and has the smell of an apple.) Chamamelum nobile. Chamomilla romana. Euanthemon of Galen. Anthemis of the last London pharmacopæia. Common chamomile. Anthemis nobilis of Linnæus:-foliis pinnato-compositis linearibus acutis subvillosis. Both the leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant have a strong, though not ungrateful smell, and a very bitter, nauseous taste: but the latter are the bitterer, and considerably more aromatic. They possess tonic and stomachic qualities, and are much employed to restore tone to the stomach and intestines, and as a pleasant and cheap bitter. have been long successfully used for the cure of intermittents, as well as of fevers of the irregular nervous kind, accompanied with visceral obstructions. The flowers have been found useful in hysterical affections, flatulent or spasmodic colics, and dysentery; but, from their laxative quality, Dr. Cullen tells us they proved hurtful in diarrheas. A simple infusion is frequently taken to excite vomiting, or for promoting the operation of emetics. Externally, they are used in the decoctum pro fomento, and are an ingredient in the decoctum pro enemate.

CHAMEMELUM CANARIENSE. The Chrysanthemum frutescens of Lonnæus.

CHA 4 EMELUM CHRYSANTHEMUM. The bupthalmum germancum.

CHAMEMELUM FETTIDUM. The Anthemis cotula of Linnaus.

CHAMEMELUM FLORE PLENO. Chamæmelum nobile flore multiplici. Double chamomile. A variety of the anthemis nobilis. See Chamæmelum. CHAMMMELUM NOUILE. See Chamame-

CHAMEMELUM VULGARE. Chamomilla nostras. Leucanthemam of Dioscorides. Common wild c rn, or dog's chamomile. The plant directed under this name in the pharmacopæias, is the Matricaria chamomilla of Lunaus :- receptaculis conicis ; radiis prientibus; squamis calycinis, margine aqualibus. Its virtues are similar to those of the enamæmelum, but in a much inferior

CHAM ÆMORUS, (From xamai, on the ground, and poets, the mulberry tree.) Chameruhus folius ribis Anglice. Rubus palustris lumilis. Vaccinium Lancastrense. Rubus alpinus humilis. Anglicus. Cloudberr es, and knot berries. The ripe fruit of this plant, Rubus chamemorus of Linnæus :- foliis simplicibus lobatis, caule interno unifloro, is prepared into a jam: and is recommended to allay thirst, &c. in levers, phthusical diseases, hamoptysis, &c. As an antiscorburic, it is said to excel the seurvy-grass and vegetables of that tribe in common use.

CHAMPEUCE. (From xapa, on the ground, and weeks, the pine tree.) Camphorata, or stinking ground-pine, formerly

said to be antirrheumatic.

CHAMÆPITYS (From χαμαι, the ground, and συτυς, the pine-tree.) Arthe-Arthretica Ajuga. Abiga. Iva arthritica. Holocyron, Ionia. Sideritis. Common ground-pine. This low hairy plant, Teucrinm chamapitys of Linnaus: -foliis trifidis, Linearibus, intergerrimis; Roribus sessilibus, lateralibus, solitariis; canle diffuso, has a moderately bitter taste, and a resinous, not disagreeable smell, somewhat like that of the pine. The tops, or leaves, are recommended as aperiouts and corroborants of the nervous system, and said to be particularly serviceable in female obstructions and paralytic disor-

CHAMMPITYS MOSCHATA. Iva moschata monspeliensium. Chamepytis anthyllis. The Teucrium iva of Linnaus. Freuch ground pine. It is weaker, but of similar virmes to chamæpity.

CHAMBELION. A name in Oribasius for

erysimum, or hedge mustard.

CHAMERAPHANUM. SO Paulns neta calls the upper part of the root of the

CHAMERAPHANUS. From xamas, on the ground, and expanoc, the radish.) The upper part of the root of apium, according to P. Ægineta. The smallage, or parsley. Also dwarf radish.

CHAMENTPHES. The palma minor.

CHAM ERODODENDRON. (From Xapai, on the ground, and estatistion, the rose laurel.) The Azelea pontica of Linnxus.

CHANERUBIS (From gapan, on the ground, and rubus, the bramble.) The chamæmorus.

CHAMESPARTIUM. (From xapai, on the ground, and σπαρτιον, Spanish broom.) The genista tincti re.

CHAMBERS The space between the capsule of the crystalline lens and the cornea of the eye, is divided by the iris into two spaces called chambers; the space before the iris is termed the auterior chamber; and that behind it, the posterior. They are filled with an aqueo: - flu d.

See Chamemelun CHAMOMILLA NOSTRAS.

vulgare.

CHAMONILLA ROMAN See Chamieme-

CHANCRE. (F: n nagnivos, cancer.) A sose which arise from the direct application of the vener porson to any part of the body. Of course it mostly occurs on the genitals. Such venered sores as break out from a general contamination of the system, in consequence of absorption, never have the term chancre applied to them.

Paracelsus CHAOMANTIA SIGNA. So calls those prognosties that are taken from observations of the air; and the skill of doing this, the same author calls Chaoman-

CHAOSDA. Paracelsus uses this word as an epithet for the plague.

CHARABE (Arab.) A name given to amber. See Succinum.

CHARADRA, (From χαζασσω, to excavate.) The bowels, or sink or the body.

Charantia. Purgue hazel-nut.
Charantia. The momordica elaterium. Charcoal, See Carbon.

CHARDONE. The Cinara spinosa.

CHARISTOLOCHIA. (From xxgis, jov. and λοχια, the flux of women after child-birth: so named from its supposed usefulness to women in childbirth.) The plant mugwort, or artemisia.

CHARME. (From xaipe, to rejoice.) Charmis. A cordial antidote mentioned by Galen.

CHARPIE. (I're ch.) Scraped linen, or

CHARTA. (Chaid.) Paper. The amnois, or interior fætal membrane, was called the charta virginea, from its likeness to a piece of fine paper.

CHARTHEUX, POUDRE DE. (So called because it was invented by some friars of the Carthusian orper.) A name of the kermes

mineral.

CHASME. (From xawa, to gabe.) Chas-O sificacion. Gapin

Chaste tree The Agr .astus.

CHATE, The cucui Lgyptia.

Check-hone. See . e ns. CHEESE. The cagulum of milk, When prepared to a rich milk, and well made, it is very ritious in small quantities: but most undigestible when hard and ill prepare , especial'y to weak stomach-.

Chellocace. (Brom xuxos, a lip, and

of the lips, or canker in the mouth.

CHEIMELTON. (From zuma, winter.)

Chilblains.

CHEIRANTHUS. (From xag, a hand, and avos, a flower; so named from the likeness of its blossoms to the fingers of the hand.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Order, Siliquosa. The wall flower.

CHEIRANTHUS CHEIRI. The systematic

name of the wall-flower. See Cheiri.

Cheirapsia. (From zug, the hand, and arriousi, to scratch.) The act of scratching; particularly the scratching one

hand with another, as in the itch.

CHEIRI. (Cheiri, Arab.) Leucolum luteum. Viola lutea. Common yellow wall-flower. The flowers of this plant, Cheiranthus cheiri of Liunwus:—folis lanceolatis, acutis, glabris; ramis angulatis; eau'e fruticoso, are recommended as possessing nervine and deobstruent virtues. They have a moderately strong, pleasant smell, and a nauseous, hitter, somewhat pungent taste.

CHEIRIATER. (From xug, the hand, and expos, a physician. A surgeon whose office it is to remove maladies by opera-

tions of the hand

CHEIRISMA. (From χεριζομα, to labour with the hand.) Handling. Also a manual operation.

CHEIRIXIS. (From Xeigischau, to labour

with the hand. The art of surgery.

CHEIRONOMIA. (From Xugoropea, to exercise with the hands.) An exercise mentioned by Hippocrates, which consisted of gesticulations with the hands, like our dumb-bells.

Chela. (From golds, forceps; from zw., to take.) A forked probe, for drawing a polypus out of the nose. Fissures in the feet, or other places.

CHELE CANCRORUM. See Cancer. CHELIDON. The bend of the arm-

CHELIDONIUM MAJUS, (From Xet-Sow the swallow. It is so named from an opinion that it was pointed out as useful for the eyes by swallows, who are said to open the eyes of their young by it; or because it blossoms about the time when swallows appear.) Papaver corniculatum, luteum. Tetterwort, and great celandine, The herb and root of this plant, Chelidonium majus of Linnæus :- pedunculis umbellatis, have a faint, unpleasant smell, and a bitter, acrid, durable taste, which is stronger in the roots than the leaves. They are aperient and diuretic, and recommended in icterus, when not accompanied with inflammatory symptoms. The chelidonium should be administered with caution, as it is liable to irritate the stomach and bowels. Of the dried root, from 3ss to 3j is a dose; of the fresh root, infused in water, or wine, the dose may be about 3ss. The decoction of the fresh root is used in dropsy, cachexy, and cutaneous complaints. The fresh juice is used to destroy warts and films in the eyes; but, for the latter pur-

pose, it is diluted with milk.

CHELIDONIUM MINUS. Scrophularia minor. Chetidonia rotundifolia minor. Cursuma hæmorrhoidalis herba. Ranunculus vernus. Lesser celandine, and pilewort. The leaves and root of this plant, Ranunculus ficaria; foliis cordatis angulatis petiolatis, caule uniforo, of Linnæus, are used medicinally. The leaves are deemed antiscorbutic, and the root reckoned a specific, if beat into cataplasms, and applied to the piles.

CHELONE. (χελων».) The tortoise. An instrument for extending a limb, and so called because, in its slow motions, it represents a tortoise. This instrument is

mentioned in Oribasius.

Chelonion. (From general, the tortoise; so called from its resemblance to the shell of a tortoise.) A hump, or gibbosity in the back.

CHELTENHAM WATER. One of the most celebrated purging waters in England and the reputation of it is daily increasing, as it possesses both a saline and chalybeate principle. When first drawn it is clear and colourless, but somewhat brisk; has a saline, bitterish, chalybeate taste. It does not keep, nor bear transporting to any distance; the chalvbeate part being lost by precipitation of the iron, and in the open air it even turns foetid. The salts, however, remain. Its heat, in summer, was from 50° to 55°, or 59°, when the medium heat of the atmosphere was nearly 15° higher. On evaporation, it is found to contain a calcareous earth, mixed with ochre and a purging salt. A general survey of the component parts of this water, according to a variety of analyses, shows that it is decidedly saline, and contains much more salt than most mineral waters. By far the greater part of the salts are of a purgative kind, and therefore an action on the bowels is a constant effect, notwithstanding the considerable quantity of selenite and earthy carbonates which may be supposed to have a contrary tendency. Cheltenham water is, besides, one of the strongest chalybeates we are acquainted with. The iron is suspended entirely by the carbonic acid, of which gas the water contains about an eighth of its bulk; but, from the abundance of earthy carbonats, and oxyd of ron, not much of it is uncombined. It has, besides, a slight impregnation of sulphur, but so little, as to be scarcely appreciable, except by very delicate tests. The sensible effects produced by this water, are generally, on first taking it, a degree of drowsiness, and sometimes head-ach, but which soon go off spontaneously, even previous to the operation on the bowels. A moderate dose acts powerfully, and speedily, as a cathartic, without occa-

sioning griping, or leaving that faintness and langour which often follow the action of the rougher cathartics. It is principally on this account, but partly too from the salutary operation of the chalybeate, and perhaps the carbonic acid, that the Cheltenliam water may be, in most cases, persevered in, for a considerable length of time, uninterruptedly, without producing any inconvenience to the body; and during its use, the appetite will be improved, the digestive organs strengthened, and the whole constitution invigorated. A dose of this water, too small to operate directly on the bowels, will generally determine pretty powerfully to the kidneys. As a purge, this water is drank from one to three pints; in general, from half a pint to a quart is sufficient. Half a pint will contain half a drachm of neutral purging salts, four grains of earthy carbonats, and selenite, about one-third of a grain of oxyd of iron; together with an ounce in bulk of carbonic acid, and half an ounce of common air, with a little sulphurated hydrogen. Cheltenham water is used, with considerable benefit, in a number of diseases, especially of the chrome kind, and particularly those called bilious: hence it has been found of essential service in the cure of glandular obstruction, and especially those that affect the liver, and the other organs connected with the functions of the alimentary canal. Persons who have injured their biliary organs, by a long residence in hot climates, and who are suffering under the symptoms either of excess of bile or deficiency of bile, and an irregularity in its secretion, receive remarkable benefit from a course of this water, judiciously exhibited. Its use may be here continued, even during a considerable degree of debility; and from the great determination to the bowels it may be employed with advantage to check the incipient symptoms of dropsy, and general anasarca, which so often proceed from an obstruction of the liver. In scrophulous affections, the sea has the decided preference; in painful affections of the skin, called scorbutic eruptions, which make their appearance at stated intervals, producing a copious discharge of lymph, and an abundant desquamation, in common with other saline purgative springs, this is found to bring relief; but it requires to be persevered in for a considerable time, keeping up a constant determination to the bowels, and making use of warm bathing externally. The season for drinking the Cheltenham water is during the whole of the summer months.

(χελυς, a shell.) The breast is so called, as resembling, in shape and office, the shell of some fishes.

CHELTSCION. (From ZEAUS, the breast.) A dry, short cough, in which the muscles of the breast are very sore.

CHEMA. A measure mentioned by the

Greek physicians, supposed to contain two small spoonfuls.

CHEMIA. (Arab.) Chimia. Chymistry. CHYMICAL APPARATUS. A general expression, denoting the instruments, vessels, machinery, furniture, and utensils of a la-

CHYMISTRY. (xumiz, and sometimes xnua: chamia, from chama, to burn, Arab. this science being the examination of all substances by fire.) The learned are not yet agreed as to the most proper definition of chymistry. Boerhaave seems to have ranked it among the arts. According to Macquer, it is a science, whose object is to discover the nature and properties of all bodies by their analyses and combinations. Dr. Black says, it is a science which teaches, by experiments, the effects of heat and mixture on bodies; and Fourcroy defines it a science which teaches the mutual actions of all natural bodies on each other. "Chymistry," says Jacquin, "is that branch of natural philosophy which unfolds the nature of all material bodies, determines the number and properties of their component parts, and teaches us how those parts are united, and by what means they may be separated and recombined."
Mr. Heron defines it, "That science which investigates and explains the laws of that attraction which takes place between the minute component particles of natural bodies." The objects to which the attention of chymists is directed, compre-

pose the globe. CHEMOSIS. (From xiva, to gape; because it gives the appearance of a gap, or aperture.) Inflammation of the conjunctive membrane of the eye, in which the cellular structure, or white of the eye, is distended with a florid fluid, and elevated above the margin of the transparent cornea. In Cullen's Nosology, it is a variety of the ophthalmia membranarum, or an inflammation of the membranes of the eye.

hend the whole of the substances that com-

CHENOPODIO-MORUS. (From chenopodium and mogor, the mulberry; so called because it is a sort of chenopodium, with leaves like a mulberry.) The herb mulberry-blight,

or strawberry-spinach.

CHENOPODIUM. (From xnv, a goose, and wsc, a foot; so called from its supposed resemblance to a goose's foot ) The herb chenopody, goose's foot. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digy-

CHENOPODIUM AMBROSICIDES. The systematic name of the Mexican tea-plant. See Botrys Mexicana.

CHENOPODIUM ANTHELMINTICEM. seeds of this plant, Chenopodium authelminthum of Linnæus :- folis ovato-oblongis dentatis, racemis aphyllis, though in great esteem in America for the cure of worms, are never exhibited in this country. They are powdered and made into an electuary, with any proper syrup, or conserve.

CHENOPODIUM BOTRYS. The systematic name of the Jerusalem oak. See Botrys

oulgaris.

CHENOPODIUM BONUS HENRICUS, The systematic name of the English mercury. See Bonus henricus.

CHENOPODIUM VULVARIA. The systematic nam- for the stinking orach. See Airiplex fatida

CHERAS (From xew to pour out.) The

struma; or scrophuta.

CHEREFOLIUM. See Charophyllum.

CHERMES. (Arab.) A small berry, full of insects like worms: the junce of which was formerly made into a confection, called confectio alkermes, which has been long disused. Also the worm itself.

CHERMES MINERALIS. See Sulphuretum

antimonii præcipitatum.

CHERNIBIUM. Chernibion. In Hippocrates it signifies an urinal,

CHERONIA. (Fr m Xugwe, the Centaur.) See Centaurium.

Cherry. See Cerasa nigra and Cerasa

Cherry, bay. The Lauro-cerasns. Cherry, laurel. The Lauro-cerasus. Cherry, winter The Alkekengi.

CHERVILLUM. See Cerefohum. Chesnut, horse. See II. ppocustanum.

CHEUSIS. (From Xew, to pour out.) Li-

quation. Infusion.

CHEVASTRE. A double-headed roller, applied by its middle below the chin; then running on each side, it is crossed on the top of the head; then passing to the nape of the neck is there crossed: it then passes under the chin, where crossing, it is carried to the top of the head, &c. until it is all taken up.

CHEZANANCE. (From xezw, to go to stool, and avayum, necessity.) It signifies any thing that creates a necessity to go to stool; but, in P. Æsineta, it is the name of an ointment, with which the anus is to be

rubbed, for promoting stools.

CHIA (From X105, an island where they were formerly propagated ) A sweet fig of the island of Chio, or Scio. Also an earth from that island, formerly used in fevers.

CHIACUS. (From X105, the island of Scio.) An epithet of a collyrium, whose chief ingredient was wine of Chios.

CHIADUS. In Paracelsus it signifies the

same as furunculus.

Chian pepper See Capsicum.

Chian turpentino. Se- Chio turpentine.

the letter X, chi.) The name of a bandage,

bandage in Oribasius; so called from its resembling the letter X, chi.

CHIASTRE. The name of a bandage for the temporal artery. It is a double-headed roller, the middle of which is applied to the side of the head, opposite to that in which the artery is opened and, when brought round to the part affected, it is crossed upon the compress that is laid upon the wound, and then, the continuation is over the coronal suture, and under the chin: then crossing on the compress, the course is, at the first, round the head, &c. till the whole roller is taken up.

CHIBOU. A spurious species of gumelemi, spoken of by the faculty of Paris. but not known in England.

CHIBUR. Sulphur.

CHICHINA. Contracted from China china. See Cinchona

Сиснов. Chirces. The affectio bovina. or distemper of black cattle.

Chicken pox. See Varicella. Chickweed. See Alsine media.

CHILBLAIN. Pernio. An inflammation of the extreme parts of the body, from the application of cold; attended with a violent itching, and soon forming a gangrenous ulcer.

CHILI, BALSAM DE. Salmon speaks, but without any proof, of its being brought from Chili. The Barbadoes tar, in which are mixed a few drops of the oil of aniseed, is usually sold for it.

CHILIODYNAMON. (From xixio, a thousand, and foragus, virtue.) An epithet of the herb Polimonium. In Dioscorides, this name is given on account of its many virtues.

CHILON. (XELAGIV.) An inflamed and swelled lip.

CHILPELAGUA. A variety of capsicum. Chilterspin. A species of capsicum.

CHIMETHLON. A chilblain. CHIMIA. See Chemia.

CHIMIATER. (From chemia, chymistry, and sargee, a physician.) A physician who makes he science of chymistry subservient to the purposes of medicine.

CHIMOLEA LAXA. Paracelsus means, by this word, the sublimed powder which is separated from the flowers of saline ores.

CHINA. (So named from the country of China, from whence it was brought.) China orientulis. Sankioa. Gnaquara. Smilax aspera Chinensis. China root. It is obtained from the Smilax china of Linmans:-caule aculeato, teretiusculo; foliis inermis, ovato-cordatis, quinque nerviis. was formerly in esteem, as sarsaparilla now is, in the cure of the venereal disease, and cutaneous disorders.

Chian turpentino. Se- Chio turpentine. Chias china. A name given to the Chiasmes. (From xiaza, to form like Peruvian bark, a native of some parts in

whose shape is like the Greek letter X, chi. China occidentalis. China spuria Chiastos. The name of a cruciale nodosa. Smilax pseudo-China. Smilax Indica spinosa. American or West-Indian China. The root is chiefly brought from

Jamaica, in large round pieces, full of of the hand, where it is troubled with knots. In scrophulous disorders, it has been preferred to the oriental kind. In other cases it is of similar but inferior vir-

CHINA SUPPOSITA. Senecio madraspatanns Senescio pseudo-China of Lanaeus. Bastard China. It grows in Malabar. The root greatly resembles the China root in appearance and qualities.

CHINCHINA. See Cinchona.

See Cinchona CHINCHINA CARIBEA. Caribea.

There are CHINCHINA DE SANTA FE. several spec es of bark sent from Santa Fè: but neither their particular natures, nor the trees which afford them, are yet accurately

CHINCHINA JAMAICENSIS. See Cinchona

CHINCHINA RUBHA. See Cinchona oblongifolia

CHINCHINA DE ST. LUCIA. St. Lucia bark is collected from the Anchona floribunda of Swartz:-floribus paniculatis glabris, capsulis turbinatis levibus, foliis ellipticis acuminatis glabris; it has an adstringent, bi ter taste, somewhat like gentain. It is recommended in intermittents, putrid dysentery, and dyspepsia: it should always be joined with some aromatic.

Chincough. See Pertussis.

CHINENSE. The aurantium sinene, or Chinese orange.

CHINESE SMILAY. See China.

CHIO TURPENTINE. Terebinthina de Chio. Cyprus turpentine. Chian turpentine. This substance is classed among It is procured by wounding the resins. the bark of the trunk of the Pistachia terebinthus of Linnaus. The best Chio turpentine is about the consistence of honey, very tenacious, clear, and almost transparent; of a white colour, inclining to vellow, and a fragrant smell, moderately warm to the taste, but f ee from acrunony and bitterness. Its medicinal qualities are similar to those of the turpentines. See Turpentine.

In Paracelsus it is synonymous CHIOLI. with furniculus.

Curques. A name for the worms which get into the toes of the negroes, and which are destroyed by the oil which flows out of the cashew nut-shell.

CHIRAGRA. (From xup, the hand, and appa, a seizure.) The gout in the joints of the hand. See Arthrites.

(From xsig, the hand.) CHIRONES. Small pustules on the hand and feet, enclosed in which is a troublesome worm.

CHIRONIA. (From Chiron, the Centaur, its inventor.) 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Centaury. See Centaurium.

2 (From xue, the hand.) An aff tin

chirones.

CHIRONIUM. (From Xiew, the Centaur, who is said to have been the first who healed them.) A malignant ulcer, callous on its edges, and difficult to cure.

CHITOTHECA. (From χig, the hand, and τίθημι, to put.) A glove of the scerfskin, with the nuls, which is brought off from the dead subject, after the cuticle is loosened by putrefaction, from the parts under it.

CHIRURGIA. (From xug, the hand, and egyov, a work; because surgical operations are performed by the hand.) Chirurgery, or surgery.

CHITON. (XITON.) A coat or membrane. CHIUM. (From XIOS, the Island where it was produced.) An ep.thet of wine made at Scio.

CHILASMA. (From XXIZIVA. to make warm.) A warm fomentation, called also thermasma

CHLORASMA. (From χλωςιαω, to become

green.) Cheorosis.

(From xxagos, green CHLOROSIS. pale; from the yellow-greenish look those have who are affected with it) Febris amatoria. Icterus albus. The green sickness. A genus of d sease in the class cachexia, and order impetigines of Cullen. It is a disease which affects young females who labour under a suppression of the menses. Heaviness, lis lesness to motion, fatigue on the least exercise, palpitations of the heart, pains in the back, loins, and hips, flatulency and acidities in the stomach and bowels, a preternatural appetite for chalk, lime, and varous other absorbents, together with many dyspeptic symptoms, usually attend on this disease. As it advances in its progress, the face becomes pale, or assumes a yellowish hue; the whole body is flaccid, and likewise pale; the feet are affected with ædematous swellings; the breathing is much hurried by any vigorous exertion of the body; the pulse is quick, but sm Il; and the person is apt to be affected with many of the symptoms of hysteria. To procure a flowof the menses, proves in some cases a very difficult matter; and where the disease has been of long standing, various morbid affections of the viscera are often brought on, which at length prove fatal. Dissections of those who have died of chlorosis, have usually shewn the ovaria to be in a scirrhous, or dropsical state. In some cases, the liver, spleen, and mesenteric glands, have likewise been found in a diseased state.

(From xvava, to grind, or rasp.) Chaff. Bran. Also fine wool, or lint, which is, as it were, rasped from lint-CHOKE DAMP. The name given by

miners to a noxious air, occasionally found in the bottom of mines and pits. It is heavier than common air, therefore lies chiefly at the bottom of the pits; it extinguishes flame, and is noxious to animals. It is probably carbonic acid. See Carbonic acid.

Choana. (From  $\chi_{\infty}$ , to pour out.) It is properly a funnel, but is used to signify the infundibulum of the kidney and brain.

Choanus. (χοανα, a funnel.) A furnace made like a funnel, for melting metals.

CHOCOLATE. (Dr. Alston says this word is compounded of two Indian words, choco, sound, and atte, water; because of the noise made in its preparation.) An article of diet prepared from the cocoanut; highly nourishing, particularly when boiled with milk and eggs. It is frequently recommended as a restorative in cases of emaciation and consumption.

Galen and P. Ægineti, from yourse, the

nave of a wheel.

Cherades. (From xotgos, a swine.) Cherades. The same as scrofula.

CHERADOLETHRON. (From χωιχος, a swine, and ολεθχος, destruction; so named fom its being dangerous if eaten by hogs.) Hogbane. A name in Ætius for the Xanthium, or louse-bur.

Choiras. (From  $\chi_{oigos}$ , a swine; so called because hogs are diseased with it.) The scrophula.

CHOLADES. (From  $\chi_{O\lambda n}$ , the bile.) So the smaller intestines are called, because they contain bile.

CHOLAGO. The same as cholas.

Cholagoga. (From xon, bile, and axw, to evacuate.) Cholegon. By cholagogues, the ancients meant only such purging medicines as expelled the internal faces, which resembled the cystic bile in their yellow colour, and other properties.

Cholas. (From  $\chi_{2\lambda n}$ , the bile.) All the cavity of the ilium is so called, because it contains the liver which is the

strainer of the gall.

CHOLE. (Xohn) The bile.

CHOLEDOCHUS DUCTUS. (Choledochus; from χολη, bile, and δεχομαι to receive; receiving or retaining the gall.) Ductus communis choledochus. The common biliary duct, which conveys both cystic and hepatic bile into the intestinum duodenum.

CHOLEGON. The same as cholagoga.

CHOLERA. (From  $\chi_{ON}$ , bile, and  $\rho_{EW}$ , to flow.) Diarrhæa cholerica. Felliflua passio. Cholera. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. It is a purging and vomiting of bile, with anxiety, painful gripings, spasms of the abdominal muscles, and those of the thighs. There are two species of this genus: 1. Cholera spontanea, which happens, in hot seasons, without any manifest cause. 2. Cholera accidentalis, which

occurs after the use of food that digests slowly, and irritates. In warm climates it is met with in all seasons of the year. and its occurrence is very frequent: but in England, and other cold climates, it is apt to be most prevalent in the middle of summer, particularly in the month of August; and the violence of the disease has usually been observed to be greater in proportion to the intenseness of the heat. It usually comes on with soreness, pain, distension, and flatulency in the stomach and intestines. succeeded quickly by a severe and frequent vomiting, and purging of bi-lious matter, heat, thirst, a hurried respiration, and frequent but weak and fluttering pulse. When the disease is not violent these symptoms, after continuing for a day or two, cease gradually, leaving the patient in a debilitated and exhausted state; but where the disease proceeds with much violence there arises great depression of strength, with cold clammy sweats, considerable anxiety, a hurned and short respiration, and hiccups, with a sinking, and irregularity of the pulse, which quickly terminate in death; an event that not unfrequently happens within the space of 24

CHOLERICA. (From χολέςα, the cholera.) Medicines which relieve the cholera. Also a bilious flux of the bowels, without pain or fever.

Cholicele. (From  $\chi_{0\lambda n}$ , bile, and  $\kappa_{n\lambda n}$ , a tumour.) A swelling formed by the bile morbidly accumulated in the gall-bladder.

CHOLOMA. (From XGAOS, lame, or maimed.) Galen says that, in Hippocrates, it signifies any distortion of a limb. In a particular sense, it is taken for a halting or lameness in the leg.

Chondroglossus. (From xorder, a cartilage, and paworn, the tongue.) A muscle so named from its insertion, which is in the basis-or cartilaginous part of the tongue. See Hyoglossus.

chondrologia; from xordgos, a cartilage, and xordgos, a discourse.) A discourse or treatise on carti-

lages.

Chondro-pharyng zus. (From xodics, a cartilage, and \$\pi\_{\text{zy}}\xi\_{\text{t}}\$, the upper part of the fauces.) A muscle so named because it rises in the cartilaginous part of the tongue, and is inserted in the pharynx.

Chondros. (Xordgos.) A food of the ancients, the same as alica. Also any gru-

mous concretion, and a cartilage.

Chondrosyndesmus. (From xordges, a cartilage, and ourden, to tie together.) A cartilaginous ligament.

CHONDRUS. See Chondros.

CHONE. (Xwyn.) The infundibulum.

ook De Usu Partium, expresses by articularly the cavities of the eyes; but,

m others of his writings, he intimates by it any void space.

CHORDA. A cord. A tendon. A painful tension of the penis in venereal disease. See Chordee. Sometimes the intestines are called chordæ.

CHORDA MAGNA. A name of the tendo

CHORDA TYMPANI. A branch of the seventh pair of nerves that passes through the tympanum.

CHORDÆ TENDINIÆ. The tendinous and cord-like substances which connect the corneæ columnæ of the ventricles of the heart to the auricular valves.

CHORDÆ WILLISH. The small fibres which cross the sinuses of the dura mater. They are so termed, because Willis first described them.

Condarsus. (From xopon, a cord, and arla, to knit.) A sort of painful cholic, where the intestines appear to be twisted into knots, like pieces of string.

CHORDEE. (Chordé. French.) spasmodic contraction of the penis, that sometimes attends gonorrhæa, and is often

followed by a hæmorrhage.

CHOREA SANCTI VITI (Chorea, xogeia) from xogos, a chorus which of old accompanied dancing. It is called St. Vitus's dance, because some devotees of St. Vitus exercised themselves so long in dancing, that their intellects were disordered, and could only be restored by dancing again at the anniversary of St. Vitus.) St. Vitus's Convulsive motions of the limbs, as if the person were dancing. It is a genus of disease arranged by Cullon in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. These convulsive motions, most generally, are confined to one side, and affecting principally the arm and leg. When any motion is attempted to be made, various fibres of other muscles act which ought not; and thus a contrary effect is produced from what the patient intended. It is chiefly incident to young persons of both sexes, and makes its attack from between the age of ten and fifteen, occurring but seldom after that of puberty.

By some practitioners it has been considered rather as a paralytic affection than as a convulsive disorder and has been thought to arise from a relaxation of the muscles, which, being unable to perform their functions in moving the limbs, shake them irregularly by jerks. Chorea sancti Viti is occasioned by various irritations, as teething, worms, offensive smells, poisons, &c It arises likewise in consequence of violent affections of the mind, as horror, fear, and anger. In many cases it is produced by general weakness; and in a few, it takes place from sympathy, at seeing the disease in others.

The fits are sometimes preceded by a coldness of the feet and limbs, or a kind of tingling sensation, that ascends like cold

air up the spine, and there is a flatulent pain in the left hypochondrium, with obstinate costiveness. At other times, the accession begins with yawning, stretching, anxiety about the heart, palpitations, nausea, difficulty of swallowing, noise in the ears, giddiness and pains in the head and teeth; and then come on the convulsive motions.

These discover themselves at first by a kind of lameness, or instability of one of the legs, which the person draws after him in an odd and ridiculous manner; nor can he hold the arm of the same side still for a moment; for if he lays it on his breast, or any other part of his body, it is forced quickly from thence by an involuntary motion. If he is desirous of drinking, he uses many singular gesticulations before he can carry the cup to his head, and it is forced in various directions, till at length he gets it to his mouth; when he pours the liquor down his throat with great haste, as if he meant to afford amusement to the bystanders. Sometimes various attempts at running and leaping take place, and at others, the head and trunk of the body are affected with convulsive motions. many instances, the mind is affected with some degree of fatuity, and often shews the same eauseless emotions, such as weeping and laughing, which occur in hysteriae. When this disease arises in children, it usually ceases before the age of pubcrty; and in adults, is often carried off by a change from the former mode of living. Unless it passes into some other disease, such as epilepsy, it is never attended with

CHORION. (From xagea, to escape; because it always escapes from the uterus with the fœtus.) Shaggy chorion. The external membrane of the fætus in utero.

CHOROID MEMBRANE. (Membrana choridea; from xopion, the chorion, and eidoc, resemblance.) The second tunic of the eye, lying immediately under the selerotica, to which it is connected by vessels. The true knowledge of this membrane, is necessary to a perfect idea of the iris and uvea. The tunica choroidea commences at the optic nerve, and passes forwards, with the sclerotic coat, to the beginning of the cornea transparens, where it adheres very firmly to the sclerotic membrane, by means of a cellular membrane, in the form of a white fringe, called the ciliary circle. It then recedes from the sclerotica and cornea and ciliary circle, directly downwards and inwards, forming a round disk, which is variously coloured; hence blue, black eyes, &c. This coloured portion, reflected inwards, is termed the iris, and its posterior surface is termed uvea. The choroid membrane is highly vascular, and its external vessels are disposed like stars, and termed vasa vorticosa. The internal surface of this membrane is covered with a black pigment, called the pigment of the choroid membrane.

CHOROID PLEXUS Plexus choroidea A plexus of blood-vess is, situated in the lateral ventricles of the br in.

CHOR 110 TUNIC. See Choroid membrane.
CHRISIS. (From χειω, to anoint.) An inunction, or anoming of any part.

Christmas -ose. See Helleborus niger. Christum. (From xuo, to anoint.) An unguent, or ointment of any kind.

CHROMAS. A chromate, or salt, formed by the union of earthy, metallic, or alkaline bases, with chromic acid; as chromate of lead, &c.

CHROMATISMUS. (From χεωμαλίζω, to colour.) The morbid discontration of any of the secretions, as of the urine, or

blood.

CHROME. (From xgmux, colour; because its primary combina ions impart its colour to all secondary ones.) A white metal, inclining to a grey, very brittle, and crystallizable at an elevated temperature, in feathered filaments on the surface. Its internal fracture presents in some parts close grains, in other parts needles crossing each other. It is an ingredient in the fossil, known by that name in S beria.

Natural History .- This metal, which is extremely scarce, and exists only in the state of a metallic oxid, was discovered by Vanquelin. He found it in an ore called red-lead ore of Siberia, or chromate of le id The colour of this ore is red, with a shade of yellow; when reduced to po der, it is of a bright orange. Chrome has likewise been found in combination with iron, alumine, and silex, (chromate of iron and alumine,) in the department of Var, in France. It is met with in irregular masses. Its colour is brown; it has very little metallic lustre. Pontier has lately found chrome combined with iron (chromate of iron,) in a quarry near Gussin in the road to Cavalaire. It sometimes forms large masses. The emerald of Peru and spinel ruby owe their colours to this metal

Properties.—Chrome is obtained in small agglurinated masses of a white colour, inclining to yellow; it is very hard, extremely brittle and refractory, and crystal-

lizes into needlės.

Exposed to the heat of a blow-pipe, it is covered with a lilac-coloured crust, which becomes green on cooling. Heated by the same apparatus with borax, it does not melt; but a part, after being oxidated, is dissolved in this salt, and communicates to it a very beautiful green colour. Acids have only a weak action on this metal. The nitric is the only acid which produces any remarkable change, it converts it into an oxid. It is capable of combining with three different portions of oxigen, and forming three different oxids. It has not yet been combined with any combustible

body. It does not appear to decompose water. It is unalterable by the alkales. The other properties of this metal are not yet a certained, neither are its uses known; perhaps at may afford beautiful and durable colours to the painter or the enameller.

Method of obtaining Chrome. Chromeis obtained from its native combinations, by decomposing them by the alkaline carbonates, precipitating the chromic acid, and heating it strongly in a crucible.

The following method is recommended by Vauquelin Seventy-two parts of chromic acid are to be introduced into a charcoal crucible, placed within another of porcelain, filled with charcoal dust. The apparatus is then to be put in o a furnace, and subjected to a very strong heat. Metallic chrome will then be

found in the charcoal crucible. From

seventy-'wo parts, Vauquelin obtained forty-three of metal.

CHROMIC ACID. This is obtained by decomposing the chromat of lead by potash, and treating the chromat of potash with nitric or muriatic acid. It is of an orange-red colour, and a pungent metallic taste; very soluble in water, and crystallizes by gentle evaporation.

CHRONIC (From 250005, time) A term applied to diseases which are of long continuance, and mostly without fever. It is used in opposition to the term acute.

See Acute.

CHRUPSIA. (From xg22, colour, and o412, sight.) Visus coloratus. A disease of the eyes, in which the person perceives objects of a different colour from their natural.

CHRYSANTHEMUM. (From Ageorge, gold, and appeared, a flower.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæ n system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia. Sun flower, or marigold.

2. Many herbs are so called whose flowers are of a bright yellow colour.

CHRYSANTHEMUM LEUCANTHEMUM. The systematic name of the great ox eye-daisy. See Bellis major.

CHRYSE. (From xguoos, gold.) The

name of a yellow plaster.

CHRYSELECTRUM. (From xguoos, gold, and naexlgor, amber.) Amber of a golden yellow colour.

CHRYSIPPEA. (From Chrysippus, its inventor. A herb enumerated by Pliny.

CHRYSITIS. (From xgurss, gold.) Litharge. The yellow foam of lead. Also the herb yarrow, from the golden colour of its flower.

Chrysobalanus. (From χευσος, gold, and βαλανος, a nut; so named because of its colour, which, before it is dried, is yellow.) The nutmeg.

CHRYSOCOLLA. (From xguros, gold, and

колда, cement.) Gold solder.

CHRYSOCOMA. (From xguoss, gold, and xoun, hair: so called from its golden, hair-

like appearance.) The herb milfoil, or yarrow.

CHRYSOGONIA. (From xguros, gold, and yropas, to become.) The tincture of

gold

Chrysolachanon. (From 2000s, gold, and hazaror, the olus; so named from its having a yellow leaf, and a flower like the olus.) The herb orach, or atriplex.

CHRYSOSPLENIUM. (From χχυσος, gold, and ασπλευων, spleenwort.) The name of a genus of piants in the Linnaan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Digynia. Golden sax frage.

CHRYSULCUS. (From 280000, gold, and 1920, to take away.) The aqua regia is so called, as having the property to dissolve

CHYLARIA. (From XUNOS, chyle.) A discharge of a whitish nine us urine, of the

colour and consistence of chyle.

CHYLE. (XDAGE, Chylus.) The milk like liquor observed some hours after eating, in the lacteal vessels of the mesentery, and in the thoracic duct. It is separated by digestion from the chyme, and is that fluid substance from which the blood is formed.

The chyle is absorbed by the mouths of the lacteal vessels, which are in the greatest number in the jejunum and ilium, whilst the fex of the chyme, with the bile, are propelled into the large intestines. The clivle of the human body smells like milk; has a sweetish taste, a white colour, and a consistence thinger than blood and milk. Its specific gravity is lighter than that of the blood, and hence it is that chyle is occasionally seen swimming on the blood, if a vein be opened some hours after eating. The quality of the chyle is similar to that of milk; for, like it, it coagulates and ascesces; but sometimes its nature is altered from bad digested food or medicines: thus the chyle becomes blue, from eat ng indigo; yellow, from the yolk of eggs, &c. The quantity of chyle depends upon that of the ingesta, and their greater or less nourishing power: from five or six pounds of food, very little more than two pounds of chyle are elaborated

The constituent principles of chyle, are, 1. Water, which forms its greatest part. 2. Oily cream, which chymistry teaches to be hydrogen and carbon. 3. Cheese, which, by the vis vitals, is formed by the carbon and azot of the ingested food. 4 Earth, which is obtained from lacteal calcul, that are occasionally found in the receptaculum chyli and lacteals. 5. Animal lymph, which is mixed with the gastric and enteric juices.

The nutritive principles of vegetables, are starch; an albuminous principle, oil, vegetable gluten, and sugar. The nutritive principles of animal substances, are oil, jelly, and animal gluten; and hence the reason why the chyle, separated from vegetables, is of the same nature with that prepared from animal ingesta, that the

principles of both are dissolved into their elements, which are the same in animal and vegetable foods: thus the cream of the chyle is formed of earbon and hydrogen; and the cheese of the chyle, from the carbon and azot of both animal and vegetable substances.

The chyle is mixed with the albuminous and gelatinous lymph in the thoracic duct, which receives them from the lymphatics.

The uses of the chyle are, i. To supply the matter from which the blood and other fluids of our body are prepared; from which fluids the solid parts are formed. 2 By its ascescent nature, it somewhat restrains the putrescent tendency of the blood; hence the dreadful putridity of the humours from starving; and trus milk is an accillent remedy against seurvy. 3. By its very copious aqueous latex, it prevents the thickening of the fluids, and thus renders them fit for the various secretions. 4. The chyle secreted in the breasts of purperal women, under the name of milk, forms the most excellent nutriment of all aliments for new born infants.

CHYLAFICATION. (From chylus, and fig. to become.) Chylifactio. The process, carried on in the small intestines, and principally in the duodenum, by which the chyle is separated from the chyme.

CHYLISMA. (From ZUNOS, juice.) An

expressed juice.

CHYLOPOETIC. (Chylopoeticus; from zolos, chyle, and word, to make) Chylopoietic. Any thing connected with the formation of chyle; thus chylopoetic viscera, chylopoetic vessels, &c.

CHYLOSIS. (From χυλέζω, to express the juice from any thing.) Chylification, or

the changing the food into chyle.

CHYLOSTAGMA. (From xoxos, juice, and saxo, to distil.) The distillation or expression of any juice, or humid part from its dry one.

CHYPOSTAGMA DIAPHORETICUM MINDERERI. A distillation of Verice treacle and

mithridate.

CHYME. (Chymus; from χυμος, which signifies humour or juice.) The mgested mass of food, that passes from the stomach into the duodenum, and from which the chyle is prepared in the small intestines by the admixture of the bile, &c.

CHYMIA. Chymistry.

Chymiaten, A chymical physician, See Chimiater.

CHYMIATHIA. (From  $\chi \nu \mu \mu z$ , chymistry, and  $\mu z \rho \mu z$  to heal.) The art of curing diseases by-the application of chymistry to the uses of medicine.

CHYMOSIS. See Chemosis.

CHYPLEN RADIX. A cylindrical root, of the thickness of a goose-quill, brought from China. It has a bitterish taste, and imparts a yellow tinge to the salva. The Chinese hold It in great estimation as a stomachic, infused in wine.

CHYSIS. (From xuw, to pour out.) Fusion, or the reduction of solid bodies into fluid by heat.

CHYTLON. (From χυω, to pour out.) An

anointing with oil and water.

CIBALIS FISTULA. An obsolete term for

the esophagus.

CIBATIO. (From cibus, food.) In chymistry it means incorporation: also the taking of food.

CIBUR. An obsolete term for sulphur.

CICATRISANTIA. (Cicatrisantia, sc. remedia; from cicatrico, to skin over.) Such applications as dispose wounds and ulcers to dry up and heal, and to be covered with a skin

CICATRIX. (From cicatrico, to heal up or skin over.) A seam or scar upon the skin after the healing of a sore or ulcer.

CICER. (A plant so called. The Cicerones had their name from this pulse, as the Pisones had from the pisum or pea, and the Lentuli from the lens or lentil.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria. The vetch.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the common cich or ciches. Erebinthus. Cicer arietinum of Linnæus :- foliis serratis. The seeds have been employed medicinally, but are now fallen into disuse. In some places they are toasted, and used as coffee; and in others, ground into a flour for bread. The colour of the aryllus of the seed is sometimes white, red, or black: hence the distinction into cicer album, rubrum, and nigrum.

CICER ARIETINUM. The systematic name

of the cicer plant.

CICERA. (From cicer, the vetch ) A

small pill of the size of a vetch.

CICERA TARTARI. Small pills composed of turpentine and cream of tartar, of the size of a vetch.

CICHORIUM. (Originally, according to Pliny, an Egyptian name, and adopted by the Greeks. It is written sometimes Kixoguar: whence Horace has-cichorea, levesque malve: sometimes Kixogior, or Kixuelor. It is supposed to have this name,

waga to Sia two xwelwo niew, from its creeping through the fields .- Others derive it from κιχεω, invenio; on account of its being so readily found, or so common.) Succory.

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system Class, Syngenesia. Or-

der, Polygamia aqualis.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the wild This plant, called Cichoreum, Cichorium sylvestre vel officinarum, is the Cichorium intybus of Linewas :- floribus

zeminis, sessilibus; foliis runcinatis.

It belongs to the same family with the garden endive, and by some botanists has been upposed to be the same plant in its uncultivated state; but the endive commonly used as sallad is an annual, or at most a biennial plant, and its parent is now

known to be the cichorium endivia. Wild succory or cichory, abounds with a milky juice, of a penetrating bitterish taste, and of no remarkable smell or particular flavour: the roots arc more bitter than the leaves or stalks, and these much more so than the flowers. By culture in gardens and by blanching, it loses its bitterness, and may be eaten early in the spring in sallads. The roots, if gathered before the stem shoots up, are also eatable, and when dried may be made into bread. The roots and leaves of this plant are stated by Lewis to be very useful aperients, acting mildly and without irritation, tending rather to abate than to increase heat, and which may therefore be given with safety in hectic and inflammatory cases. Taken freely, they keep the belly open, or produce a gentle diarrhœa; and when thus continued for some time, they have often proved salutary in the beginning obstructions of the viscera, in jaundices, cachexies, hypochondriacal and other chronical disorders. A decoction of this herb, with others of the like kind, in whey, and rendered purgative by a suitable addition of polychrest salt, was found a useful remedy in cases of biliary calculi, and promises advan age in many complaints requiring what have been termed attenuants, and resolvents. The virtues of succory, like those of dandelion, reside in its misky juice; and we are warranted, says Dr. Woodville, in asserting that the expressed juice of both these plants, taken in large doses frequently repeated, has been found an efficacious remedy in phthysis pulmonalis, as well as the various other remedies above mentioned. The milky juice may be extracted by boiling in water, or by pressure. The wild and the garden sorts are used indifferently. If the root is cut into small pieces, dried, and roasted, it resembles coffee, and is sometimes a good substitute for it.

CICHORIUM ENDIVIA. The systematic

name of the endive. See Endivia. CICHORIUM INTYBUS

The systematic name of the wild chicory. Sce Cichorium. Cichory. Sce Cichorium.

Cichory, wild. See Cichorium.

CICINDELA. (A dim. of candelia: i. e. a little candle; so called from its light.) The glow-worm. Some think them anodyne, others lithontriptic, though as the editor of Motherby's Dictionary justly observes, probably neither.

CICINUM OLEUM. (From nini, the ricinus.) An oil, obtained by boiling the bruised seeds of the Jutropha cureas of Linnæus. It is somewhat similar in its properties to castor oil. See Ricinus.

CICLA. A name for the beta alba.

CICUTA. (Quasi cacuta, blind; because it destroys the sight of those who CICUTA. use it. Cicuta signifies the internode, or space between two joints of a reed: the hollow stem of any plant which the shepherds used for making their rural pipes.

Est mihi disparibus septem conjuncta cicutis fistu'a.- Virgil.) Hemlock.

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia.

2. The name, in most pharmacopæias, of the common hemlock, or Comium maculatum of Lunnæus :- seminibus striatis. It is called by some camaran; by others abiotos; and according to Erotian, cambeion is an clei Stedian word for cicuta. Cicuta major fætida. Comum of the last London

pharmacopoia.

Hemlock is found in every part of England, and is distinguished from those plants which bear some rememblance to it, by the spotted stem. It is generally believed to be a very active poison. In a very moderate dose it is apt to occasion sickness and vertigo; in a larger quantity it produces anxie.y, cardialgia, vomiting, convulsions, coma, and death. Baron Stoerk was the first who brought hemlock into repute as a medicine of extraordinary efficacy; and although we have not in this country any direct facts, like those mentioned by Stoerk, proving that inveterate scirrhuses cancers, ulcers, and many other diseases hitherto decimed irreincdiable, were completely cured by the cicuta; we have however the testimonics of several eminent physicians, shewing that some complaints, which had resisted other powerful remedies, yielded to hemlock; and that even some disorders, which, if not really cancerous, were at least suspected to be of that tendency, were greatly benefitted by this remedy. In abronic rheumatisms, some glandular swellings, and in various fixed and periodical pains, the cicuta is now very generally employed; and from daily experience, it appears in such cases to be a very efficacious remedy. It has also been of singular use in the hooping-cough. Nor is it less efficacious when applied externally; a poultice made of oatmeal and the expressed juice, or a decoction of the extract, when the former cannot be obtained, allays the most excruciating torturous pains of a cancer, and thus gives rest to the distracted

The proper method of administering conium internally, is to begin with a few grams of the powder or inspissated juice, and gradually to increase the dose until a giddiness affects the head, a motion is felt in the eyes as if pressed outwards, with a slight sickness and trembling agitation of the body. One or more of these symptoms are the evidence of a full dose, which should be continued until they have ceased, and then after a few days the dose may be increased; for little advantage can be expected but by a continuance of the greatest quantity the patient can bear. In some constitutions even small desce greatly offend, occasioning spasms, heat and thirst; in

such instances it will be of no service. the powder of the dried leaves has been thought to act, and may be depended upon with more certainty than the extract, the following direction should be observed in the preparation; gather the plant about the end of June, when it is in flower; pick off the little leaves, and throw away the leafstalks: dry the small selected leaves in a hot sun, or in a tin or pewter dish before the fire. Preserve them in bags made of strong brown paper, or powder them and keep the powder in glass phias where the light is excluded; for light dissipates the beautiful green colour very soon, and thus the medicine loses its appearance, if not its efficacy: this mode is recommended by Dr. Withering. The extract should also be made of the plant gathered at this period. From 10 to 20 grains of the powder may be taken twice er thrice a day.

CICUTA AQUATICA. Cicutaria virosa. Sium majus alterum angustifolium. Sium erucæ folio. Long-leaved water hemlock and cowhane. This plant, Cicuta virosa of Linnaus :- umbellis opposit foliis; petiolis marginatis obtusis, is seldom employed medicinally in the present day. It is an active poison, and often eaten by mistake for the wild smallage, the Apium graveolens of Linnæus; when it produces tremors, vertigo, a violent burning at the stomach, epilepsy, convulsions, spasms of the jaw, a flowing of blood from the ears, tumefac-

tion of the abdomen, and death.

CICUTA VINOSA. The systematic name of the water hemiock. Sec Cicuta aqua-

CICUTARIA. (Cicutaria; from cicuta, hemlock.) Bastard hemlock. This plant, Cherophyllum sylvestre of Linnaus :- caule levi striato; geniculis tumidiusculis, is often mistaken for the true hemlock. with great propriety be banished from the list of officinals, as it possesses no remarkable property. See Cherophyllum.

CICUTARIA AQUATICA. A name for the

phellandrium aquaticum.

CICUTANIA VIROSA. Sec Cicuta aquatica.

CIDONIUM. See Cydonium.

CILIAR LIGAMENT. (From cileo, to move about.) Ligamentum ciliare. The circular portion that divides the choroid membrane from the iris, and which adheres to the selerotic membrane. It appears like a white circular ring. See Choroid membrane.

CILIARE LIGAMENTUM, See membrane.

CILIARIS MUSCULUS. That part of the musculus orbicularis palpebrarum which lies nearest the cilia, considered by Riolan as a distant muscle.

CHAUM. (From eileo, to move about.)

The hair on the eyelid or cyclash.

CILIARY PROCESSES. The white folds at the margin of the uvea in the eye, covered with a black matter, which proceeds from the uvea to the crystalline lens, upon which they lie.

CILLO. (From cilium, the eyelid.) One who is affected with a spasm or trembling

of the eyelids.

CILLOSIS. (From cilium, the eyelid.) A

spasmodic trembling of the eyelids.

CIMEX. (From resuzes, to inhabit; so called because they infect houses.) The wall-louse or bug. Cimex domesticus. Six or seven are given inwardly to cure the ague, just before the fits come on, and have the same effect with every thing nauseous and disgusting.

CIMOLIA ALBA. (From Kimolos, Cimolus, an island in the Cretan sea, where it is procured.) Tobacco-pipe clay. Its virtues are similar to those of the bolar earths; but it is never administered medicinally.

CIMOLIA PURPURESCENS. Fullers-earth. A bolar earth, of a grayish brown colour.

CINA CINA. See China china. CINA SEMEN. See Santonicum.

CINARA. (From xivew, to move; quasi movet ad venerem vel urinam.) Artichoke.

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia. Or-

der, Polygamia aqualis.

2. The pharmacopæial name for the common artichoke. Alcocalum. Articocalus. Artischocas lævis. Costus nigra. Carduus sativus non spinosus. Cinara hortensis. Scolymus sativus. Carduns domesticus capite majore. Carduus altilis. 'The species thus called, and which is used in medicine, is the Cinara scolymus of Linnaus: -foliis subspinosis pinnatis indivisisque calycinis squamis oratis. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but cultivated here for culinary purposes. The leaves are bitter, and afford, by expression, a considerable quantity of juice, which, when strained, and mixed with an equal quantity of white wine, has been given successfully in dropsies, the dose of 3 or 4 table-spoonfuls every night and morning, but it is very uncertain in its operation.

CINCHONA. (Geoffroy states that the use of this bark was first learned from the following circumstance:—Some cinchona trees being thrown by the winds into a pool of water, lay there till the water became so bitter, that every body refused to drink it. However, one of the neighbouring inhabitants being seized with a violent paroxysm of fever, and finding no other water to quench his thirst, was forced to drink of this, by which he was perfectly cured. He afterwards related the circumstance to othere, and prevailed upon some of his friends, who were ill of fevers, to make use of the same remedy, with whom it proved equally successful. The use of this excellent remedy, however, was very little known till about the year 1638, when

a signal cure having been performed by it on the Spanish viceroy's lady, the Countess del Cinchon, at Linia, and it came into general use, and hence it was distinguished by the appellation of cortex cinchonæ, and pulvis comitessæ, or the Countess's powder. On the recovery of the Countess, she distributed a large quantity of the bark to the Jesuits, in whose hands it acquired still greater reputation, and by them it was first introduced into Europe, and thence called cortex, or pulvis jesuiticus, pulvis patrium; and also Cardinal del Lugo's powder, because that charitable prelate bought a large quantity of it at a great expense, for the use of the religious poor at Rome.) Cortex china, china or chinchina; kina kina, or kinkina; and quina quina, or quinquina.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Cinchona, or Peruvian

bark-tree.

2. The pharmacopoial name of several kinds of barks; the trees affording which grow wild in the hilly parts of Peru; the bark is stripped from the branches, trunk and root, and dried. Three kinds of it are now in use.

CORTEX CINCHONE CORDIFOLIE.

The plant which affords this species is the Cinchona cordifolia of Zer: the Cinchona officinalis of Linnœus: the Cinchona macrocarpa of Wildenow. Heart-leaved cinchona.

The bark of this tree is called yellow bark, because it approaches more to that colour than either of the others do, is in flat pieces, not convoluted like the pale, nor dark-coloured like the red; externally smooth, internally of a light cinnamon colour, friable and fibrous; has no peculiar odour different from the others, but a taste incomparably more bitter, with some degree of astringency.

CORTEX CINCHONÆ LANCIFOLIÆ.

This species is obtained from the Cinchona lancifolia of Zea. Lance-leaved cinchona. This is the Quilled bark, which comes in small quilled twigs, breaking close and smooth, friable between the teeth, covered with a rough coat of a brownish colour, internally smooth and of a light brown; its taste is bitter and slightly astringent; thavour slightly aromatic, with some degree of mustiness.

CORTEX CINCHONE OBLONGIFOLIE.

This knd is procured from the Cinchona colongifolia of Zea. Oblong-leaved cinchona. This bark is the red bark: it is in large thick pieces, externally covered with a brown rugged coat, internally more smooth and compact, but fibrous; of a dark-red colour; taste and smell similar to that of the cinchona lancifolia cortex, but the taste rather stronger.

From the general analysis of bark, it

appears to consist, besides the woody matter which composes the greater part of it, of gum, resin, gallic acid, of very small portions of tannin and essential oil, and of several salts, having principally lime for their basis. Sequin also supposed the existence of gelatin in it, but without sufficient proof. Cold water infused on pale bark for some hours acquires a bitter taste, with some share of its odour; when assisted by a moderate heat, the water takes up more of the active matter; by decoction, a fluid, deep-coloured, of a bitter styptic taste, is obtained, which, when cold, deposits a precipitate of resinous matter and gallic acid. By long decoction, the virtues of the bark are nearly destroyed, owing to the oxygenation of its active matter. Magnesia enables water to dissolve a larger portion of the principles of a bark, as does lime, though in an inferior degree. Alcohol is the most powerful solvent of its active Brandy and other spirits and wines afford also strong solutions, in proportion to the quantity of alcohol they contain. A saturated solution of ammonia is also a powerful solvent; vinegar is less so even than water. By distillation, water is slightly impregnated with the flavour of bark; it is doubtful whether any essential oil can be obtained.

The action of menstrua on the red bark is nearly the same, the solutions only being considerably stronger, or containing a larger quantity of resinous matter and of the

astringent principle.

The analysis of the yellow bark shows that its active principles are more concentrated than in either of the others, affording to water, alcohol, &c. tinctures much stronger, both in bitterness and astringency, especially in the former principle.

From the general analysis of these barks, it appears that they consist of nearly the same proximate principles, which vary in their proportions; the most active component parts are the resin, extractive matter and the gallic acid, and these in combination probably constitute the tonic quality of bark. In the best pale bark this active matter amounts to about one-eighth.

The red bark has been considered as superior to the pale, the yellow is represented, apparently with justice, as being more ac-

tive than either of the others.

The effects of Peruvian bark are those of a powerful and permanent tonic, so slow in its operation, that its stimulating property is scarcely perceptible by any alteration in the state of the pulse, or of the temperature of the body. In a large dose, it occasions nausea and head-ache; in some habits it operates as a laxative; in others it occasions costiveness. It is one of those medicines, the efficacy of which, in removing

disease, is much greater than could be expected, à priori, from its effects on the system in a healthy state.

Intermittent fever is the disease, for the cure of which bark was introduced into practice, and there is still no remedy which

equals it in power.

The disputes respecting the mode of administring it are now settled. It is given as early as possible, with perhaps the previous exhibition of an emetic, to evacuate the stomach; it is repeated in the dose of one scruple or half a drachm every second or third hour, during the interval of the paroxysm; and it may even be given during the hot fit, but it is then more apt to excite nausea.

In remittent fever it is given with equal freedom, even though the remission of the

fever may be obscure.

In some forms of continued fever which are connected with debility, as in typhus, cynanche maligna, confluent small-pox, &c. it is regarded as one of the most valuable remedies. It may be prejudicial, however, in those diseases, where the brain, or its membranes are inflamed, or where there is much irritation, marked by subsultus tendinum, and convulsive motions of the extremities; and in pure typhus it appears to be less useful in the beginning of the disease than in the convalescent stage.

Even in fevers of an opposite type, where there are marks of inflammatory action, particularly in acute rheumatism, bark has been found useful after blood-letting. In erysipelas, in gangrene, in extensive suppuration and venercal ulceration, the free use of burk is of the greatest advantage.

In the various forms of passive hæmorrlagy, in many other diseases of chronic debility, dyspepsia, hypochondriasis, paralysis, rickets, scrophula, dropsy, and in a variety of spasmodic affections, epilepsy, chorea, and bysteria, it is administered as a powerful and permanent tonic, either alone, or combined with other remedies suited to the particular case.

Its usual dose is half a drachm. The only inconvenience of a larger dose is its sitting uneasy on the stomach. It may therefore, if necessary, be frequently repeated, and in urgent cases may be taken to the extent of an ounce, or even two ounces, in

twenty-four hours.

The powder is more effectual than any of the preparations: it is given in wine, in any spirituous liquor; or, if it excite nausen, combined with an aromatic. The cold infusion is the least powerful, but most grateful; the decoction contains much more of the active matter of the bark, and is the preparation generally used when the powder is rejected; its dose is from two to four ounces. The spirituous tincture, though containing still more of the bark, cannot

be extensively used on account of the menstruum, but is principally employed, occasionally, and in small doses of two or three drachms, as a stomachic. The extract is a preparation of considerable power, when properly prepared, and is adapted to those cases, where the remedy requires to be continued for some time. It is then given in the form of pill, in a dose from five to fifteen grains.

CIN

Bark is likewise sometimes given in the form of encma; one scruple of the extract, or two drachins of the powder, being diffused in four ounces of starch mucilage. The decoction is also sometimes applied as a

fementation to ulcers.

The systematic CINCHONA CARIBRA. name of the Ceribæan bark-tree. It grows in Jamaica, where it is called the sea-side beech. According to Dr. Wright, the bark of this tree is not less efficacious than that of the cinchona of Peru, for which it will prove an useful substitute: but by the experiments of Dr. Skeete, it appears to have

less astringent power.

CINCHONA FLORIBUNDA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the Saint Lucé bark. Dr Withering considers this bark as greatly inferior to that of the other species of this genus. In its recent state it is considerably emetic and cathartic, properties which in some degree it retains on being dried; so that the stomach does not bear this bark in large doses, and in small ones its effects are not such as to give it any peculiar recommendation.

CINCHONA OFFICINALIS. The name of the officinal Peruvian bark.

chona.

CINCHONA SANCTA FE. Several species of cinchona have been lately discovered at Sanca. Fé, yielding barks both of the pale and red kind; and which, from their sensible quadities, are likely upon trial to become equally useful with those produced in the kingdom of Peru.

CINCHONA RUBRA. See Cinchona. CINCHONA FLAVA. See Cinchona.

CINCINNUS. The hair on the temples.

See Capillus.

(From κιγκλιζω, to move.) An involuntary nictitation or Cinclismus winking. Fogel.

CINERARIUM. (From cinis, asies.) The

ash-hole of a chymical instrument.

CINERES. (plur. of cinis, ashes.) Ashes. CINERES CLAVELLATI. (Clavellatus; from clarus, a wedge. The name of cineres clavellati originated from the little wedges or billets into which the wood was cut to make potash.) Alumen cutinum. Sal alkali fixum. fineres russici. Kali. Potassa gastrinum. Kali impurum. Impure potash or pearl ash. The name adopted in the new London pharmacopæia is potassa impura. It is from this salt the vari- It is called ous preparations of potash are made, in flowers.

The ancients called the ashes of burntwood lix, from whence the modern word lixivia. The English name pot sh is from the pots in which the lixivium was

CINERES RUSSICI Sec Cineres clavellati CINERITIOUS. (From cinis, ashes.) Of the colour of ashes. A name applied to the cortical substance of the brain, from its resemblance to an ash-colour.

CINERITIUM. (From cinis, ashes.) A cupel or test; so named from its being commonly made of the ashes of vegetables

or bones.

CINERULAM A name for spodium.

CINETUS. An epithet formerly applied to the diaphragm.

(From cingulum, a girdle; CINGULARIA. because it grows in that shape.) The lyco-

podium.

CINGULUM. (From cingo, to bind.)

girdle or belt about the loins.

CINGULUM MERCURIALE. A mereurial girdle, called also cingulum sapientia, and cingulum stultitiæ. It was an invention of Rolundus's; different directions are given for making it, but the following is one of the neatest: "Take three drams of quicksilver; shake it with two ounces of lemonjuice until the globules disappear; then separate the juice and mix with the extinguished quicksilver half the white of an egg; gum-dragon finely powdered, a scruple; and spread the whole on a belt of

CINGULUM SANCTI JOHANNIS. A name of the artemisia.

CINIFICATUM. A name for calcinatum.

CINNABAR. (Pliny says the Indians call by this name a mixture of the blood of the dragon and elephant, and also many substances which resemble it in colour, particularly the minium.) Minium purum. Minium Grecorum. Magnes epilepsia. Atzemafor. Amnion. Azamar. calls it anthrax. A red mineral substance composed of mercury combined with sulphur. It is either native or factitious The native is an ore of quicks liver moderately compact, and of an elegant strinted red colour. This kind of cinnabar, artificial cinnabar, employed as a factitious cinnabar, is a mixture of mercury and sulphur sublimed, and thus reduced to a fine red substance. The best is of a high colour and full of necdle-like spiculæ. See Sulphuretum hyrargyri rubrum. Cinnabar is often employed as a mild mercurial, and as an alterative. Hoffman greatly recommends it as a sed tive and antispasmodic. Others deny that cinnabar taken internally has any medicinal quality; and their opinion is grounded on the insolubility of it in any menstruum. is found in the Dutchy of Deuxponts, in the Palatinate, in Spain, South America, &c. It is called native vermillion, and cinnabar CINNABAR FACTITIA. See Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum.

CINVAHAR NATIVA. See Cinnabar.

CINNAHARIS Guzcorum. The sanguis draconis and ciunabar.

(From kinamon. CINNAMOMUM. Arab.) Cinnamon. The tree which affords the true cinnamon, which is its inner bark, is the Laurus cinnamonum of Jacquin :foliis trinerviis ovato-oblongis: nervis versus apicem evanescentibus. Cinnamon bark is one of the most grateful of the aromatics; of a fragrant smell, and a moderately pungent, glowing, but not fiery taste, accomwith considerable sweetness, and some degree of adstringency. It is one of the best cordial, carminative, and restorative spices we are in possession of, and is generally mixed with the diet of the sick. The essential oil, on account of its high price, is seldom used: a tincture, simple and spirituous water, are directed to be kept in the shops. The watery infusion of cinnamon is given with advantage to relieve nausea and check vomiting.

Cinquefoil. See Pentaphyllum.

Ciox. (Kiev, a column, from kie, to move.) The uvula was formerly so named from its pyramidal shape: also an enlargement of the uvula.

Cionis. (From nor, the uvula.) A discased enlargement and painful swelling of

the uvula.

CIRCÆA. (From Circe, the enchantress; so named from the opinion, that it was used by Circe in her enchanted preparations.) Enchanter's nightshade.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaun system. Class, Diaudria. Order,

Monogynia.

2. The name in some pharmacopæias for the Circea lutiana, which is now fallen

wholly into disuse.

CIRCOCELE. (From Rigner, varix, or a dilatation of a vein, and xnxn, a tumour.) Variocele. A varieose distension and enlargement of the spermatic veins; and whether considered on account of the pain, or on account of the wasting of the testicle, which now and then follows, it may truly be cilled a disease. It is frequently mistaken for a descent of a small portion of omentum. The uneasiness which it occasions, is a kind of pain in the back, generally relieved by suspension of the scrotum. It has been resembled to a collection of earthworms. It is most frequently confined to that part of the spermatic process, which is below the opening in the abdominal tendon; and the vessels generally become rather larger as they approach the There is one sure method of distingnishing between a circocele and omental hernia: place the patient in a horizontal posture, and empty the swelling by pressure upon the scrotum; then put the fingers firmly upon the upper part of the abdomi-

nal ring, and desire the patient to rise; if it is a hernia, the tumour cannot re-appear, as long as the pressure is continued at the ring; but if a circocele, the swelling returns with increased size, on account of the return of blood into the abdomen being prevented by the pressure.

Cracos. (From \*\*\* up to roll up) A ring. It is sometimes used for the splineter muscle, which is round like a ring.

CIRCULATION. (Circulatio; from circulo, to compass about.) A vital action performed by the heart in the following manner: the blood is returned into the right auricle of the heart by the descending and ascending venæ cavæ, which, when discended, contracts and sends its broad into the right ventricle; from the right ventricle it is propelied through the pulmonary artery, to circulate through, and undergo a change in, the lungs, being prevented from returning into the right auricle by the closing of the valves, which are situated there for that purpose. Having undergone this change in the lungs, it is brought to the left auricle of the heart by the four pulmonary veins, and from thence it is evacuated into the left ventricle. left ventricle, when distended, contracts, and throws the blood through the aorta to every part of the body, to be returned by the veins into the two venæ cavæ. prevented from passing back from the left ventricle into the airricle by a valvular apparatus; and the beginning of the pulmonary artery and aorta is also turnished with similar organs, to prevent its returning into the ventricles.—(See Heart.) It is by means of this important action, that every part of the body lives, becomes warm, and is nourished, the various secretions separated, and the chyle converted into blood. In the fætus the blood passes from the umbilical veins, partly into the vena portæ, and partly through the canalis venosus, into the ascending cava. lungs being contracted, a very small quantity circulates through them, and the greater part flows through the canalis arteriosus and foramen ovale to the left side of the heart, and into the aorta, and is carried back by the umbilical arteries to the pla-

CIRCULATOR. (From circulo, to compass about.) A wandering practiser in medicine. A quack. A mountebank.

CINCULATORIUM. (From circulo, to move round.) A chemical digering vessel in which the fluid performs a circulatory motion

CIRCULUS. (Dim. of circus, a circle.) A circle or ring. Any part of the body which is round or annular, as circulus coali. A round chemical and chirurgical instrument, sometimes called abbreviatorium by the old chymists.

CIRCULUS ARTERIOSUS IRIDIS.

artery which runs round the iris and forms a circle, is so termed.

CIRCULUS QUADRUPLEX. A bandage. CIRCUMCAULALIS. A name of the adnata

CIRCUMCISION. (Circumcisio, from circumscindo, to cut about.) The cutting off the prepuce from the glans penis; an ancient custom, still practised amongst the Jews.

CIRCUMFLEXUS. (Circumflexus, sc. muculus.) Tensor palati of Innes. cumflexus palati mollis of Albinus. Sphano. salpingo staphilinus, seu staphilinus externus of Winslow. Musculus tube nove of Valsalva. Palato-salpingeus of Douglass. Pterigo-staphylinus of Cowper, and Petrosalpingo-staphilin of Dumas. This muscle arises from the spinous process of the sphenoid bone, behind the foramen ovale, which transmits the third branch of the fifth pair of nerves, from the Eustachian tube, not far from its osseous part; it then runs down along the pterygoideus internus, passes over the hook of the internal plate of the pterygoid process by a round tendon, which soon spreads into a broad membrane. It is inserted into the velum pendulum palati, and the semilunar edge of the os palati, and extends as far as the suture which joins the two bones. Generally some of its posterior fibres join with the constrictor pharyngis superior, and palato-pharyngæus. Its use is to stretch the velum, to draw it downwards, and to a side towards the hook. It hath little effect upon the tube, being chiefly connected to its osseous part.

(From circumgyro, to CIRCUMGYRATIO. turn round.) Circumgyration, or the turn-

ing a limb round in its socket.

CIRCUMLITIO. (From circumling, to anoint all over.) A medicine used as a general unction or liniment to the part.

CIRCUMOSSALIS. (From circum, about, and os, a bone.) Surrounding a bone as the periosteum does; or surrounded by a bone.

Cincus. (From carka, to surround. Chald.) A circle or ring. A circular bandage, called also plinthius lacqueus.

CIRNESIS. (From upvaw, to mix.)

union of separate things.

CIRSIUM ARVENSE. (From x49005, a vein or swelling of a vein, which this herb was supposed to heal.) The carduus hæmorrhoidalis.

CIRSOCELE. See Circocele.

Cinsoines. (From upocs, a varix, and Resembling a varix: an eidos, likeness.) epithet applied by Rufus Ephesius to the upper part of the brain.

CIRSOS. (From μρσοω, to dilate.) A varix or preternatural distension of any part

of a vein.

Cissa. (From niova, a glutinous bird.)
A depraved appetite proceeding from previous gluttony and voracity.

(From x1550s, ivy, CISSAMPELOS. and αμπελος, the vine.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Dioecia. Order, Monadelphia. The wild vine with leaves like ivy.
CISSAMPELOS PARIERA. The systematic

name of the pariera brava. See Pariera

brava.

(From Mosos, ivy.) The CISSINUM. name of a plaster mentiened by Ægineta. CISTA. (From xuman, to deposit.) A

cyst.

CISTERNA. (From cista, a cyst.) The fourth ventricle of the brain is so called from its cavity; also the lacteal vessels in women

CISTUS. (Kirlos, the derivation of which is uncertain.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Monogynia. Cistus.

(From kis, Heb.) CISTUS CRETICUS. Dorycinium. The Cisthorus. Cissarus. systematic name of the plant from which the laudanum of the shops is obtained. See

CISTUS HUMILIS. A name of parnassia or white liverwort.

CISTUS LADANIFERA. See Ladanum.

CISTUS LEDON. A name of Ledum palustre. See Rosmarinus.

CITHARUS. (From xidapa, a harp.) The breast is sometimes so named from its shape. CITRAGO. (From citrus, a citron, so called from its citron-like smell.) Citraria. Melissa or baum.

CITRAS. (From citrus, the citron.) A citrate. A salt formed by the union of the citric acid, or acid of lemons, with different bases; as the citrate of alumin, citrate of ammonia, citrate of potash.

CITREA. See Limon.

CITREUM. (From citrus.) Citron. Malus medica. Malus citria. The citrontree. Citrus medica of Linnæus. Its fruit is called Cedromela, which is larger and less succulent than the lemon; but in all other respects the citron and lemon trees agree. The lemon is a variety only of the citrus medica. The citron juice when sweetened with sugar is called by the Italians aigre di cedre.

CITRIC ACID. Acidum citricum. The juice of lemons. The citric acid may be obtained pure in concrete crystals, by the following method: Saturate boiling lemonjuice with pulverized chalk. The acid forms with lime a salt that is scarce soluble, and the mucilaginous and extractive substances remain dissolved in the supernatant liquor; the precipitate is to be washed with linkewarm water, till it ceases to deepen in colour; it dissolves nearly as well as sulphate of lime; it is then to be treated with as much sulphuric acid as is requisite to saturate the chalk, diluted in ten parts of water; and this mixture is to be boiled

for a few minutes. Afterwards, it must be tioned by Ruysch as one cause of infecuncooled and filtered; the sulphate of lime remains on the filter, and the liquor affords a crystallized acid by evaporation. See Li-

CITHINATIO. Complete digestion. CITHINULA. (A Dim. of citrus.) small citron.

See Limon. Citron.

Citrul, Sicilian. See Citrullus.

Jace brasi-CITRULLUS. Angura. Tetranguria. Sicilian citrul, or water-melon. The seeds of this plant, Cucurbita citrullus of Linnaus :- foliis multipartitis, were formerly used medicinally, but now only to re-produce the plant. Water-melon is cooling, and somewhat nutritious; but so soon begins to ferment, as to prove highly noxious to some stomachs, and bring on spasms, diarrhæas, cholera morbus, colics, &c.

CITRUS. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Polyade!phia. Order, Icosandria.

2. The name of the lemon. See Limon. CITRUS AUHANTIUM. The systematic name of the orange tree. Sec Aurantium. CITRUS MEDICA. The systematic name of the lemon-tree. See Limon.

CITTA. A voracious appetite.

CITTOSIS. See Chlorosis. Civet cut. See Zibethum.

CIVETTA. (From sebet, Arab.) Civet. An unctuous odoriferous drug now only used by perfumers

Clup. See Gonorrhaa.

CLARET. (Claretum; from clareo, to be clear.) A French wine, that may be given with great advantage, as a tonic and antiseptic, where red port wine disagrees with the patient; and in typhoid fevers of children and delicate females, it is far preferable as a common drink.

CLARETUM. See Claret. Also a wine impregnated with spices and sugar, called by some Vinum Hippocraticum. A Claretum purgatorium, composed of a vinous infusion of glass of antimony in cinnamon water with sugar, is mentioned by Schroeder

CLARIFICATIO. The depuration of any thing.

Clary. A name for the horminum.

CLASIS. (From xxxxx, to break.) Clasma. A fracture.

(From claudo, to shut.) CLAUSTRI M. Cleithrum gutturis. Any aperture which has a power of contracting itself, or closing its orifice by any means, as the passage of

CLAUSTRUM VIRGINITATIS. The hymeit. CLAUSURA. (From claudo, to shut.) An imperforation of any canal or cavity in the Lady. Thus clausurn uteri is a preternatural imperforation of the uterns; clausura tubarum Fallopiarum, a morbid imperforation of the Fallopian tubes, men-

CLAVATIO. (From clava, a club.) sort of articulation without motion, where the parts are, as it were, driven in with a hammer, like the teeth in the sockets. See Gomphosis.

CLAVELLATUS. (From clavus, a wedge.) A specific name of potash, or cineres clavellati; and so named from the little wedges, or billets, into which the wood

was cut to make it.

CLAVICLE. (Dim. of clavis; so called from its resemblance to an ancient key.) Collar-bone. The clavicle is placed at the root of the neck, and at the upper part of the breast. It extends across, from the tip of the shoulder to the upper part of the sternum; it is a round bone, a little flattened towards the end, which joins the scapula; it is curved like an Italic S, having one curve turned out towards the breast; it is useful as an arch, supporting the shoulders, preventing them from falling forwards upon the breast, and making the hands strong antagonists to each other; which, without this steadying, they could not liave been.

1. The thoracic end, that next the sternum, or what may be called the inner head of the clavicle, is round and flat, or button-like; and it is received into a suitable hollow on the upper piece of the sternum. It is not only like other joints surrounded by a capsule or purse; it is further provided with a small moveable cartilage, which, like a friction-wheel in machinery, saves the parts and facilitates the motions, and moves continually as the clavicle moves.

2. But the outward end of the clavicle is flattened, as it approaches the scapula, and the edge of that flatness is turned to the edge of the flattened acromion, so that they touch but in one single point. outer end of the clavicle, and the corresponding point of the acromion, are flattened and covered with a crust of cartilage; but the motion here is very slight and quite insensible; they are tied firmly by strong ligaments; and we may consider this as almost a fixed point; for there is little motion of the scapula upon the clavicle; but there is niuch motion of the clavicle upon the breast, for the clavicle serves as a shaft, or axis, firmly tied to the scapula, upon which the scapula moves and turns, being connected with the trunk only hy this single point, viz. the articulation of the clavicle with the breast-

CLAVICULUS. See Clavicle.

See Clavicle. CLAVICTEA.

CLAVIS. (From claude, to shut.) The same as clavicle.

CLAVUS. A nail. The sensation resembling the driving a nail into the head. A fixed pain in the forehead, which may be covered by one's thumb, giving a sensation like as if a nail were driven into the part. When connected with hysterics, it is called clawus hystericus. This term is also applied to corns, from their re-emblance to the head of a nail; and to an artificial palate, or diseased uterus.

CLI

CLAVUS HY TERICUS. See Clavus.

CLAYUS OCULOGUM. A staphyloma, or tumour on the cyclids.

Clay. See Alumina Cleavers. Sec Aparine.

CLEIDION Clidion. The epithet of a pastil, described by Galen and Paulus Ægineta; and it is the name also of an epithem described by Ætius.

CLEIDOMA (From RASISon, to close.) A

pastil, or torch. Also the clavicula.

CLEIDOMASTOIDEUS. (From aredama, the clavicle, and massondams, the massondams muscle.) See Sterro-cleidomastoideus.

CLETSAGRA. (Brom RASH, the clavicle, and ayea, a prey.) The gout in the articulation of the clavicles.

CLEITHRON. (From nauda, to shut.)

See Claustrum.

CLEMATIS. (From ANDIA, a tendril; so named from its climbing up trees, or any thing it can fasten open with its tendrils.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaun system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Polyginia.

CLEMATIS RECTA. The systematic name of the upright virgin's bower. See Flam-

mula Jovis.

CLEMATIS VITALBA. The systematic name of the traveller's-joy. See Vitalba.

CLEONIS COLLYBIUM. The name of a

collyrium described by Celsus.

CLEONIS GLUTEN. An astringent formula of myrrh, frankincense, and white of

egg

CLESYDRA. (From electron, to conceal, and usag, water.) Properly, an instrument to measure time by the dropping of water through a hole, from one vessel to another; but it is used to express a chymical vessel, perforated in the same manner. It is also an instrument mentioned by Paracelsus, contrived to convey suffumigations to the uterus, in hysterical cases.

CLIBANUS. (Quasi RANGAROS: from RANGAROS), to conceal.) A portable furnace, or still, in which the materials to be wrought

on are shut up.

CLIMACTER. (From κλιμαζα, to proceed gradually. The progression of the life of man. It is usually divided into pe-

riods of seven years.

CLIMAX. (From κλιμαζω, to proceed.) A name of some antidotes, which, in regular proportion, increased or diminished the ingredients of which it was composed. e. g. Chamedryos 3jij. Centaurii 3jj. Hyperici 3j.

Climbing birthwort. See Aristolochia

bed.) Any thing concerning a bed: thus ctinical lectures, notes, a clinical physician, &c.; which mean lectures given at the bed side, observations taken from patients when in bed, a physician who visits his patients in their bed, &c.

CLINOID. (Clinoideus; from NAMM, a bed, and who, resemblance) Resembling a bed. The four processes surrounding the sells turcica of the sphenoid bone are so called, of which two are anterior, and two

posterior.

CLINGWASTOIDEUS. A corruption of cleidomastoideus.

Clissus. A chymical term denoting inineral compound spirits; but antimony is considered as the basis clyssi. A spirit of antinomy is called clyssus.

CLITORIDIS MUSCULUS, See Erector clito-

ridis.

CLITORIS. (From xxua, to enclose, or hide; because it i hid by the labia pudendorum.) Columella. A small glandiform body, like a penis in miniature, and, like it, covered with a præpuce, or fore-skin. It is situated above the nymphæ, and before the opening of the urinary passage of women. Anatomy has discovered, that the clitoris is composed, like the penis, of a cavernous substance, and of a glans, which has no perforation, but is, like that of the penis, exquisitely sensible. The clitoris is the principal seat of pleasure: during coition it is distended with blood, and after the venereal orgasm it becomes flaccid and falls. Instances have occurred, where the clitoris was so enlarged as to enable the female to have venereal commerce with others; and, in Paris, this fact was made a public exhibition of to the faculty. Women thus formed appear to partake, in their general form, less of the female character, and are termed hermaphrodites. The ctitoris of children is larger, in proportion, than in full-grown women; it of en projects beyond the external labia at birth.

CLITORISMUS (From naulogus.) A mor-

bid enlargement of the clitoris.

CLONIC. (Prom πλογεω, to move to and fro.) Spasmi ctonici. See Convulsion.
CLONODES. (From πλογεω, to agritate.)

A strong unequal pulse.

Clove bark. See Cassia cargophyllata.
Clove gilliflower. See Cargophyllum ru-

Clove July flower. See Caryophyllum ru-brum.

um. Clove pink. See Caryophyllum rubrum. Clove. See Caryophyllum aromaticum.

CLUNESIA. (From clunes, the buttocks.) Proctalgia. An inflammation of the buttocks.

CLUSIA. (So called in memory of

Charles Clusius, an eminent botanist.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Polygamia. Order, Monoe-Balsam-tree.

CLUTIA ELUTHERIA. The systematic name of the tree which was supposed to afford

the cascarilla bark.

CLUYTIA. (Named after Cluyt, and generally spelt clutius.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dioecia. Order, Gynandria.

CLUDON. (KAudav.) A fluctuation and

flatulency in the stomach.

CLYPEALIS. (From clypeus, a shield.) Formed like a shield, hence cartilago cly-

CLYSMUS. Clysma. (From κλυζω, to wash.)

A glyster.

Clistus. A term anciently used by the chymists for medicines made by the re-union of different principles, as oil, salt, and spirit, by long digestion; but it is not now practised, and the term is almost lost.

CLYSSUS ANTIMONII. Clyssus mineralis;

A weak acid of sulphur.

CLYSTER. (Clysterium. Erom κλυζω, to cleanse.) A glyster.

CNEWIA. Any part connected with the

CNEMODACTILEUS. (From kynun, the tibia, and faulures, a finger, or toe.) A muscle whose origin is in the tibia, and whose inscrtion is in the toes. Its office is to chevate the toes. See Extensor digitorum longus.

CNESIS. (From RVaw, to scratch.) Chesmu Cnesmos. A painful itching of any

CRICILATON. (From Krikos, cnichs, et exalor, oil.) Oil made of the seeds of cnicus. Its virtues are the same with those of ricinus,

but in an inferior degree.

Cricus. (From araw, to scritch) The plant used by Hippocrates by this name, is supposed to be the carthamus; but modern botanists exclude it from the species of this

CNICUS SYLVESTRIS. The Carduus bene-

dictus.

CNIDII cocci. See Coccognidia.

CNIDII GHANA. See Coccognidia.

Criposis (From widh, the netile.) itching sensation, such as is perceived by the nettle. A dry ophthalmy.

CNIPOTES. An itching. CNISMOS. See Cnesis. CNISMOS.

CNYMA. (From RVZW, to scrape, or grate.) In Hippocrates it signifies a rasure, punctur-, or vellication: also the same as ches-

mos, or enesis.

(From congulo, to COAGULANTIA. incrassate, or curdle.) Such medicines as coagulate the blood and juices flowing from it.

COAGULABLE LYMPH. Lympha coagulabilis. This substance has a great affinity to the white of eggs. It is a component part of the serum of the human blood. It may be obtained in considerable quantities by stirring the serum about with a stick, when it adheres to its sides. In certain diseased actions it is seperated from the blood, and is often found in very considerable quantities in the circumscribed cavities of the body. It has neither taste nor smell; it always possesses a white and opake colour; is of a glutinous consistence, and, if dried by a gentle heat, becomes horny. Its presence is detected by an admixture of the diluted mineral acids. See also Albumen.

COAGULATION. (Coagulatio; From con, and ago, to drive together.) The separation of the glutmous or viscid particles, contained in any fluid, from the more thin and not coagulable particles: thus, when milk curdles, the coagulable particles form the curd; and when acids are thrown into any fluid containing coagulable particles, they form what is called a congulum.

COAGULUM. A term applied frequently to blood and other fluids, when they as-

sume a jelly-like consistency.

COAGULUM ALUMINIS. This is made by beating the white of eggs with a little alum, until it forms a coagulum. It is recommended as an efficacious application to relaxations of the conjunctive membrane of

COALTERNÆ FEBRES. (From con, and alternus, alternate.) Fevers mentioned by Belini, which he describes as two fevers effecting the same patient, and the paroxysm of one approaching as that of the other subsides.

COARCTATIO. (From coarcto, to straiten.) The contraction, or dimunition of any thing. Applied to the pulse, it means a lessening in number.

COARTICULATIO. (From con, and articulatio, an amendation.) That sort of articu-

lation which has manifest motion.

COBALT. Cadmia metallica. A metal that has never been found pure in nature. We meet with it almost always either in the sate of an oxyd; alloyed with other metals in the form of a sulphuret; or combined with an acid.

Cobalt in the state of an oxyd forms the black cobalt ore This ore is found in Germany, either in powder of a black or grey colour, or in compact masses. In the last form, it exhibits at its fracture, rose coloured spots. There are several varieties of this ore.

Cotalt, alloyed with other metals, forms the dul' white cobalt ore. In this ore, which occurs either amorphous or crestalized, cobact is united to iron and arsenic. The colour of this ore, when fresh broken, is white or blueish-grey, sometimes with a shade of red It has a metallic lustre. Its texture is compact. Cobalt, united to

sulphur, forms the white Cobalt ore. It is met with in masses, or christallized in cubes, dodecahedra, and octahedra. Its colour is a tin-white, sometimes reddish-Cobalt combined with arsenic acid forms the red cobalt ore, arseniate of cobalt. It is found in masses of various Its colour is red, inclining to shanes.

orange. Cobalt, when in a pure state, is of a steelgrey colour, with a tinge of red, and a fine close grain. It has a granulated fracture, and is easily broken and pulverized. Its specific weight is hetween 7.700 and 7.811. It requires a very intense heat for its fusion, nearly equal to that necessary to melt castiron. When heated in contact with the air, it oxydates before fusion. Phosphorus renders it very fusible, and converts it into a phosphuret. It unites to sulphur with difficulty, but very well with the alkatine sulphurets by fusion. When alloyed with metals it renders them granulated, rigid, and brittle. It is attacked by the greater number of the acids, and unites with the boracic acid. Its solutions in different acids become green when heated; and from this property, it is used as an ink, which, when written with on paper, is invisible, but becomes visible when gently heated, and disappears when cold. It takes fire in oxygenated muriatic acid gas. It colours glass of a fine blue. It unites with platina, gold, iron, nickel, copper and arsenic, by fusion; but silver, lead, bismuth, and mercury, refusc to unite with it in the dry way. In its purest state, it is not only obedient to the magnet, but, if we may trust to the accuracy of some experiments made by Kohl and Wenzel, it may even receive a magnetical attractive power.

Nitrate of potash oxydates cobalt readi-It detonates by the blow of a hammer, when mixed with oxygenated muriate of potash. It produces fine colours in porcelain, enamels, artificial gems, &c.

COBHAM WATERS. Weak saline

purging waters at Cobham.

(From cobra, COBRA DE CAPELLO. the head, or covering. Span ) Crotalus horridus of Linnæus. The rattle-snake; horridus of Linnæus. the stone out of whose head is said to be an antidote to the poison of venomous animals.

COCCA ENIDIA. See Grana cnidia.

Coccarium. (From nonzov, a berry.) A

very small pill.

COCCINELLA. (Dim. from coccus, a berry; from its resemblance to a berry.) Coccinilla. Ficus India gruna. Scarabaolus hæmisphericus. Cochinelifera cochinilla. Coccus Americanus. Cochinelle. Coccus Indicus tinctorius. Cochineal. The female of a species of insect called Coccus cacti, that is found on, and collected in South America, from the Opuntia, or Indian fig- other, so as to form one conical bone,

tree. It possesses stimulating qualities, and is ordered by the College in he tinctura cardamomi composita and cinchone composita; but most probably, on account of the beautiful red colour which it imparts to them.

Cocco-BALSAMUM. The fruit of the true balsanı.

Coccognidia Grana cnidia. Cocci cnidii. The seeds of the Daphne mezereum are so termed. They are violently purgative. See Mezereum.

Coccos. See Grana cnidia.

Cocculi Indi Aromatici. The piper Jamaicense.

COCCULUS INDUS. Dim of MONNOS, a berry.) Coccus Indicus. Coccula officinarum. Cocci Orientales. The berry o called is rugous and kidney-shaped, and contains a white nucleus; it is the produce of the Menispermum cocculus: foliis cordatis, retusis mucronatis; caule lacero, of Linnxus. It is brought from Malabarand the East Indies. It is poisonous if swallowed, hringing on a nausea, fainting and convulsion. Mixed with paste it stupifies fishes, so that they will lie on the water, and not attempt to e-cape from the hand that takes them. The berries possess an inebriating quality; and are supposed to impart that power to most of the London porter.

COCCUM BAPHICUM. A name for cher-

mes

COCCUS. The name, in entomology, of a tribe of insects.

Coccus CACTI. The systematic name of the

cochineal animal. See Coccinella.
COCCYGEUS. (Coccygeus, sc. musculus; from nonnug: because it is inserted into the coccyx.) Ischio-cocigien of Dumas. muscle of the os coccygis, situated within the pelvis. It arises tendinous and fleshy, from the spinous process of the i-chium, and covers the inside of the sacro-ischiatic ligament: from this narrow heginning it gradually increases to form a thin fleshy belly, interspersed with tendinous fibres. It is inserted into the extremity of the os sacrum, and near the whole length of the os coccygis, laterally. Its use is to support and move the os coccygis forwards, and to tie it more firmly to the sacrum.

COCCYGIS OS. (From κοκκυξ, the cuckoo, whose bill it is said to represent.) Cauda. Ossis sacri acumen. Coccyx. This bone is a small appendage to the point of the sacrum, terminating this inverted cotumn with an acute point, and found in very different conditions in the several stages of life. In the child, it is merely cartilage, and we can find no point of hone; during youth, it is ossifying into distinct bones, which continue movcable upon each other till manhood; then the separate bones gradually unite with cach

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with bulgings and marks of the pieces of part of the spine which is adjacent to the which it was riginally composed; but still the last bone continues to move upon the joint of the sacrum, till, in advanced years, it is at last firmly united; later in women than in men, with whom it is often fixed at twenty or twenty-five. It is not, like the os sacrum, flat, but of a roundish form, convex without, and concave inwards; forming with the sacrum the lowest part of the pelvis behind. It has no holes like the sacrum; has no communication with the spinal canal, and transmits no nerves; but points forwards to support the lower parts of the rectum; thus it contracts the lower opening of the pelvis, so as to support effectually the rectum, bladder, and womb; and yet continues so moveable in women, as to recede in time of labour, allowing the head of the child to pass.

Coccygis os. Also the part in which the os

coccygis is placed.

COCHIA. (From xoxaw, to turn or make round.) An ancient name of some officinal

Cochineal. See Coccinella.

(From κοχαζω, to turn COCHLEA. round.) A cavity of the internal car, re-sembling the shell of a snail, in which are observed, the modiolns, or nucleus, extending from its basis to the apex, the scala tympani, scala restibuli, and spiral lamina.

Cochlea Terrestris. See Limax.

COCHLEARE. (From cochlea, a cockle, whose shell its bowl represents.) A spoonful. In prescriptions it is sometimes abbreviated thus, coch. Cockleare magnum, is a table-spoon; cochleare medium, a dessert or pap-spoon; and cochleare minimum, a teaspoon.

COCHLEARIA. (From cochleare, a spoon; so called from its resemblance.) The name of a genus of plants in the Lin-Class, Tetradynamia. næan system.

der, Siliculosa.

Cochleania armoracia. The systematic name of the horse-radish. See Raphanus rusticanus.

Cochlearia hortensis. Lemon schrvygrass. This indigenous plant, Cochlearia officinalis of Linnaus :- foliis radicalibus cordato-vubrotundis; caulinis oblongis subsinuatis, is cultivated in gardens for its medicinal qualities. Its expressed jnice has been long considered as the most effectual of the scorbutic plants.

COCHLEARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic if me of the lemon-scurvy-grass. See

Cochlearia hortensis.

Cocnone (From xoxxxx, to turn round.) Galen explains this to be the juncture of the ischum, near the seat, or breech; whence, says he, all the adjacent parts about the seat are called by the same about the seat are called by the same chyl-sa, lactea; making the purulenta only name. Hesychius says, that cochone is the symptomatic. See Diarrhaa. It is at-

os sacrum.

COCOS. (So called from the Portuguese coco, or coquen, the three holes at the end of the cocoa-nut shell, giving it the resem-blance of a monkey's head.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Monoecia. Order, Hexondria. The cocoa-nut tree.

The Cocos NUCIFERA. name of the plant whose fruit is the cocoa-

The systematic COCOS BUTTRACEA. name of the plant which affords the palm

Cocrion. (From coque, to boil) coction. Digestion In a medical sense, signifies that alteration, whatever it be, or however occasioned, which is made in the crude matter of a distemper, whereby it is either fitted for a discharge, or rendered harmless to the body. This is often brought about by nature; that is, by the vis vite, or the disposition or natural tendency of the matter itself, or else by proper reme-dies, which may so alter its bulk, figure, cohesion, or give it a particular determi-nation, so as to prevent any farther ill effects, or drive it quite out of the body. And, that time of a disease wherein this action is performing, is called its state of coction.

Cocustu. The name for courbard.

CODOCELE. (From καδια, a bulb, and кили, a tu:nour.) A bubo Cod ga pala. See Conessi cortex.

CECALIS. (From cacum, the blind gut, through which it runs.) A vein, heing a branch from the concave side of the vena mesaraica.

COLLA. (From ROLLOS, hollow.) The hollow pits above, and sometimes below the eyes. The hollow parts at the bottom of the feet.

Carlia. (From ROLLOS, hollow) A cavity in any part of the body. The belly. The womb.

CŒLIAC ARTERY. (Caliacus, belonging to the belly; from xouxia, the belly. Arteria caliaca. The first branch given off from the norta in the cavity of the abdomen. It sends branches to the diaphragm, stomach, liver, pylorus, duodenum, omentum, and spleen.

CŒLIAC PASSION. (Caliacus, belonging to the belly; from nonza, the belly.) Calica Chylosa. Calica luctea. There are very great differences among physicians, concerning the nature of this disease. Sauvages says it is a chronic flux, in which the aliment is discharged half digested. Dr. Cullen considers it as a species of diarrhæa, and mentions it in his third and fourth species, under the terms mucosa, tended with great pains in the stomach, resembling the pricking of pins; rumbling and flatus in the intestines; white stools, because deprived of bile; while the patient becomes weak and lean.

CŒLOMA. (From ROING, hollow.) ulcer in the tunica cornea of the eye.

CŒLOSTOMIA. (From noises, hollow, and sourt, the mouth.) A defect in speaking, when a person's speech is obscured by sounding as if his voice proceeded from a cavern.

CENOLOGIA. (From noives, common, and Aoros, discourse.) A consultation, or common consideration of a disease, by two or

more physicians.

CENOTES. (From nource, common.) The physicians of the methodic sect asserted that all diseases arose from relaxation, stricture, or a mixture of both. These were called canotes, viz. what diseases have in common.

The sulphate of cop-CERULEUS LAPIS.

per. Sec Sulphas cupri.

CETE. (From REMAIL, to lie down.) A

bed, or couch, for a sick person.

COFFEA. (The true name is Caffe, from Caffa, the province in South America, where the tree grows spontaneously in great abundance.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. The coffee-tree.

COFFEE. (From kofuch, a mixing together Hebr.; so called from the pleasant potation which is made from its berry.) Jasminum Arabicum, Choava. The seeds of the Coffea Arabica; floribus quinquefidis, dispermis of Linnaus The coffee-tree is cultivated in Arabia, Persia, the East Indies, the Isle of Bourbon, and several parts of America. Good Turkey Coffee is by far the most salutary of all liquors drunk at meal-time. It possesses nervine and adstringent qualities, and may be drunk with advantage at all times, except when there is bile in the stomach. It is said to be a good antidote against an over-dose of opium, and to relieve obstinate spasmodic asthmas. For the latter purpose, the coffee ought to be of the best Mocco, newly burnt, and made very strong, immediately after grinding it. Sir John Pringle commonly ordered one ounce for a dose; which is to be repeated fresh, after the interval of a quarter or half an hour; and which he directed to be taken without milk or

If coffee be drunk warm within an hour after dinner, it is of singular use to those who have head-ach, from weakness in the stomach, contracted by sedentary habits, close attention, or accidental drunkenness. It is of service when the digestion is weak; and persons afflicted with the sick headach are much benefited by its use, in tumnale of Linnaus:-foliis planis lan-

some instances, though this effect is by no means uniform. Coffee is often imitated, by roasting tye with a few almonds.

The plant which af-COFFEE ARABICA

fords coffee. Ser Coffee.

CCHESION. (From con, and hereo, to stick together.) Vis cohesionis. Vis adhesionis. Vis attractionis. That force in the particles of matter whereby they are connected in such a way that they resist any attempt towards their removal or separation. It is a species of attraction. See Attraction. Conobarton. (A term invented

Paracelsus.) Cohobatio. Cohobium. hoph. The ancient chymists use this term to signify the distillation of a fluid poured afresh upon a substance of the same kind as that upon which it was before distilled, and repeating this operation several times, to make it more efficacious. For this purpose, the vessel called pelican was employed.

(Cohol. Heb.) | Castellus says Соног.. this word is used in Avicenna, to express dry collyria for the eyes, in fine powder.

COILIMA. (From noines, the bowels.) sudden swelling of the belly from wind.

Collostomia. (From nother, hollow, and 50μα, the mouth.) A defect of speaking, from the palate, or through the nose.

COINDICANTIA. (From con, and indico, to indicate.) Signs, or symptoms, are called coindicant, when, besides the usual incidental appearances, there occur others, as age, habit, season, &c.

A name for the terra Japo-COIRA. nica.

COITUS. (From voco, to go together.) The conjunction of the male and female in the act of procreation.

CULA. (From noxov, a joint.) The joints. COLATORIA LACTEA. Astruc says they were formerly called glands, and are situated in the third and internal tunic of the interns, and, that they are vesiculo-vascular bodies.

COLATORIUM. (From colo, to strain.) strainer of any kind.

COLATURE. (From colo, to strain.) filtered or strained liquor.

Colcaquanuitl. An American plant, commended in palsies and uterine disorders, according to Ray.

COLCESTRENSIS AQUA. Colchester water. This mineral water is of the bitter purging kind, similar to that of Epsom, but not so strong

COLCHICUM. (From Colchis, a city of Armenia; where this plant is supposed to have been common.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Trigynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common meadow-saffron. Colchicum an-

reulatis erectis. A native of England. The sensible qualities of the fresh root are very various, according to the place of growth and season of the year. In autumn it is almost inert, but in the beginning of summer highly acrid; hence some have found it to be a corrosive poison, whilst others have eaten it in considerable quantity, without experiencing any effect. When it is possessed of acrimony, this is of the same nature with that of garlic and some other plants, and it is entirely de-The German phystroyed by drying. sicians have celebrated its virtues as diuretic, in hydrothorax and other dropsies; and in France it continues to be a favourite remedy; but it is, nevertheless, in this country unsuccessful, and at best a very uncertain remedy. The expressed juice is used, in Alsace, to destroy vermin in the heads of children. The officinal preparations of colchicum are, Syr. Colch. Autum. Edin, Pharm. The oxymel colchici of the former London pharmacopæia is now omitted, and the acetum colchici ordered in its room; the College observing that the honey may easily be added extempo-raneously, if it be thought requisite. The following is the formula of the present London Pharm, for preparing the acetum colchici, or vinegar of meadow-saffron: Take of meadow-saffron root sliced, an ounce; acetic acid, a pint; proof spirit, a fluid-onnce. Macerate the meadow-saffron root in the vinegar, in a covered glass ves-sel, for twenty-four hours; then press out the liquor and set it by, that the feculencies may subside; lastly, add the spirit to the clear liquor. The dose is from 3ss to

Colonicum Autumnale. The systematic name of the common meadow-saffron. See

Colchicum.

COLUMICUM TLLYRICUM. The plant supposed to afford the hermodacty's. See Hermodactylus.

COLCHICUM ZEVLANICUM. See Zedo-

COLCOTHAR VITRIOLI. Chalcitis. The remains of calcined martial vitriol.

COLD. A privation of heat. It is nothing positive, but somewhat of the negative kind. The human body contains within itself, as long as it is living, a principle of warmth: if any other body, being in contact with it, does at the same time impart to it more caloric or heat than it obtains from the human body, it is said to be warm; but if it receives from the human body more heat than it remits, it is said to be cold.

A cold is a popular name also for a catarrhous affection of the nostrils, throat, and

fauces. See Catarrhus.

COLD AFFUSION. A process formerly practised by physicians, but lately ntroduced by Dr. Currie, of Liverpool,

in the treatment of typhus fever, and which appears to possess a uniformity of success, which we look for in vain in almost any other branch of medical practice. The remedy consists merely in placing the patient in a bathing-tub, or other convenient vessel, and pouring a pailful of cold water upon his body; after which he is wiped dry, and again put to bed. It should be noted,

First, That it is the low contagious fever in which the cold affusion is to be employed. The first symptoms of which are a dull head-ach, with restlessness and shivering; pains in the back, and all over the body, the tongue foul, with great prostration of strength; the head-ach becoming more acute, the heat of the body, by the thermometer, 102° to 105° or mare; general restlessness, increasing to delirium, particularly in the night.

Secondly, That it is in the early stage of the disease we must employ the remedy; and generally in the state of the greatest heat

and exacerbation.

Thirdly, It is affusion, not immersion, that

must be employed

Since the first publication of Dr. Currie's work, the practice of affusion has been extended throughout England; and its efficacy has been established in some stages of the disease, from which the author had originally proscribed the practice of it. One of the cautionary injunctions which had been given for the affusion of cold water in fever was, never to employ it in cases where the patient had a sense of chilliness upon him, even if the thermometer, applied to the trunk of the body, ind.cated a preternatural degree of heat. In his last edition of Reports, however, Dr. Currie has given the particulars of a case of this description, in which the cold affusion was so managed as to produce a successful event.

In fevers arising from, or accompanied by, topical inflammation, his experience does not justify the use of cold affusion; though in a great variety of these cases, the warm affusion may be used with advantage. "And," says he, "though I have used the cold affusion in some instances, so late as the twelfth or fourteenth day of contagious fever, with safety and success, yet it can only be employed, at this advanced period, in the instances in which the heat keeps up steadily above the natural standard, and the respiration continues free. In such cases I have seen it appease agitation and restlessness, dissipate delirium, and, as it were, snatch the patient from impending dissolution. But it is in the early stages of fever (let me again repeat) that it ought always to be employed, if possible; and where, without any regard to the heat of the patient, it is had recourse to in the last stage of fever, after every other remedy has failed, and the case appears desperate, (of

which I have heard several instances,) can it appear surprising that the issue should

sometimes be unfavourable?"

Numerous communications from various practitioners, in the West and East Indies, in Egypt and America, also she with the efficacy of affusion in the raging fevers of hot countries.

COLES. (From xauxos, a stalk.) Colis. The penis.

Colewort. See Brassica.

COLI DEXTRUM LIGAMENTUM. Where the mesentery changes its name for that of mesocolon, (near the extremity of the ileum,) the particular lamina, which is turned to the right side, forms a small transverse fold which is thus named.

COLI SINISTRUM LIGAMENTUM. It is a contraction of the mesocolon, a little

below the left kidney.

COLICA. (From READON, colon, the name of one of the intestines.) The colic. The appellation of colic is commonly given to all pains in the abdomen, almost indiscriminately; but, from the different causes and circumstances of this disorder, it is differently denominated. When the pain is accompanied with a vomiting of bile, or with obstinate costiveness, it is called a bilious colic: if flatus causes the pain, that is, if attended with temporary distention, relieved by the discharge of wind, it takes the name of flatulent or windy colic; when accompanied with heat and inflammation, it takes the name of inflammatory colic, or enteritis. When this disease arises to a violent height, and is attended with a stercoraceous vomiting, obstinate costiveness, and an evacuation of faces by the mouth, it is called pussio iliaca, or iliac passion.

Dr. Callen places this genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi; and defines it pain of the abdomen, particularly round the umbilicus, attended with vomiting and costiveness. He enumerates

seven species.

1. Colica spasmodica, with retraction of the navel, and spasm of the muscles of the

belly.

2. Colica pictonum. This is called from the place where it is endemial; the Poictou, the Surinam, the Devonshire colic; from its victims, the plumbers' and the painters' colic; from its symptoms, the dry bellyach, the nervons and spasmodic colic. has been attributed to the poison of lead, and this is undoubtedly the cause, when it occurs to glaziers, painters, and those employed in lead works; but, though this is one, it is by no means the only cause. In Devonshire it certainly more often arises from the early cider, made of harsh, unripe fruit, and in the West Indies from new The characteristics of this disease are-obstinate costiveness, with a vomiting of an acrid or porraceous bile, pains about

the region of the navel, shooting from thence to each side with excessive violence. strong convulsive spasms in the intestmes, and a tendency to a paralysis of the extremities. It is occasioned by a long continued costiveness; by an accumulation of acrid bile; by cold, applied either to the extremities or to the belly itself; by a free use of unripe fruits, and by great irregu-larity in the mode of living. From its occurring frequently in Devoushire, and other cider councies, it has been supposed to arise from an impregnation of lead, received into the stomach; but this seems to be a mistake, as it is a very prevalent disease in the West Indies likewise, where no cider is made, and where there is only a very small quantity of lead in the mills employed to extract the juice from the sugar-canes. One or other of the causes just enumerated may justly be said always to give rise to this species of colic.

The disease comes on gradually, with a pain at the pit of the stomach, extending downwards to the intestines, accompanied with eructations, slight sickness at the stomach, thirst, anxiety, obstinate costiveness, and a quick contracted pulse. After a short time, the pains increase considerably in violence; the whole region of the belly is highly painful to the touch; the muscles of the abdomen are contracted into hard irregular knots, or lumps; the intestines themselves exhibit symptoms of violent spasm, insomuch that a glyster can hardly be injected, from the powerful contraction of the sphincter ani; and there is constant restlessness, with a frequent vomiting of an acrid or porraceous matter, but more particularly after taking either food, or medicine.

Upon a farther increase of the symptoms, or their not being quickly alleviated, the spasms become more frequent, as well as violent; the costiveness proves invincible, and an inflammation of the intestines ensues, which soon destroys the patient by gangrene. In an advanced stage of the disease, it is no uncommon occurrence for dysmia to take place, in a very high de-

gree.

The dry belly-ach is always attended with some degree of danger; but which is ever in proportion to the violence of the symptoms, and the duration of the disease. Even when it does not prove fatal, it is too apt to terminate in palsy, and to leave behind it contractions of the hands and feet, with an inability in their muscles to perform their office; and in this miserable state of existence the patient lingers out many wretched years.

Dissections of this disease usually shew the same morbid appearances as in common colic, only in a much higher degree.

3. Colica stercorea, which happens

COL from obstinate and long-continued costive-

4 Cohca accidentalis, called also cholera sicca, rom acrid undigested matters.

5. Colica meconialis, in infants, from a retention of meconium.

6. Colica callosa, from a sensation of a stricture in some part of the colon, and frequently of previous flatulence, gradually passing off; the liabit costive, or faces liquid, and in small quantity

7. Colica calculosa, from calculi formed in the intestines, attended with a fixed hardness in some part of the abdomen. It is distinguished by the previous discharge of

8. Colica flatulenta may be added to these species. It is distinguished by a sudden fullness, with pain and constipation, relieved by a discharge of wind from the

mouth, or anus.

The colic is distinguished from inflammation of the intestines by the pain being wringing, and not of a burning sensation; by the spasmodic contraction of the abdominal muscles; by the absence or trifling degree of fever; by the state of the pulse, and by the diminution of pain upon pressure.

The flatulent and inflammatory colic are thus distinguished from each other:-In the flatulent colic, the pain comes on by fits, flies from one part of the bowels to another, and is much abated by a discharge of wind, either upwards or downwards; but in the inflammatory colic the pain remains equable, and fixed and settled in one spot; the vomitings are severe, and frequently bilious; the belly is obstinately bound, and the pulse quick and feverish.

The colic should be distinguished from a fit of the gravel; stones passing through the ureters; rheumanic pains in the muscles of the belly; a beginning dysentery; the blind piles; and from a stone passing through the gall-duct. Gravel in the kidney produces often colic pains, not easily distinguishable; but when stones pass through the ureters, the testicle on that side is often a tracted, the leg is benumbed, a pain shoots down the inside of the thigh; symptoms occasioned by the stone passing through the ureter over the spermatic chord, or the sacro-sciatic nerve. Rheumatic pains in the muscles of the belly rarely affect so accurately the umbilical region, but dart in various directions, to the chest, or to the pelvis, and are attended with soreness, not confined to the abdomen. A beginning dysentery differs little from colic. The pain from the blind piles is confined to the rectum: and that from a stone in the gall-duct is felt in the pit of the stomach, occasionally shooting through the body to the back.

COLICA ACCIDENTALISA Colic from cru-

dities in the bowels.

COLICA ARTERIA SINISTRA. The lower mesenteric artery.

COLICA ARTERIA SUPERIOR. The upper mesenteric artery.

COLICA BILIOSA. Colic from excess of bile.

COLICA CALCULOSA. Colic from stony matters in the intestines.

COLICA CALLOSA. Colic from hardened and obstinate strictures.

Colica Damnoniorum. Colic peculiar to Devoushire. See Colica.

COLICA FEBRICOSA. Colic with fever.

COLICA FLATCLENTAL Colic from wind. COLICA GRAVIDARUM. Colic in pregnant

COLICA HYSTERICA. Hysteric colic.

Colica Lactantium. Colic peculiar to

Colica Lapponica. Colic peculiar to Laplanders.

COLICA MECONTALIS. Colic from meconium in infants.

COLICA MESENTERICA. Colic from eased mesentery.

COLICA NERVOSA. The nervous colic. COLICA PANCREATICA. Colic from diseased puncreas.

COLICA PHLOGISTICA. Colic with inflam-

COLICA PICTONUM. See Colica.

Colica PITUITOSA. The spasmodic

COLICA PLETHORICA. The inflammatory

COLICA PLUMBARIORUM. The colic of lead-workers.

Colica Pulsatilis. The inflammatory colic.

COLICA SATURNINA. The Devonshire colic. See Colica.

COLICA SCIERHOSA. The colic from scirihous tumours.

COLICA SPASMODICA. The spasmodic

COLICA STERCOREA. Colic from retained fæces.

COLICA VENA. A branch of the upper mesenteric artery.

COLICA VENA RECTA. The vein of the colon.

Colica VERMINOSA. The colic from worms.

The colic. COLICE.

Coliformis. (From cola, a strainer, and forma, a likeness; so called from its having many perforations, like a strainer.) Coliforme os. A name formerly given to the os cribrosum.

Coliphium. (From κωλον, a limb, and ιφι, strongly.) A kind of bread given to wrestlers. It was made of flour and bran together, and was thought to make men athletic

The same as coles. COLIS.

COLLAPSUS. (From collabor, to shrink

down.) A wasting or shrinking of the body, or strength.

COLLATENNA. A pecific vulnerary.

COLLATERALES. So Spigelius calls the erectores penis, from their collateral order of fibres.

COLLETICA. (From ROADZ, glue.) Con-

glutinating medicines.

COLLICIE. (From colligo, to collect.) The union of the ducts, which convey the humours of the eyes from the puncta lachrymalia to the cavity of the no-e.

COLLICULUM. (Dim. of collis, a hill.) The nympha, or prominency, without the

vagina of women.

COLLIGAMEN. (From colligo, to tie toge-

ther:) A ligament.

COLLIQUAMENTUM. (From colliqueo, to melt.) A term first made use of by Dr. Harvey, in his application of it to the first rudiments of an embryo in genera-

COLLIQUATIVE. (From colliquo, to melt.) Any excessive evacuation is so called which melts down, as it were, the strength of the body: hence colliquative perspiration; colliquative diarrhæa, &c.

Collisio. (From collido, to beat toge-

ther.) A contusion.

COLLIX. (From MONOV, food.) A troch,

or lozenge.

(From κολλαω, to glue COLLOHOMA. together.) The growing together of the eve-lids.

Collodes. (From nonna, glue.) Gluti-

(From κωλον, a member, as COLLUM. being one of the chief; or dim of columna, as being the pillar and support of the head.) The neck.

COLLUTORIUM. (From collug, to A gargarism or wash for the

mouth.

COLLUVIES. (From colluo, to cleanse.) Excrement. The discharge from Filth. an old ulcer.

COLLYRIS. (Konnugus, a little round cake; so called from its likeness to a cake.) A bump, or knob, which rises after a

blow. COLLYRIUM, (From xwxvw, to check, and pse, a defluxion; because it stops the defluxion.) Any medicine was formerly so called which was applied with that intention. The term is now only given to fluid applications for the eyes, or eye-

waters. COLOBOMA. (From MONNAW, to glue together) The growing together of the eyelids; also the want of a particular member

of the body.

In Celsus this word is COLOBOMATA. expressed by curta. Both the words signify a deficiency in some part of the body, particularly the ears, lips, or alæ of the nostriis.

COLOCASIA. (From 2020s, food, and

καζω, to adorn; so called from its use as a food, and the custom of wearing its flowers in wreaths.) The taba Ægyptia.

COLOCYNTHIS. (From xwxov, the colon, and \*1920, to move; because of its great purging powers.) .Alhandula of the Colocynthidis medulla. Arabians. Bitter apple. Bitter gourd. Bitter cucumber. The fruit which is the medicinal part of the Cucumis colocynthis; foliis multifidis, pomis globosis gla-bris is imported from Turkey. Its spongy membranous medulla, or pith, is directed for use; it has a nauseous, acrid, and in-tensely bitter taste; and is a powerful irritating cathartic. In doses of ten and twelve grains, it operates with great vehemence, frequently producing violent gripes, bloody stools, and disordering the whole system. It is recommended in various complaints, as worms, mania, dropsy, epilepsy, &c; but is seldom resorted to, except where other more mild remedies have been used without success, and then only in the form of the extractum colocynthidis compositum, and the pilule ex colocunthide cum aloë of the pharmacopanas.

COLOMBO. See Columbo. COLON. (Kwhov, quasi xothov: from xotλος, hollow; so called from its capacity, or from its generally being found empty, and full of wind, in dissection.) The ascending portion of the large intestine is so called. It proceeds towards the liver, by the name of the ascending portion of the colon; and having reached the liver, forms a transverse arch across to the other side. The colon then descends, forming what is termed its sigmoid flexure, into the pelvis, where the gut is called rectum. See Intestines.

COLOPHONIA. (Κολοφωνία, the city from whence it was first brought ) Resina nigra. The black resin which remains in the retort, after distilling the common resin with a strong fire. Paracelsus seems to mean by it what is now prescribed by the name of terebinthina cocta: but the ancients, and particularly Galen, seemed to understand by it a soft kind of mastich, from Chio, probably the same as our Chio turpentine.

COLOSTRUM. (From MONOS, food, or κολλωμαι, to agglutinate; so called, either because it is the first food of the young, or from its being at that time peculiarly glutinous.) Is the first milk in the breasts after delivery, according to some authors; but Bartholine applies it to an emulsion made by the solution of turpentine with the yolk of an egg

(From KWAWTHS, a lizard, Coloroides. and ados, likeness.) Variegated like the skin of a lizard. Ilippocrates applied it to the excrements.

COLOQUINTIDA. See Colocynthis.

Colrocele. (From nonros, the vagina,

and unas, a tumour.) A hernia forced into

Collegerosis. (From ROLTOS, the vagina, and wirte, to fall down.) A bearing down of the vagina.

Colt's foot. See Tussilago.

COLUBER BERUS. (Quod colit umbram, because it delights in shade.) The systematic name of a viper. See Vipera.

COLUBRINA VIRGINEANA. See Serpen-

COLUBRINUM LIGNUM. (Colubrinus; from coluber; so called from the snakelike contortions of its roots.) This species of snake-wood is brought from America. It is solid, ponderous, acrid, extremely bitter, and modorous; its bark is of a ferruginous colour, covered with cineritious spots.

Columbine. See Aquilegia COLUMBA. See Columbo.

COLUMBO, Colombo. Calomba. Colombo. The root formerly so called is now termed Calumba in the London pharmacopoia. It is imported from Colomba, in Ceylon, in circular, brown knobs, wrinkied on the outer surface, yellowish within, and consisting of cortical, woody, and medullary lamina. Its smell is aromatic; its taste pungent, and nauseously bitter. From Dr. Percival's experiments on the root, it appears that rectified spirit of wine extracts its virtues in the greatest perfection. The watery infusion is more perishable than that of other bitters. An ounce of the powdered root, half an ounce of orange-peel, two ounces of brandy, and fourteen ounces of water, macerated 12 hours without heat, and then filtered through paper, afford a sufficiently strong and tolerably pleasant infusion. The extract made first by spirit and then with water, and reduced by evaporation to a pilular consistence, is found to be equal, if not superior, in efficacy to the powder. As an antiseptic, Calumba root is inferior to the bark; but as a corrector of putrid bile, it is much superior to the bark; whence also it is probable that it would be of service in the West-India yellow fever. It also restrains alimentary fermentation, without impairing digestion; in which property it resembles mustard. It does not appear to have the least heating quality, and therefore may be used in plithisis pulmonalis, and in hectic cases, to strengthen digestion. It occasions no disturbance, and agrees very well with a milk diet, as it abates flatulence, and is indisposed to acidity. The London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Colleges, direct a tincture of Calumba root. The dose of the powdered root is half a drachm, which, in urgent cases, may be repeated every third or fourth hour.

See Columbo. COLUMBOBE.

COLUMELLA. (Dim. of columna, a column.) See I vula, and Clitoris.

COLUMBIUM. Mr. Hatchett describes the ore from which this metal is obtained, as being of a dark brownish grey externally, and more inclining to an iron grey internally; the longitudinal fracture he found lamellated; and the cross fracture had a fine grain. Its lustre was vitreous, slightly inclining in some parts to metallic; moderately hard and very brittle. The colour of the streak, or powder, was dark chocolate brown. The particles were not obedient to the magnet. Its specific gravity, at a temperature of 65° Fahr. Mr. Hatchett found to be 5 918.

A series of accurate experiments made by its discoverer, prove that this ore consists of iron, combined with a new metallic acid, which constitutes more than three-

fourths of the whole.

The smallness of the quantity Mr. Hatchett had to operate upon, has hitherto prevented us from seeing the metal in its metallic state; but the accuracy with which the properties of its acid have been investigated, leave no doubt of its being different from any of the acidifiable metals lutherto known.

COLUMELLARIS. (From columella. little column.) A name of the dens cani-

COLUMNA. A column, or pillar. Many parts of the body, which in their shape or office resemble columns, are so named; as columnæ carneæ, &c.

COLUMNA MASI. The lowest and fleshy part of the nose, which forms a part of the septum,

COLUMNA ORIS. A name for the uvula. COLUMN E CARNEE. Columnæ cordis. See Carneæ columnæ.

COLUMIUM. (Haga to ROLLAN TOV ESV: because it prevents a defluxion.) A tent to thrust into a sore, to prevent a defluxion of humours.

COMA. (From na, or new, to lie down.) A propensity to sleep. This word anciently meant any total suppression of the powers of sense; but now it means a lethargic drowsiness. The coma vigil is a disease where the patients are continually inclined to sleep, but cannot.

COMA SOMNOLENTUM. Is when the prtient continues in a profound sleep; and, when awakened, immediately relapses, without being able to keep open his eyes.

COMATA. (Kanata: from coma.) diminution of the powers of voluntary motion, with sleep, or the senses impaired. is an order of the class neuroses of Cullen's Nosology.

COMATOSE. Having a strong propen-

sity to sleep.

COMBUSTIO. (From comburo, to burn.) A burn, or scald.

COMIPER. See Cububa

COMBUSTION (From comburo, to burn.) Burning. Among the va ious opera. F F \*

tions of chymistry, none acts a more conspictions part than combustion; and in proportion to its utility in the science, the necessity of thoroughly investigating its nature and mode of action becomes more obvious to the philosophical chymist.

Lavoisier's Theory of Combustion.

Lavoisier's theory of combustion is founded upon the absorption of oxigen by a combustible body.

Taking this for granted, it follows that combustion is only the play of affinity between oxygen, the matter of heat, and a com-

bussible body.

When an incombustible body (a brick for instance) is heated, it undergoes no change, except an augmentation of bulk and temperature; and when left to itself, it soon regains its former state. But when a combustible body is heated to a certain degree, in the open air, it begins to become on a sudden intensely hot, and at last emits a copious stream of caloric and light to the surrounding bodies. During this emission, the burning body gradually wastes away. It either disappears entirely, or its physical properties become totally altered. principal change it suffers is that of being no longer capable of combustion. If either of these phenomena, namely, the emission of heat and light, and the waste of substance be wanting, we do not say that a body is undergoing combustion, or that it is burning. It follows, therefore, that every theory of combustion ought to explain the following facts:

1. Why a burning body is consumed, and

its individuality destroyed.

2. Why, during the progress of this alteration, heat and light are emitted.

For the elucidation of these objects, Lavoisier's theory has laid down the following laws:

1. Combustion cannot take place without the presence of oxygen, and is more rapid in proportion to the quantity of this agent in contact with the inflamed body.

2. In every act of combustion, the oxygen

present is consumed.

3. The weight of the products of every hody after combustion, corresponds with the weight of the body before combustion,

plus that of the oxygen consumed.

4. The oxygen absorbed by the combustible body may be recovered from the compound formed, and the weight regained will be equal to the weight which disappeared during the combustion.

5. In every instance of combustion, light

and heat, or fire, are liberated,

6. In a mited quantity of air, only a certain quantity of the combustible body can be burnt.

7. The air, wherein a body has been burnt, is rendered untit for containing combustion, or supporting animal life.

Though every case of combustion re-

quires that light and heat should be evolved, yet this process proceeds very differently in different circumstances; hence the terms ignition, or glowing heat; inflummation, or accension; and detonation, or explosion.

Ignition takes place when the combustible pody is not in an aëriform state.

Charcoal, pyrophorus, &c. furnish instances of this kind.

It seems as if the phenomenon of glowing was peculiar to those bodies which require a considerable quantity of oxygen to become converted into the gaseous state,

The disengagement of caloric and light is rendered more evident to the senses in

the act of

Inflammation, or accension. Here the combustible substances are more easily converted into an elastic or agriform state. Flame, therefore, consists of the inflammable matter in the act of combustion in the gaseous state. When all circumstances are favourable to the complete combustion of the products, the flame is perfect; if this is not the case, part of the combustible body, capable of being converted into the gaseous state, passes through the luminous flame unburnt, and exhibits the appearance of smoke. Soot, therefore, always indicates an imperfect combustion. Hence a common lamp smokes, an Argand's lamp yields no smoke

This degree of combustion is very accu-

rately exemplified in the

Fiame of Candles.—When a candle is first lichted, which must be done by the application of actual flame, a degree of heat is given to the wick, sufficient to destroy the affinity of its constituent parts; part of the tallow is instantly melted, volatilized, and decomposed; its hydrogen takes fire, and the candle burns. As this is destroyed by combustion, another portion melts, rises and supplies its place, and undergoes a like decomposition. In this way combustion is maintained. The tallow is liquified as it comes into the vicinity of the flame, and is, by the capitlary attraction of the wick, drawn up to supply the place of what is decomposed; the immelted tallow, by this means, forms a kind of cup.

The congeries of capillary tubes which form the wick is black, because the charcoal of the cotton becomes predominant, the circum ambient air is defended by the flame from oxidating it; it therefore remains, for a considerable time, in its natural state; but when the wick, by the continual consumption of tallow, becomes too long to support itself in a perpendicular position, its upper extremity projects nearly out of the coue of the flame, and there forms a support for an accumulation of soot, which is produced by the imperfect combustion. A candle in this situation, affords scarcely one-tenth of the light it

can give, and tallow candles, on this account, require continual snuffing.

But if the candle be made of wax, the wick does not long occupy its place in the middle of the flame; its thinness makes it bend on one side, when its length is too great for its vertical position; its extremity comes then into contact with the air, and is completely burnt, or decomposed, except so much of it as is defended by the continual afflux of the melted wax. This small wick, therefore, performs the office of snuffing itself. The difficult fusibility of wax enables us to use a thinner wick for it than can be used for tallow, which is more fusible. But wax being a substance which con ans much more oxygen than tallow, or oil, the light it affords is not so luminous.

Detonation is an instantaneous combustion, accompanied with a loud report; it takes place in general when the compound resulting from the union of two or more bodies, occupies less space than the substances did before their union; a vacuum is therefore formed, and the surrounding air rushing in from all sides to fill it up is the cause of the report.

Gun-powder, fulminating gold, silver, and mercury; oxygenated muriate at potals; and various other explosive compounds, are capable of producing very loud

detonations.

With respect to the disengagement of light and caloric.

By the older chymists, it was universally supposed that the light and heat emitted during combustion, proceeded from the inflammable body; and this opinion would indeed appear inquestionable, while the composition of the atmosphere was imper-The burning body apfectly known. peared luminous and felt hot, and no other agent was supposed to be concerned; the conclusion that the light and heat were evolved from the burning substance, was therefore unavoidable. But when the nature of the atmosphere was ascertained, and when it became evident that part of the air was absorbed during combustion, the former conclusion tell to the graund; for, when two bodies exert a mutual action on each other, it becomes à priori equally probable that the products may be derived from either of them; consequently, the light and heat evolved might proceed either from the one or the other. Whether they proceed from the atmosphere, or from the combustible body, they must be separated at the part where the combination takes place; that is, upon the surface of the burning body itself; and consequently it appeared luminous and heated, while the air being invisible escaped observation.

When the law of heat became known,

at least when it was ascertained that bodies in the aëriform state contain at the same temperature, and in equal quantities, either of mass or bulk, unequal quantities of heat, the conclusion became probable, that the caloric evolved in combustion proceeded rather from the oxygen gas of the atmosphere, than from the combustible body; since the former contains a much larger quantity than the latter. The caloric evolved was therefore supposed to be derived from the condensation of the oxygen gas in the new combination into which it entered.

Though approaching to the truth, this explanation is not strictly true. It is not merely from the oxygen gas being condensed that the caloric is evolved, because, in many cases of combustion, the product still exists in the gaseous state, and in others, the quantity of caloric evolved bears no proportion to the degree of condensation. Philosophers ascribed this to a change of capacity; for, in different bodies, the difference in the proportion of the capacities before and after combustion, is by no means uniform; and hence the difference in the quantities of caloric extricated in various cases of combustion.

This being premised, it remains to explain the origin of the light emitted during combustion; for although we take it for granted that the caloric is evolved from the oxygen gas, we cannot infer that the light

has the same origin.

It is very probable that light is a constituent part of inflammable bodies; for it is frequently evolved in combinations when the oxigen is merely transferred from one inflammable substance to another. In those cases it must proceed from the inflammable body. The accension of oils by the affusion of acids, the combustion of metals with sulphur, furnish instances of the kind.

It seems, therefore, probable, that the light is derived from the inflammable substance; and that the oxygen combining with the bases of these substances, disengages the light.

It may be concluded then, that light enters into the composition of all combustible bodies; but as we are unable to separate the light, so as to obtain these bodies pure,

we treat of them as simple bodies.

According to this theory, the combustion of pho-phorus in oxygen gas is therefore the effect of a double affinity. The basis of the oxygen gas unites with the phosphorus, to form phosphoric acid: and the light disengaged from the phosphorus, together with part of that of the oxygen gas, produces the vivil flame.

The quantity of light emitted by different bodies is supposed to depend on the quantity contained in them, and on the

proportion in which it is united to calo-

ric.

Such is the theory of combustion of Lavoisier, modified by Gren, Leonardi, Richter, and formerly taught in this capital by Dr. Crichton.

Thomsons's Theory of Combustion.

Though the preceding theory of combustion is simple and beautiful, it appears from what we are now going to state, to be

by no means satisfactory

It has misled chymists, by confining the term combustion to the act of oxigenation, and considering that all bodies, during their combustion, combine with oxygen, without at the same time recoilecting, that this latter effect may take place without any of the phenomena usually attendant on combustion; and that, though certainly all combustion pre-supposes the combination of oxygen with a base, yet this combination may be, and repeatedly is, effected where no combustion can possibly take place. Nothing can be more evident than the difference which, in numberless instances, prevails between the act of oxygenation in bodies and that of combustion, in as much as neither the phenomena attending on, nor the results arising from them, are the That a distinction therefore should be made between these processes is obvious; and it is on this account that Dr. Thomson has offered a theory, which considers this subject in a new point of view, and which bids fair to enable us to estimate the phenomena of combustion much better than has hitherto been done.

According to Dr. Thomson's theory, all the bodies concerned in combustion are either, 1. Combustibles—2. Supporters of

Combustion—3. Incombustibles.

I. Combustible bodies are those substances which are said, in common language, to burn. During the combustion, they appear to emit light and heat, and, at the same time, gradually waste away. When this change has reached its maximum, the process of combustion is at an end.

The class of combustibles is very numerous; but all the bodies belonging to it may be sub-divided into three sets, numely:

1. Simple combustibles. 2. Compound combustibles. 3. Combustible oxyds.

Simple Combustibles.

1. Sulphur.

Phosphorus.
 Diamond.

4. Hydrogen gas.

5. All the metals.

Compound Combustibles.

The compound combustibles consist of compounds, formed by the simple combustibles uniting together two and two, and arc of course much more numerous than the simple combustibles. They may be arranged under the five following heads:

1. Sulphurets.

- 2. Phosphurets.
- 3. Carburets.

4. Alloys.

5. Sulphurated, phosphorated, and carbonated hydrogen.

The combustible oxyds are either simple, having a single base, or compound, having more than one base. All the simple combustible oxyds are by combustion converted into acids.

The compound combustible oxyds are by

far the most numerous.

- II. The supporters of combustion are bodies which are not of themselves, strictly spe king, capable of undergoing combustion, but which are absolutely necessary for the process; for no combustible body can burn unless some one or other of them be present. Whenever they are excluded, combustion ceases. All the supporters of combustion known at present are the following six:
  - 1. Oxygen gas.

2. Air.

3. Gaseous oxyd of nitrogen.

4 Nitrous gas.

5. Nitric acid.

6. Oxygenated muriatic acid.

There are indeed certain substances besides these, which possess nearly the same properties; these shall be afterwards enumerated under the title of partial supporters.

They all contain one common principle,

namely, oxygen.

III. The incombustible bodies are neither capable of undergoing combustion themselves, nor of supporting the combustion of those bodies that are; they are therefore not immediately connected with combustion. At present we are acquainted with about thirteen incombustible bodies, not reckoning the compounds which they are capable of forming with each other. Those are,

Nitrogen gas.
 The alkalies.

3. The earths.

Some of the alkalies and earths possess certain properties in common with combustibles, and are capable of exhibiting phenomena somewhat analagous to combustion; which will be described afterwards under

the title of semi combustion.

III. In every case of combustion, there must therefore be present a combustible body, and a supporter of combustion. During combustion, the combustible always unites with the oxygen of the supporter. It is this combination which occasions the apparent waste and alteration of the combustible. The new compound thus formed is a product of combustion. Every product of combustion is either, 1. water, 2. an acid, or 3. a metallic oxyd. It is true, indeed, that other bodies sometimes make their appearance during combustion, but

these will be found, upon examination, not to be products, nor to have undergone combustion.

Thus one of the two characteristic marks which distinguish cumbustion, namely, the apparent waste and alteration of the combustible body, has been fully explained. For the explanation of it we are indebted to Lavoisier, as stated before.

But though the combination of the combustible with oxygen be a constant part of combination, yet the facility with which combustibles burn is not proportional to their

parent affinity for oxygen.

Phosphorus, for instance, burns more readily than charcoal; yet charcoal is capable of abtracting oxygen from phosphorus, and of course has a greater affinity for it. The combustible oxyds take fire more readily than some of the simple combustibles; thus charcoal burns more easily than diamond; alkohol, ether, and oils, are exceedingly combustible, whereas all the metals require very high temperatures when the supporter is air.

This greater combustibility of combustible oxyds is probably owing to the weaker affinity by which their particles are united. Hence they are more easily settled than homogeneous particles, and of course combine more readily with oxygen; those simple combustibles which melt easily, or which are in the state of elastic fluids, are also very combustible, because the cohesion between their particles is easily over-

come.

It is owing to the same inferiority in the collesion of heterogeneous particles, that some of the compound supporters occasion combustion in circumstances when the combustibles would not be acted on by simple

supporters.

Thus phosphorus burns in air at the comnon temperature; but it does not burn in oxigen gass unless its temperature be raised. In oxygenated muriatic acid gas, phosphorus burns rapidly at the common temperature of the air, and so do several of the metals; though they cannot be made to burn in air, except at a very high temperature. Thus also oils burn rapidly when mixed with nitrous acid. Nitrous gas and the gaseous oxyd of nitrogen, constitute ex-

ceptions to this rule.

IV. None of the products of combustion are combustible, according to the definition of combustion here given. This want of combustibility is not owing to their being saturated with oxygen; for several of them are capable of combining with an additional dose of it. But, during this combination, no caloric or light is ever emitted; and the compound formed differs essentially from a product of combustion; for, by this additional dose of oxygen, the product is converted into a supporter. Hence we see that combustion ought not to be confounded with

the combination of a body with oxygen, as was done formerly.

Combustion, indeed, cannot take place without the combination of oxygen; but oxygen may combine with bodies in different proportions without the phenomena of combustion; and the product obtained is capable of becoming converted into a supporter of combustion; for instance, if lead be melted, and kept so for some time, it becomes covered with a white pellicle, or white oxyd of lead, a product consisting of oxygen and lead; but if this white oxyd is suffered to be heated longer, it aborbs an additional quantity of oxygen, and becomes converted into a y llow powder, called yellow oxyd of lead. If this yellow oxyd be again exposed to heat, it absorbs still more oxygen, and becomes converted into red oxyd of lead. All these oxyds are therefore supporters. When the supporters thus formed by the combination of oxygen with products, are made to support combustion, they do not lose all their oxygen, but only the additional dose which constituted them supporters. Of course they are again reduced to their original state of products of combustion. Hence it follows, that they owe their properties as supporters, not to the whole of the oxygen which they contain, but to the additional dose which constituted them supporters. We may therefore call them partial supporters, indicating by the term, that part only of their oxygen is capable of supporting combustion, and not

All the partial supporters with which we are acquainted, contain a metallic basis; for metallic oxyds are the only products at present known, capable of combining with an additional dose of oxygen. It is a circumstance highly deserving attention, that when metals are capable of combining with several doses of oxygen, the product, or oxyd formed by combustion is seldom or never that which contains a maximum of oxygen.

Thus it is evident that several of the products of combustion are capable of combining with oxygen. The incombustibility of products, therefore, is not owing to their want of affinity for oxygen, but to some other

cause.

the whole.

5. No product of combustion is capable of supporting combustion. This is not occasioned by any want of affinity to combustible bodies; for several of them are capable of combining with an additional dose of their basis. But by this combination, they lose their properties as products, and are converted into combustibles. The process, therefore, differs essentially from combustion. Thus sulphuric acid, a product of combustion, by combining with an additional dose of sulphur, or its oxyd, is converted into sulphureous acid, a substance which, from several of its properties, the

doctor concludes to be combustible. Thus also phosphoric acid, a product of combustion, is capable of combining with phosphorated ydrogen, and of forming phosphorous acid a combustible body. When this last acid is heated in contact with a supporter, it undergoes combustion; but it is only the additional Jose of the combustible which burns, and the whole is converted into phosphoric acid. Hence we see that it is not the whole basis of these compounds which is combustible, but merely the additional dose. The compounds, therefore, formed by the union of a product and combustible, may be termed partial combustibles; indicating by the name, that a part only of the base is capable of undergoing combustion. Since the products of combustion are capable of combining with oxygen, but never exhibit the phenomena of combustion, except when they are in the state of partial combustibles, combustible bodies must contain a substance which they lose in burning, and to which they owe their combustibility; for, after they have lost it, they unite to oxygen without exhibiting the phenomena of combus-

Though the products of combustion are not capable of supporting combustion, they not unfrequently part with their oxygen just as supporters do, give it out to combustibles, and convert them into products: but during this process, no heat nor light is ever evolved. Water, for instance, gives out its oxygen to iron, and converts it into black oxyd, a product; and sulphuric acid gives out its oxygen to phosphorus, and converts it into phosphoric acid. Thus we see that the oxygen of products is capable of converting combustibles into products, just as the oxygen of supporters; but during the combustion of the last only, are heat and light emitted. The oxygen of supporters then contains something which the oxygen of products wants.

6. Whenever the whole of the oxygen is abstracted from products, the combustibility of their base is restored as completely as before combustion; but no substance is capable of abstracting the whole of the oxygen, except a combustible, or a purtial combustible. Water, for instance, is a product of combustion, whose base is hydrogen. To restore the combustibility of the hydrogen, we have only to mix water with iron or zinc filings, and an acid; the metal is oxydated, and the hydrogen gas is evolved as combustible as ever. But no substance, except a combustible, is capable of separating hydrogen gas from water, by combining with its oxygen. Thus we see that combustibles are capable of restoring the combustibility of the bases of products; but they themselves lose their combu tibility by the process, and are converted into products. Combustibility, therefore, may

be thrown at pleasure from one body to another.

From these facts it is obvious, that the products of combustion may be formed without combustion, but in these cases a new combustible is always evolved. The process is merely an interchange of combustibility; for the combustible is converted into a product only by means of a prodeut. Both the oxygen and the base of the product having undergone combustion. have lost something which is essential to combustion. The process is merely a double decomposition. The product yields its oxygen to the combustible, while at the same time the combustible gives out something to the base of the product; the combust bility of that base then is restored by the loss of its oxygen, and by the restoration of something which it receives from the other combustible thus converted into a product.

is indeed another method of forming the products of combustion without actual combustion in certain cases; but the phenomena are much more compli-This method is to expose them to cated. the action of some of the supporters dissolved in water; especially nitric acid. Thus most of the metallic oxyds may be formed without combustion by the action of that acid on the metals. But, in that case, a new supporter is always evolved. namely, nitrous gas; ammonia, a new combustible, is also usually formed; and, not unfrequently, the product is converted into a partial supporter.

7. No supporter can be produced by combustion, or by any equivalent process. As all the supporters, except oxygen gas, consist of oxygen combined with a base, it follows as a consequence, that oxygen may combine with a base without losing that ingredient, which occasions combustion. The act of combination of oxygen with a base, therefore, is by no means the same with combustion. If we take a view of the different supporters, we shall find that all of them which can be obtained artificially, are procured either from other supporters or by the agency of electricity.

1. Oxygen gas may be procured from nitric acid and oxygenated muriatic acid, two supporters; and from several of the partial supporters, as the black oxyd of manganese, the red oxyds of lead and of mercury. The action of heat is always necessary; but the process is very different from combustion.

II. Air, as far as is known at present, cannot be formed artificially. The gas, indeed, which comes over during part of the usual distillation of nitrate of petash and sulphucic acid, to obtain nitrous acid, resembles air very closely. But it is obtained from a supporter.

III. The GASHOUS OXYD OF NITHOGEN

has hitherto been only procured from ni- fulminating silver, fulminating mercury, trous gas and nitric acid (nitrate of ammonia,) both of which are supporters.

IV. Nitrous GAs can only be procured by the d-compositon of nitric acid, a sup-

V. Oxigenated muniatic acid can be formed by combining muriatic acid with the oxygen of the black oxyd of mangan se, the red oxyds of lead, iron, mercury; all of

which are partial supporters.

VI. NUTICIC ACID is formed spontaneously upon the surface of the earth, by processes with which we are but imperfectly acquainted; but which certainly have no resemblance to combustion. Its oxygen is probably furnished by the air, which is a supporter; at least, it has been observed, that nitrogen and oxygen, at high temperatures, are capable of forming nitric acid.

This formation of pitric acid by means of electricity, has been considered as a combusion, but for what reason it is not easy to say: the substance acted upon is not a combustible with a supporter, but a supporter alone. Electricity is so far from being equivalent to combustion, that it sometimes acts in a manner diametrically opposite; unburning, if we may use the expression, a substance which has already undergone combustion, and convering a product into a combustible and a supporter. Thus it decomposes water, and converts it into oxygen and hydrogen gas; therefore it must be capable of supplying the substances which the oxygen and combustible lose when they combine by combustion,

and form a product.

8. Several of the supporters and partial supporters are capable of combining with combustibles, without undergoing decomposition, or exhibiting the phenomena of combustion. In this manner, the yellow oxid of gold and the white oxyd of silver combine with ammonia; the red oxyd of mercury with oxalic acid; and oxygenated muriatic acid with ammonia. Thus also nitrate of potasli and oxigenated muriate of po ash may be combined, or at least intimately mixed with several combustible bodies, as in gun-powder, fulminating powder, &c. In all these compounds, the oxygen of the supporter and the combustible retain the ingredients which render them susceptible of combustion; hence the compound is still combustible. And in consequence of the imimate combination of the component parts, the least alteration is apt to destroy the equilibrium which subsists between them; the consequence is, combustion and the formation of a new compound. Hence these compounds burn with amazing facility, not only "hen heated, but when triturated, or struck smartly with a hammer. They have therefore received the name of detonating or fulminating

fulminat ng powder, &c.

9. Such are the properties of the com-bustibles, the supporters, and the products; and such the phenomena which they exhibit when made to act upon each other.

If we compare together the supporters and the products, we shall find that they resemble each other in many respects. Both of them contain oxygen, as an essential constituent part; both are capable of converting combustibles into products; and several of both combine with combustibles aid with additional doses of oxygen. But they differ from each other in their eff cts on combustibles. The former only produce combustion; whereas the products convert combustibles into products without combustion. Now, as the ultimate change produced upon combustibles by both these sets of codies is the same, and as the substance which combines with the combustibles is in both cases the same, namely oxygen, we must con-clude that this oxygen in the supporters contains something which the oxygen of the products wants, something which separates during the passage of the oxigen from the product to the combustible, and occasions the combustion, or emission of fire, which accompanies this passage. The oxigen of supporters then contains some ingredient which the oxygen of products wants. Many circumstances concur to render it probable that this ingredient is caloric.

The combustibles and the products also resemble each other. Both of them contain the same or a similar base; both frequently combine with combustibles, and likewise with oxygen; but they differ essentially in the phenomena which accompany their combination with oxygen. In the one case, fire is emitted, in the other not. If we recollect that no subtance but a combustible is capable of restoring combustibility to the base of a product, and that at its doing so it always loses its own combustibility; and if we recollect farther, that the base of a product does not exhibit the phenomena of combustion even when it combines with oxygen, we cannot avoid concluding, that all combustibles contain an ingredient which they lose when converted into products, and that this loss contributes to the fire which makes its appearance during the conversion. circumstances contribute to render it probable that this ingredient is light.

It we suppose that the exygen or supporters contains caloric as an essential ingredient, and that light is a component part of all combustibles, the phenoniena of combustion above enumerated, numerous and intricate as they are, admit of at easy and abvious explanation. The cospecient parts of the oxygen of supporters are two; bodies. Thus we have fulminating gold, namely, 1. a base, 2. caloric. The contponent parts of combustibles are likewise two; namely, 1. a base, 2. light. During combustion, the base of the oxygen combines with the base of the combustible, and forms the product; while, at the same time, the caloric of the oxygen combines with the light of the combustible, and the compound flies of in the form of fire. Thus combustion is a double decomposition; the oxygen and combustible divide themselves each into two portions, which combine in pairs; the one compound is the product, and the other the fire, which escapes.

Hence the reason that the oxygen of products is unfit for combustion. It wants its Hence the reason that combustion does not take place when oxygen combines with products, or with the base of These bodies contain no supporters. light. The caloric of the oxygen of course is not separated, and no fire appears. And this oxygen still retaining its caloric, is capable of producing combustion whenever a body is presented which contains light, and whose base has an affinity for oxygen. Hence also the reason why a combustible alone can restore combustibility to the base of a product. In all such cases, a double decomposition takes place. The oxygen of the product combines with the base of the combustible, while the light of the combustible combines with the base of the product.

But the application of this theory to all the different phenomena described above, is so obvious, that it is needless to give any more examples. Let us rather inquire, with the author, into the evidences which can be brought forward in its support.

10. As caloric and light are always emitted during combustion, it follows that they must have previously existed in the combustible, the supporter, or in both.

That the oxygen of the supporters contains either one or both of these substances, follows incontrovertibly from a fact already mentioned, namely, that the oxygen of products will not support combustion, while that of supporters will. Hence the oxygen of supporters must contain something which the oxygen of the products wants, and this something must be caloric,

or light, or both.

That the oxygen of some of the supporters at least contains caloric, as an ingredient, has been proved, in a satisfactory manner, by the experiments of Crawford, Lavoisier, and La Place. Thus the temperature of hot blooded animals is maintained by the decomposition of air. Now if the oxygen of one supporter contains caloric, the same ingredient must exist in the oxygen of every supporter, because all of them are obviously in the same state. Hence we conclude that the oxygen of every supporter contains caloric as an essential ingredient.

The light emitted during combustion, must either proceed from the combustible or the supporter. That it proceeds from the combustible, must appear pretty obvious, if we recollect that the colour of the light emitted during combustion varies, and that this variation usually depends, not upon the supporter, but upon the combustible. Thus charcoal burns with a red flame, sulphur with a bue or violet, zinc with a greenish white, &c.

The formation of combustibles in plants, obviously requires the presence and agency of light. The leaves of plants emit oxygen gas, when exposed to the sun's rays, but never in the shade, or in the dark.

Besides vegetation, we are acquainted with two other methods of unburning products, or of converting them into products and combustibles, by exposing them, in certain circumstances, to the agency of fire, or of electricity. The oxydes of lead, mercury, &c. when heated to redness, are decomposed, oxygen gas is emitted, and the pure metal remains behind. In this case, the necessary caloric and light must be furnished by the fire; a circumstance which explains why such reductions always require a red heat. When carbonic acid is made to pass repeatedly over red-hot charcoal, it combines with a portico of charcoal, and is converted into gaseous oxyd of carbon. If this gas be a combustible oxyd, the base of the carbonic acid and its oxygen must have been supplied with light and caloric from the fire; but if it be a partial combustible, it is merely a compound of carbonic acid and charcoal: which of the two it is, remains still to be ascer-

Electricity decomposes water, and converts it into oxygen gas and hydrogen gas; it must therefore supply the heat and the light which these bodies lost when convert-

ed into a product.

These facts, together with the exact correspondence of the theory given above with the phenomena of combustion, render it so probable, that Dr. Thomson has ventured to propose it as an additional step towards a full explanation of the theory of combustion. Every additional experiment has served to confirm it more and more. It even throws light upon the curious experiments of the accension of metals with sulphur, which succeed in vacuo, under mercury, in nitrogen gas, &c.

Dr. Thomson has noticed, that the same emission of caloric and light, or of fre, takes place when melted sulphur is made to combine with potash, or with lime, in a crucible or glass tube, and likewise when melted phosphorus is made to combine with lime heated to redness. He supposes that in all probability, barytes and strontia exhibit the same phenomenon when combined with melted sulphur or phosphorus; and

perhaps some of the metals when combined

with phosphorus.

The pi chomena Dr. Thomson explains thus: The sulphur and phosphorus are in the melted state, and therefore contain caloric as an ingredient; the alkalies, earths, and metals, which produce the phenomenon in question, contain light as an essential ingredient. The sulphur, or phosphorus combines with the base of the metal, earth, or alkali; while at the same time, the caloric, to which the sulphur or phosphorus owed its fluidity, combines with the light of the metal, earth or alkali; and the compound flies off under the form of fire.

Thus the process is exactly the same with combustion, excepting as far as regards the product. The melted sulphur, or phosphorus, acts the part of the sup-porter, while the metal, earth, or alkali, occupies the place of the combustible. The first furnishes caloric, the second light, while the base of each combines together. Hence we see that the base of sulphurets and phosphurets resembles the base of products in being destitute of light; the formation of these bodies exhibiting the separation of fire like combustion, but the product differing from a product of combustion in being destitute of oxygen, Dr. Thomson distinguishes the process by the title of semi-combustion; indicating by the term, that it possesses one half of the characteristic marks of combustion, but is destitute of the other half.

The only part of this theory which requires proof is, that light is a component part of the earths and alkalies. But as potash and lime are the only bodies of that nature, which we are certain to be capable of exhibiting the phenomena of semi-combustion, the proofs must of necessity be confined to them. That lime contains light as a component part, has been long Meyer and Pelletier observed long ago, that when water is poured upon lime, not only heat but light is emitted. Light is emitted also abundantly when sulphuric acid is poured upon magnesia, or upon lime, potash, or soda, freed from the water of crystallization. In all these cases, a semi-combustion takes place. The water and the acid being solidified, give out caloric, while the lime or potash gives out light.

That lime during its burning combines with light, and that light is a component part of lime, is demonstrated by the following experiment, for which we are in-

debted to Scheele.

Fluor spar (fluate of lime) has the property of phosphorescing strongly when heated, but the experiment does not succeed twice with the same specimen. After it has been once heated sufficiently, no subsequent heat will cause it so phosphorate, Now phosphorescence is merely the emis-

sion of light; light of course is a compouent part of fluor spar, and heat has the property of separating it. But the phosphorescing quality of the spar may be again recovered to it, or, which is the same thing, the light which the spar had lost may be re-

stored by the following process:

Decompose the fluate of lime by sulphuric acid, and preserve the fluoric acid separate. Boil the sulphate of lime thus formed with a sufficient quantity of carbonate of soda; a double decomposition takes place; sulphate of soda remains in solution, and carbonate of lime precipitates. Ignite this precipitate in a crucible, till it is reduced to lime, and combine it with the fluoric acid to which it was formerly united. The fluor spar thus regenerated, phosphoresces as at first. Hence the lime, during its ignition, must have combined with light.

That potash contains light, may be proved in the same manner as the existence of that body in lime. Now as potash is deprived of its carbonic acid by lime, the Doctor supposes that the process must be a double decomposition; namely, that the base of the lime combines with carbonic acid, while its light combines with the pot-

ash.

These remarks on semi-combustion might easily be much enlarged upon. For it is obvious, that whenever a liquid combines with a solid containing light, and the product is a solid body, something analogous to semi-combustion must take place. Hence the reason why water increases the violence of combustion when thrown sparingly into a common fire, &c.

COMEDONES. (From comedo, a glutton.)
A sort of worms which eat into the skin

and devour the flesh.

Comfrey. See Symphitum. Comisdi. The gum arabic.

COMISTE. The epilepsy. This name arose from the frequency of persons being seized with this disorder while in the assemblies called Comitia.

COMITISSA. (A countess.) Some preparations are distinguished by this name, as pulvis Comitissa de Cantia, the Countess of Kent's powder.

COMMAGENUM. (From Commagene, a place in Syria, whence it was brought.) Syrian ointment, mentioned by Galen.

COMMANDUCATIO. (From commanduco, to eat.) The act of mastication, or chewing.

COMMANSIM. (From commando, to eat.) A masticatory. A medicine put into the mouth chewed to promote a discharge of phlegm, or saliva.

Commendationius. (From commendo, to recommend.) An epithet of the traumatic balsam, Tinctura Benzoes composita, from its singular virtues and usefulness.

COMMI. Gum. When alone it signifies

G 6 \*

gum Arabic. The κομμι λευκον mentioned by Hippocrates in his De Morb. Mulieb.

is gum Arabic.

commissura. (From committo, to join together.) A suture, juncture, or joint. A term applied in anatomy to the corners of the lips, where they meet together; and also to certain parts of the brain which go across and join one hemisphere to the other.

COMMISSURA ANTERIOR CERE-BRI. The white nerve-like substance which crosses the anterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, immediately above the infundibulum, and between the anterior crura of the fornix; uniting one hemisphere

of the brain with the other.

COMMISSURA MAGNA CEREBRI.
The corpus callosum of the brain is so

termed by some writers.

COMMISSURA POSTERIOR CEREBRI. A white nerve-like substance, which passes from one hemisphere of the brain across to the other, immediately over the opening of the aquaduct of Sylvins, in the posterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, and above the corpora quadrigemina.

COMMUNICANT. (From communico, to make partake.) A term applied, by Bellini, to fevers of two kinds afflicting the same person, wherein as one goes off the

other immediately succeeds.

COMPAGES. (From compingo, to put together.) A suture, or joint. A commissure.

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. Anatomia comparativa. Zootomy. The dissection of brute animals and fishes, to compare them with the human body.

COMPEBA. See Cubeba.

COMPLETION. A term used by the aucient writers in various acceptations; but latterly it signifies only the same as Plethora.

COMPLEXUS. (Complexus, sc. musc. from complector, to comprise.) Complexus seu biventer cervicis of Albinus. Dorso trachelon occipital of Dumas. A muscle situated on the back part of the neck, that draws the head backwards, and to one side; and when both act, they draw the head directly backward. It arises from the transverse processes of the seven superior vertebræ of the back, and four inferior of the neck, by as many distinct tendinous origins; in its ascent, it receives a fleshy slip from the spinous process of the first vertebræ of the back: from these different origins it runs upwards, and is every where intermixed with tendinous fibres. inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the inferior edge of the protuberance in the middle of the os occipitis, and into a part of the curved line that runs forwards from that protuberance. It draws the head backwards,

COMPRESSION. (From comprimo, to

By this term, surgeons press together.) express a diseased state of the body, which is the effect of something pressing upon the It should be distinguished from concussion and inflammation. When the brain is compressed either by bone, extravasated blood, or any other fluid, there is a general insensibility, the eyes are half open, the pupil dilated and motionless, even when a candle is brought near the eye; the retina is insensible; the limbs relaxed; the breathing stertorous; the pulse slow, and, according to Mr. Abernethy, less subject to intermission than in cases of concussion. Nor is the patient ever sick, when the pressure on the brain and the general insensibility are considerable; for the very action of vomiting betrays an irritability in the stomach and œsophagus.

COMPRESSOR NARIS. (Compressor; from comprisno, to press agether) Reneaus wel nasalis of Douglas. Transversalis vel myritformis of Winslow. Dilatores alarum nasi of Cowper; and Maxillo narmal of Dumas. A muscle of the nose, that compresses the alæ towards the septum nasi, particularly when we want to smell acutely. It also corrugates the nose, and assists in expressing certain passions. It arises, by a narrow beginning, from the root of the ala nasi externally, and spreads into a number of thin, separate fibres, which run up along the cartilage in an oblique manner towards the

tremity of the os nasi, and nasal process of the superior maxillary bone.

COMPURETIO. (From compungo, to prick.) A puncture.

CONARIUM. (From xaros, a cone.) The pineal gland is so named, from its conical shape. See *Pineal gland*.

back of the nose, where it joins with its fellow, and is inserted into the narrow ex-

Concausa. (From con, with, and causa, a cause.) A cause which co-operates with another in the production of a disease.

CONCENTRANTIA. (From concentro, to concentrate.) Absorbents of acids are so called, because they remove the obstructions which keep asunder the affinities be-

tween the two powers.

CONCENTRATION. (From con, and centrum, having the same centre.) The volatilizing of part of the water of fluids in order to improve their strength. The matter to be concentrated, therefore, must be of superior gravity to water. This operation is performed on some acids, particularly the sulphuric and phosphoric. It is also employed in solutions of aikalis and neutral salts.

CONCEPTION. (Conceptio; from concipio, to conceive.) The impregnation of the ovulum in the female ovarium by the subtile prolific aura of the semen virile. In order to have a fruitful coltion, it is necessary that the semen be propelled into the uterus, or vagina, so that its fe-

cundating vapour shall be conveyed through the Fallopian tubes to the ovarium: it is also necessary that there be a certain state of the ovarium of the female in order to impregnate it; which is, that the ovum shall be mature, and embraced by the fimbrize of the Fallopian tube, to convey that vivifying principle to the ovum. See Generation.

CONCHA. (Concha, way xn, a liquid measure amongst the Athenians.) A term applied by anatomists to several parts of the body, as the hollow of the ear, the spongy bones of the nose, &c.

CONCILA AURICULE. See Auricula.

CONCHA AURIS. The hollow part of the

cartilage of the outer car.

CONCILE NARIUM. (Concha; a shell.) The turbinated portion of the ethnoid bone, and the inferior spongy bones of the nose, which are covered by the Schneiderian membrane, are so termed.

Concaus. (From κογχη, a shell; so named from their likeness to a shell.) The cra-

mum, and the cavity of the eye.

Concidentia. (From concide, to decay.) A decrease of bulk in the whole or any part of the body. A diminution of a tumour.

CONCOLGULATIO. (From con, and coagulo, to coagulate together.) The coagulation, or claystallization of different salts, first dissolved together in the same fluid.

Concocrio. From concoguo, to digest.) Digestion. That operation of nature upon morbid matter which renders it fit to be separated from the healthy fluids.

CONCHEMATIO. (From con, and cremo, to burn together.) The same as calcina-

CONCRETION. (From concresco, to grow together.)

1. The condensation of any fluid substance into a more solid consistence.

2. The growing together of parts which,

in a natural state, are separate.

Concursus. (From concurro, to meet together). The congenies or collection of

gether.) The congeries or collection of symptoms which constitute and distinguish

the particular disease.

CONCUSSION. From concutio, to shake together.) Concussion of the brain. Various alarming symptoms, followed sometimes by the most fatal consequences, are found to attend great violence offered to the head; and upon the strictest examination, both of the living and the dead, neither fissure, fracture, nor extravasation of any kind can be discovered. The same symptoms and the same events are met with, when the head has received no injury at all ab externo, but has only been violently shaken; nay, when only the body, or general frame, has seemed to have sustained the whole violence. The symptoms attending a concussion, are generally in proportion to the degree of violence which the brain itself has sustained, and which, indeed, is cognizable only by the symptoms. If the concussion be very great, all sense and power of motion are immediately aboushed, and death follows soon; but between this degree and that slight confusion (or stinning, as it is called,) which attends most violences done to the head, there are many stages. The following is Mr. Abernethy's description of the symptoms of concussion, and which, he is of opinion may be properly divided into three stages.

The first is, that state of insensibility derangement of the bodily powers which immediately succeeds the accident. While it lasts, the patient scarcely feels any injury that may be inflicted on him. His breathing is difficult, but in general without stertor; his pulse intermitting, and his extremities cold. But such a state cannot last long; it goes off gradually, and is succeeded by another, which is considered as the second stage of concussion. In this, the pulse and respiration become better, and though not regularly performed, are sufficient to maintain life, and to diffuse warmth over the extreme parts of the body. The feeling of the patient is now so far restored, that he is sensible of his skin being pinched; but he lies stupid and inattentive to slight external impressions. effects of concussion duminish, he becomes capable of replying to questions put to him in a loud tone of voice, especially when they refer to his chief suffering at the time, as pain in the head, &c.; otherwise he answers incoherently, and as if his intention was occupied by something else. As long as the stupor remains, the inflammation of the brain seems to be moderate; but as the former abates, the latter seldom fails to increase; and this constitutes the third stage, which is the most important of the series of effacts proceeding from a con-

These several stages vary considerably in their degree and duration; but more or less of each will be found to take place in every instance where, the brain has been violently shaken. Whether they bear any certain proportion to each other or not, is not known; indeed this will depend upon such a variety of circumstances in the constitution, the injury, and the aftertreatment, that it must be difficult to determine.

To distinguish between an extravasation and a commotion by the symptoms only, Mr. Pott says, is frequently a very difficult matter; sometimes an impossible one. The similarity of the effects in some cases, and the very small space of time which may intervene between the going off of the one and the accession of the other, render this a very nice exercise of the judgment. The first stunning, or deprivation of sense,

whether total or partial, may be from either, and no man can tell from which; but when these first symptoms have been removed, or have spontaneously disappeared, if such patient is again oppressed with drowsmess, or stupidity, or total or partial loss of sense, it then becomes probable that the first complaints were from commotion, and that the latter are from extravasation; and the greater the distance of time between the two, the greater is the probability not only that an extravasation is of the lampid kind, made gradatim, and within the lampin

Whoever seriously reflects on the nature of these two causes of evil within the cranium, and considers them as liable to frequent combination in the same subject, and at the same time considers that, in many instances, no degree of information can be obtained from the only person capable of giving it (the patient), will immediately be sens ble how very difficult a part a practioner has to act in many of these cases, and how very unjust it must be to call that ignorance which is only a just diffidence arising from the obscurity of the subject, and the impossibility of attaining materials to form a clear judgment.

CONDENSATION. (From condense, to make thick) A contraction of the pores of the skin, by means of astringent or cooling medicines. A thickening of any

Suid

CONDIMENTUM. (From condio, to preserve, or season.) A preserve, or sweet-meat.

CONDUCTIO. (From conduco, to draw along.) In Colius Aurelianus, it is a spasm, or convulsion, drawing the muscles out of

their proper positions.

CONDUCTOR. (From conduco, to lead, or guide.) A surged instrument, whose use is to direct the knift in certain operations. It is more commonly called a director.

conduct. (From 2016, an ancient cup, shaped like a joint.) A rounded eminence

of a bone in any of the joints.

CONDYLOMA. (From zerodulos, a tubercle, or knot.) Sarcoma. A soft, wartlike sxcre ence, that appears about the anus and pudendum of both sexes. There are several species of condylomata, which have received names from their appearances, as ficus, crysta, thymus, from their resemblance to a fig. &c.

CONGION In Hippocrates it imports the Cicuta. It is said to be thus named (from nama, to turn round,) because it produces: vertigo in those who take it in-

wardly

Conessi bark. See Conessi cortex.

CONESSI CORTEX. Codagopala. Cortex profluvii. The bark of the Nevium antidysentericum of Linnaus:—foliis oxa-

tis, acuminatis, petiolatis. It grows on the coast of Malabar. It is of a dark black colour externally, and generally covered with a white moss, or scurf. It is very little known in the shops; has an austere, hitter taste; and is recon.mended in diarrhœas, dysenteries, &c. as an adstringent.

CONFECTIO (From conficio, to make up.) A confection. In general it means any thing made up with sugar. This term, in the new London Pharmacopœia, includes those articles which were formerly called electuaries and conserves, between which there do not appear to be sufficient grounds

to make a distinction.

CONFECTIO AMYGDALE. Confection of Take of sweet almonds, an almond. ounce; Acacia gum powdered, a drachm; refined sugar, half an onnce. The almonds having been previously macerated in water, and their external coat removed, beat the whole together, until they are thoroughly incorporated. It has been objected to the almond mixture, which is an article of very general use, that it requires considerable time for its extemporaneous preparation, and that it spoils and cannot be kept when it is made. This will be obviated by the present form, which does keep for a sufficient length of time, and rubs down into the mixture immediately.

This prepara-CONFECTIO AROMATICA. tion was formerly called Confectio cardiaca. Confectio Raleighana. Take of cinnamon, bark, nutmegs, of each two ounces; cloves, an ounce; cardamom seeds, half an ounce; saffron dried, 2 ounces; prepared shells, 16 ounces; refined sugar powdered, two pounds; water, a pint. Reduce the dry substances, mixed together, to very fine powder; then add the water, and gradually mix the whole, until it is incorporated. This preparation is much simplified by the London college. It is an excellent medicine, possessing stimulant, antispasmodic, and adstringent virtues; and is exhibited with these views to children and adults, in a vast variety of diseases, mixed with other medicines. It may be given in doses of 10 grams to an ounce.

Confectio actiantil. Conserva corticis exterioris aurantii hispatensis. Conserva fluvedinis corticum auronitorum. Take of fresh external rind of oranges, separated by resping, a pound; refined sugar, three pounds. Brinse the rind with a wooden pestle, in a stone mortar; then, after adding the sugar, bruise it again, until the whole is thoroughly incorporated. This is well calculated to form the basis of a tonic and stomachic confection, and may be given alone in doses of from 2 to 5 drachms,

twice or three times a-day

Confectio candiaca. See Confectio are-

matica.

CONFECTIO CASSIE. Electuarium cas-Electuarium e cassia Confection of cassia. Take of fresh cassia pulp, half a pound; manna, two ounces; temarind pulp, an ounce; syrup of roses, half a pound. Bruise the manna; melt it in the syrup by a water-bath; then mix in the pulps, and evaporate down to a proper consistence. This is a very elegant, pleasant, and mild aperient for the feeble, and for children. Dose from 2 drachms to an

CONFECTIO OPII. Confectio opiata. Phi lonium Londinense Philonium Romanum. Confection of opium | Pake of hard opium powdered, six drachms; long pepper, an ounce; ginger-root, two ounces; c. rrawayseed, three ounces; syrup, a pint. together the opium and the syrup previously heated; then add the remaining articles reduced to powder, and mix. To the credit of modern pharmaey, this is the only one that remains of all those complicated and confused preparations called mithridate, theriaca, &c.; it more nearly approximates, in its composition, the philodered as an effectual substitute for them in practice. This very warm and stimulating confection is admirably calculated to relieve diarrhæa, spasms of the stomach and bowels, and is frequently ordered as a nervine, stimulant, and adstringent, in doses of from 10 grs. to half a drachin. About 36 grains contains one of opium.

CONFECTIO ROSA: CANINA. Conserva cynosbati, Conserva fructus cynosbati, Conserve of hips. Confection of dog-rose. Take of dog-rose pulp, a pound; refined sugar powdered, twenty ounces. Rub them together until they are thoroughly incorp rated. This preparation is cooling and adstringent; it is seldom given alone, but mostly joined to some other medicine, in the ferm of linetus, or electuary.

CONFECTIO ROSE GALLICE. Conserva ro-Conserva rosarum rubrarum. serve of red rose. Take of the petals of the red rose, before it is expanded, and without the claws, a pound; refined sugar, three pounds. Bruise the petals in a stone mortar; then, having added the sugar, beat them again toge her, until they are thoroughly incorporated. This is an excellent subastringent composition. Rubbed down with water, it forms an excellent drink, with some lemon juice, in hæmorrhagiac complaints; it may also be given with vitriolated zinc, in the form of an electuary.

Confectio Ruth. Electuarium e baccis lauri. Confection of rue. Take of rue leaves dried, carraway seeds, bay berries, of each an ounce and a half; sagapenuni, half an ounce; black pepper, two drachms; clarified honey, sixteen ounces. fine powder; then add the honey, and mix confederation.

the whole. Its use is confined to clys-

CONFECTIO SCAMMONEÆ. Electuarium scammonii Electuarium e scammonio. tuarium caryocostinum Confection of scammony. Take of scammony gum resin powdered, an ounce and a half; cloves bruised, ginger-root powdered, or escit 6 drachms; oil of carr way, half a dreenm; syrup of roses, as much as is sufficient. Rub the dry articles together, into very fine powder; next rub them again whilst the syrup , gradually added; then add he oil of carraway, and mix the whole well together. This is a strong stimulating cathartic, and calculated to remove worms from the prima via, with which view it is mostly exhibited. Dose from 355 to 3j.

Confectio senna. Electuarium seuna. Electuarium lenitivum. Confection of senna. Take of senna leaves, eight ounces; figs, a pound; tamarind pulp, pulp of prunes, cassia pulp, of each half a pound; coriander seeds, four ounces; liquorice root, three ounces; refined sugar, two pounds and a half. Powder the senna leaves with the coriander seeds, and separate, by sifting ten ounces of the nuxed powder. Boil the remainder with the figs and the liquorice-root, in four pints of water, until it be reduced to half; then press out and strain the inquor. Evaporate the liquor, until a pint and a half only remains of the whole; then add the sugar, to make syrup. Lastly, mix the pulps gradually with the syrup, and, having added the sifted powder, mix the whole together. This is a mild and elegant aperient, well adapted for pregnant women, and those whose bowels are easily moved Dose, 3ss to 3ss.

CONFERVA. (From confervee, to knit together.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Cryptogamia. Order, Alga.

2. A kind of moss: named from its use

formerly in healing broken bones.

CONFERVA HELMINTHOCORTOS. rallina corsicana.

CONFERVA RIVALIS. This plant, Conferva rivalis of Linnaus:-filimentis simplicissimis aqualibus longissimis, has been recommended in cases of spasmodic asthma, phthisis, &c. on account of the great quantity of vital air it contains.

CONFIRMANTIA (From con, and firmo, to strengthen.) Restoratives; also medicines which fasten the teeth in their sockets.

Confluent small pox. See Variola.
Confluence of the small pox. It is much used by Hippocrates, and his interpreter Galen, in the same sense as we use consent and transpirable, from a notion that parts at a distance have mutual consent with one another, and that they are all perspirable by many subtle streams. Paracelsus, accord-Rub the dry articles together, into a very ing to his way, expressed the former by

CONFORMATION. (From conformo, to shape or fashion.) The natural shape and form of any thing, also a description of some diseases which arise from a bad formation of the parts.

CONFORTANTIA. (From conforto, to strengthen.) Cordial medicines. Strength-

eners.

CONFORTATIVA. The same.

Confusio. (From confundo, to mix together.) A confusion, or disorder in the eyes, proceeding from a rupture of the membranes, which include the humours, by which means they are all confounded together.

CONGELATI. (From congelo, to freeze.) Congelatici. Persons afflicted with a catalepsy are so called, by which all sensation

seems to be taken away.

CONGELATION. (From congelo, to freeze.) That change of liquid bodies which takes place when they pass to a solid state, by losing the caloric which kept them in a state of fluidity.

Congellativa. (From congelo, to congeal.) Medicines that inspissate humours,

and stop fluxions and rheums.

CONGENER. (From con, and genus, of the same kind.) Of the same kind; concurring in the same action. It is usually said of the muscles.

CONGESTION. (From congero, to amass.) A collection of blood or fluid; a swelling which rises gradually, and ripens slowly, in opposition to that which is soon

formed, and soon terminated.

CONGLOBATE GLAND. (From conglobo, to gather into a ball.) Glandula conglobata. Lymphatic gland. Globate gland. A round gland formed of a contortion of lymphatic vessels, connected together by cellular structure, having neither a cavity nor any excretory duct: such are the mesenteric, inguinal, axillary glands, &c. See Glands.

CONGLOMERATE GLAND. (From conglomero, to heap upon one.) Glandula conglomerata. A gland composed of a number of glomerate glands, whose excretory ducts all unite into one common duct: such are the salival, parotid glands, &c.

CONGLUTINANTIA. (From conglutino, to glue together.) Healing medicines; and such as unite parts disjointed

by accident.

Coxis. (Kovis.) Dust, fine powder, ashes, a nit in the hair, scurf from the head;

and sometimes it signifies lime.

CONIUM. (From xova, dust, according to Linnaus, or from xovax, circumago, on account of its inchriating and poisonous quality.) Hemlock.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Lynnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the officinal hemlock. See Cicuta.

CONTUM MACULATUM. The systematic name for the cicuta of the pharmacopoias. See Cicuta.

CONJUNCTIVE MEMBRANE. Membrana conjunctiva. The thin, transparent, delicate membrane, that lines the interested from thence, over the anterior part of the bulb, to the edge of the other eyelid. That portion which covers the transparent cornea cannot, without much difficulty, be separated from it. Inflammation of this membrane is called oph-

CONNATUS. (From con, and nascor, to grow together.) Used much by Hippocrates for what is born with a person; the same with congenite.

CONNEXION. See Articulation.

CONNUTRITUS. (From con, and nutrior, to be nonrished with.) It is what becomes habitnal to a person from his particular nourishment, or what breaks out into a disease in process of time, which gradually had its foundation in the first aliments, as from sucking a distempered nurse, or the like.

Conquassation. In pharmacy it is a species of comminution, or an operation by which moist concrete substances, as recent vegetables, fruits, the softer parts of animals, &c. are agitated and bruised, till, partly by their proper succulence, or by an effusion of some liquor, they are reduced to a soft pulp.

Consent of parts. See Sympathy.

CONSERVA. (From conserve, to keep.) A conserve. A composition of some recent vegetable and sugar, beat together into an uniform mass of the consistence of honey; as conserve of hips, orange peel, &c. Conserves are called confections in the last edition of the London Pharmacopona. See Confectio.

Conserva absintilli Maritimi. Sec

Absinthum maritimum.

Conserva and. This is occasionally exhibited as a stimulant and diuretic. See Arum.

Conserva auranam hispalensis. See Confectio aurantii,

Conserva cynoseati. See Confectio rose caninæ.

CONSERVA LUJULE. A preparation of wood-sorrel, possessing acid, cooling, and antiseptic qualities. See Acetocella.

Conserva Mentile. This preparation of mint is given occasionally as a stomachic, in sickness and weakness of the stomach. See Mentha viridis.

Conserva prunt sylvestms. Astringent virtues are ascribed to this medicine, which is now seldom used but in private formulæ.

Conserva Rose. This conserve, rubbed down with water, to which is added

some lemon-juice, forms an excellent drink in hamorrhagic complaints. See Confectio

rosa galica.

CONSERVA SCILLE. A preparation of squill, which affords an excellent basis for an electuary, possessing expectorant and

CONSISTENTIA. (From consisto, to abide.) The state or aeme of a disease. The appearance or state of the humours and ex-

crements.

Consolida. (So called, quia consolidandi et conglutinandi vi pollet ; named from its power and use in agglutinating and joining together things broken.) Comfrey.

CONSOLIDA AUREA. Aurea cordis.

name of the chamacistus.

Consolida Majon. See Symphitum. Consolida Media. Bugula. Upright bugloss. Middle consound. This plant, Ajuga pyramidalis of Linnaus :-tetragonoporamidalis, villosa, foliis radicalibus maximis, possesses subadstringent and bitter qualities : and has been recommended in phthisis, aptha, and cynanche.

CONSOLIDA MINOR. See Prunella.

CONSOLIDA REGALIS. Calcatrippa. ny virtues are attributed to this plant, Delphinium consolida, of linnans:-nectariis monophyllis, caule subdiviso. The flowers are bitter, and a water distilled from them is recommended in ophthalmia. The herb has been administered in calculous cases, obstructed menses, and visceral diseases.

SARACENICA. Sec Virga CONSOLIDA

aurea

Consound. See Symphitum.

Consound middle. See Consolida media. CONSTIPATION. (From constipo, to crowd together.) Obstipatio. A person is said to be costive when the alvine excrements are not expelled daily, and when the faces are so hardened as not to receive their form from the impression of the rectum upon them.

CONSTRICTIVA. (From constringo, to

bind together.) Styptics.
CONSTRICTOR. (From constringe, to bind together.) A name given to those muscles which contract any opening of the body.

CONSTRICTOR ALE NASI. Scc Depres-

sor labii superioris alæque nasi.

CONSTRICTOR ANT. See Sphincter ani. CONSTRICTOR ISTHMI FAUCIUM. Glosso-staphilinus of Winslow, Douglas, and Cowper; and Glosso staphilin of Dumas. A muscle situated at the side of the entry of the fauces, that draws the velum pendalum palati towards the root of the tongue, which it raises at the same time, and with its fellow contracts the passage between the two arches, by which it shuts the opening of the fauces.

CONTRICTOR LAMIORUM. See Orbicularis

CONSTILICTOR MUSCULUS. See Buccina-

See **Orbicularis** CONSTRICTOR ORIS. oris.

CONSTRICTOR PALPEBRARUM.

bicularis palpebrarum.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS INFE-Crico pharyngeus. Thyro pharyngeus of Douglass and Winslow. Cricothyropharyngien of Dumas. A muscle si. tuated on the posterior part of the pharynx, It arises from the side of the thyriod car. tilage, near the attachment of the sternothage, hear the articles; and thyro-hyoidaus muscles; and from the cricoid cartilage, near the crico-thyroidaus; it is inserted into the white line, where it joins with its fellow, the superior fibres running obliquely upwards, covering nearly one-half of the middle constrictor, and terminating in a point: the inferior fibres run more transversely, and cover the beginning of the œsophagus. Its use is to compress that part of the pharynx which it covers, and to raise it with the larynx a little upwards.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS DIUS. Hyo-pharyngeus and cephalo-pharyngeus of Douglas and Winslow. Chondro-pharyngeus of Douglas. Syndesmo-pharyngeus of Winslow. Cephalo-pharyng.eus of Winslow and Douglas. Hyo-glosso basi pharyngien of Dumas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises from the appendix of the os hyoides, from the corner of that bonc, and from the ligament which connects it to the thyroid cartilage; the fibres of the superior part, running obliquely upwards, and covering a considerable part of the supegior constrictor, terminate in a point; and is inserted into the middle of the cuneiform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, and joined to its fellow at a white line in the middle part of the pharynx. This muscle compresses that part of the pharynx which it covers, and draws

it and the os hyoides upwards.

CONSTRICTOR PHARYNGIS SUPE-RIOR. Glosso-pharyngeus. Mylo-pharyn-geus. Pterygo pharyngeus of Douglas and Winslow, and Pterigo syndesmo staphili pharyngien of Dumas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises above, from the cunciform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, from the pterygoid process of the sphenoid bone, from the upper and under jaw, near the roots of the last dentes molares, and between the jaws. It is inserted in the middle of the pharynx. Its use is to compress the upper part of the pharvnx, and to draw it forwards and upwards.

CONSTRUCTOR VESICÆ URINARIÆ. Detrusor urine.

CONSTRICTORES PHARYNGEI. of the asophagus.

CONSTRICTORII. Diseases attended with constriction, or spasmodic diseases.

CONSTRINGENTIA. (From constringo, to bind together.) Astringent medicines.

CONSUMPTION. (From consumo, to waste away.) See Phthisis.

CONTABESCENTIA. (From contabesco, to pine or waste away.) An atrophy, or ner-

vous consumption

CONTAGION. (From contingo, to meet or touch each other.) Effluvia. Miasma. Virus. Lues. Infection. The very subtile particles arising from putrid or other substances, or from persons labouring under contagions diseases, which communicate the disease to others; thus the contagion of putrid fever, the effluvia of dead anmal or vegetable substances, the miasma of bogs and fens, the virus of small-pox, lues venerea, &c. &c. There does not appear to be any distinction between contagious and infections diseases. Would it not be proper to apply the term contagious to those which are communicated by contact only, as the venereal disease, itch, &c.; and infections, to those which are caught through the medium of the aumosphere, &c. without contact, as putrid fever, &c.

Contensio. (From cotineo, to restrain.) It is sometimes used to express a tension

or stricture.

CONTINENS FEBRIS. A continual or continent fever, which proceeds regularly in the same tenor, without either intermission or remission. This rarely if ever

happens.

CONTINUA FEBRIS. (From continuo, to persevere.) A continued fever, attended with exacerbations and slight remissions, but no intermission; sometimes called assidua.

Contensio., (From conterquee, to twist about.) A contersion, or twisting. In medicine this word has various significations, and is applied to Hiac passion, to luxation of the vertebra, head, and back, &c.

CONTRA-APERTURA. (From contra, against, and aperio, to open. A counter-opening. An opening made opposite to the one that

already exists.

CONTRACTILITY. Expansive elasticity A property in bodies, the effect of the cohesive power, by which their particles resume their former propinquity when the force ceases which was applied to separate them.

CONTRACTION. (From contrado, to draw together.) Contractura. Beriberia. A rigid contraction of the joints. It is a genus of disease in the class locales, and order dyscinesiæ of Cullen. The species

1. Contractura primaria, from a rigid contraction of the muscles, called also obstipitas; a word that, with any other

annexed, distinguishes the variety of the contraction. Or this species he forms four varieties. I. Contractura ab inflammatione, when it arises from inflammation. 2. Contractura à spasmo, called also tonic spasm and cranip, when it depends upon spasm. 3. Contractura ob antagonistas paraliticos, from the antagonist muscies losing their action. 4. Contractura ab acrimonia irritante, which is induced by some irritating cause.

2. Contractura articularis, originating

from a disease of the joint.

CONTRAFISSURA. (From contra, against, and findo, to cleave.) A crack in the skull, opposite to the part on which the blow was given

CONTRAHENSIA. (From contraho, to contract.) Medicines which shorten and strengthen the fibres. Astringents are the

only medicines of this nature.

CONTRA-INDICATION. (Contraindicatio; from contra, against, and indico, to shew.) A symptom attending a disease, which forbids the exhibition of a remedy which would otherwise be employed; for instance, bark and acids are usually given in putrid (evers; but if there be difficulty of breathing, or inflammation of the side, or of any viscus, they are contra-indications to their use.

CONTRA-LUNARIS. (From contra, and luna, the moon.) An epithet given by Dietericus to a woman who conceives during the menstrual discharge.

CONTRA-SEMEN. See Santonicum.

CONTRE COU. A species of fracture of the skull, called in Latin contra-fissura, in which the fracture happens in that part of the bone opposite to where the blow was received.

CONTRAYERVE RADIX. See Contra-

yerva.

CONTRAYERVA. (From contra, against, and yerva, a herb Span. i. e. a herb good against poison.) Drakena. Cyperus longus, odorus, peruanus. Bezoardica rudix. Dorstenia contrayerva of Linuxus.

The contrayerva was first brought into Europe about the year 1581, by Sir Francis Drake, whence its name Drakena. It is the root of a small plant found in Peru, and other parts of the Spanish West-Indies. Dr. Houlston observes, that the roots of different species of dorstenia are promiscuously gathered and exported for those of the contraverva, and, as all the species bear a great resemblance to each other they are generally used for medical purposes in this country. The tuberous parts of these roots are the strongest, and should be chosen for use. They have an agreeable aromatic smell; a rough, bitter, penetrating taste; and when chewed, they give out a sweetish kind of acrimony.

It is diaphoretic and antiseptic; for-

merly used in low nervous fevers, and those of the malignant kind; though taken freely, it does not produce much heat. It is, however, now seldom used, though, with the Peruvian bark in decoction, it is occasionally employed in ulcerated s re throats,

as a gargle.

Dr. Cullen observes, that this and serpentaria are powerful stimulants; and both have been employed in fevers in which de-bility prevailed. However, he thinks, wine may always supersede the stimulant powers of these medicines; and that debility is better remedied by the tonic and antiseptie powers of cold and Peruvian bark, than by any stimulants.

By the assistance of heat, both spirit and water extract all its virtues; but they carry little or nothing in distillation; extracts made by inspissating the decoction,

retain all the virtues of the root.

The London College forms the compound powder of contrayerva by combining five ounces of contrayerva root with a pound and a half of prepared shells. This powder was formerly made up in balls, and called lapis contrayervæ, employed in the decline of ardent fevers, and through the whole course of low and nervous ones. The radix serpentariæ virginiensis, in all cases, may be substituted for the contrayerva.

CONTRAVERVA ALBA. Contrayerva Ger-

manorum. A name for asclepias.

CONTRAVERVA . NOVA. Mexican contrayerva. This is the root of the Psoralea pentaphylla of Linnaus. It was introduced into Europe after the former, and is brought from Guiana as well as from Mexico. It is but little if any thing inferior to contrayerva.

CONTRAYERVA VIRGINIANA. See Ser-

pentaria.

CONTRITIO. The same as comminu-

(From CONTUSION. contundo, to knock together.) A bruise, or contused

CONVALESCENCE. That space from the departure of a disease, to the recovery

of the strength lost by it.

CONVALLARIA. (From convallis, a valley; named from its abounding in valleys and marshes.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Hexandria. Order, Monogynia.

The systema-CONVALLARIA MAJALIS. tic name of the lily of the valley. See

Islium convallium.

CONVALLABIA POLYGONATUM. The systematic name of Solomon's seal. See Sigil-

The su-CONVOLUTA SUPERIORA OSSA. perior turbinated bones of the nose.

Convoluta inferiora ossa. The lower tur vinated bones of the nose.

CONVOLVULUS. (From convolve, to roll together; so named from its spiral shape, and its twisting round other trees and shribs )

1. A name for the Iliaca passion.

The name of a genus of plants in the Lin æin system. Class, Pentandria Order, Monogynia, which afferds the Jalapa, meelioaeana, turbith, and scammony. whole genus usually abounds with plants containing a milky juice strongly cathartic and eaustie.

Convolvulus Americanus, The jalap

root.

CONVOLVULUS CANTABRICA. A name for the cantabrica.

Convolvulus colubrinus. The pariera brava.

CONVOLVULUS JALAPA. The systematic name of the jalap plant. See Jula-

CONVOLVULUS MAJOR ALBUS. juice of this plant, Convolvulus sepium of Linnaus :- foliis sagittatis postice truncatis pedunculis tetragonis, unifloris, is violently purgative, and given in dropsical affections. A poultice of the herb, made with oil, is recommended in white swellings of the knee-joint.

CONVOLVULUS MARITIMUS. The brassi-

ca maritima, or sea colewort.

CONVOLVULUS MECHOACAN. See Mechoacanne radix.

CONVOLVULUS SCAMMONIA. The systematic name of the seammony plant. See Scammonium.

Convolvulus serium. See Convolvulus major albus.

CONVOLVUICS SOLDANELLA. The systematic name of the sea convolvulus. Brassica marina.

Convolvulus Syntaeus. A name for the seammonium.

CONVOLVULUS TURPETHUM. The systematic name of the turbith plant.

Turpethum.

CONVULSION. (Convulsio; from convello, to pull together.) Hieranosos. Distentio nervorum. Clonic spasm. A diseased action of muscular fibres, known by alternate relaxations, with violent and involuntary contractions of the muscular parts, without sleep. Cullen arranges convalsion in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. Convulsions are universal or partial, and have obtained different names, according to the parts affected, or symptoms; as the risus sardoricus, when the inuseles of the face are affected; S. Vit is's dance, when the muscles of the arm are thrown into involuntary motions with lameness and rotations. The hysterical epilepsy, or other epilepsies, arising from different cause, are convulsive diseases of the universal kind: the muscles of the globe of the eye, throwing the eye into involuntary distortion once to the direction of the y ces of partial convulsion. principally

affected in all species of convulsions, are those immediately under the direction of the will; as those of the cyclids, eye, face, jaws, neck, superior and inferior extremities. The muscles of respiration, acting both voluntarily and involuntarily, are not unfrequently convulsed; as the diapliragm, intercostals, &c. The more immediate causes of convulsions are, 1. Either mental affection, or any irritating cause exciting a greater action in the arterial system of the brain and nerves. An increase of nervous energy, which seems to hold pace or be equi-potent with the increased arterial energy, excited in the brain. 3. This increased energy, conveying its augmented effects, without the direction of the will, to any muscles destined to voluntary mot on, over-irritates them. 4. The muscles, irritated by the increased nervous energy and arterial influx, con-tract more forcibly and involuntarily by their excited vis insita, conjointly with other causes, as long as the increased nervous energy continues. 5. This increased energy in the nervous system may be excited either by the mind, or by any acrimony in the blood, or other stimuli sufficiently irritating to increase the arterial action, nervous influence, and the vires insitæ of muscles. 6. After muscles have been once accustomed to act involuntarily, and with increased action, the same causes can readily produce the same effects on those organs. 7. All parts that have muscular fibres may be convulsed, sensations in the mind most capable of producing convulsions, are timidity, horror, anger, great sensibility of the soul, &c.

CONVULSIO ABDOMINIS. Convulsion of

the museles of the belly.

CONVULSIO CANINA. A wry mouth.
CONVULSIO CEREALIS. Cereal convulsion, is a singular disorder of the spasmodic convulsive kind, not common to this country, but mentioned by Cathenser under this title, from the peculiar tingling and for-mication perceived in the arms and legs. Motus spasmodicus of Hoffman. It is endemial in some places in Germany, but more a rural than urbanical disorder, said to arise from the use of spoiled corn.

Convulsio clonica. Convulsion with al-

ternate relaxation.

CONVULSIO GRAVIDARUM. Convulsion of pregnant women.

CONVULSIO HABITUALIS.

St. Viti. CONVULSIO HEMITOTONOS. Convulsion approaching to tetanus.

The chorea

CONVULSIO AB INANITIONE. Convulsion

from inanition.

Convulsio indica. Tetanus.

Convulsion CONVULSIO INTERMITTENS. occurring ' TOYUSIAS.

CON E Convulsion from stor

Convulsion CONVULSIO AR ONANISMO from self pollution.

Spasmodic pain-CONVULSIO RAPHANIA. ful disease of the joints.

CONVULSIO TONICA. Common or perma-

nent convulsion.

CONVULSIO UTERI. Abortion.

CONYZA. (From nows, dust; because its powder is sprinkled to kill fleas in places where they are troublesome.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua.

CONYZA ETHIOPICA. A name for the

elichrysum.

CONYZA COERULEA. The herb flea-bane. This acrid plant is exhibited on the continent in some diseases of the chest.

Conyza major. Conyza major vulga-Mas theophrasti. Conyza major of

Dioscorides. Greater flea-bane.

CONEZA MEDIA Arnica Suedensis. Inula dysenterica of Limwus :- foliis amplexicaulibus, cordato-oblongis; caule villoso, paniculato, squamis calycinis, setaceis. An acrid, subaromatic plant, possessing antidysenteric virtues. It is sometimes called arnica spuria.

CONYZA MINOR. Conyza minor flore globoso. Pulicaria. Conyza minima et media. Small flea-bane. The inula dysenterica. The cluef use of all the flea-banes is to destroy fleas and gnats, by burning. They are occasionally used as an antipsoric re-

medy.

COOPERTORIA. (From co operio, to co-Cartilago thyroidea. Called ver over.) also abicum.

COOSTRUM. The centre of the diaphragm.

COPAIBA. See Balsamum copaibæ. COPAIFERA. (From Copaira, the In-

dian name, and fero, to bear.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Digynia.

The syste-COPALFERA OFFICINALIS. matic name of the plant from which the Copaiva balsam is obtained.

тит Сораіvæ.

COPAL. (The American name of all clear odoriferous gums.) Gum copal. This resinous substance is imported from Guinea, where it is found in the sand on the shore. It is of a yellow colour, faintly glistening, imperfectly transparent, and apt to break with a conchoidal fracture. It is tasteless, and, while cold, inodorous. It is used, dissolved in rectified spirit of wine, in laxities of the gums, with the same views as mastich.

Copaiva balsam. See Balsamum Copaiva.

COPELLA. See Cupella.
COPHER. A name for camphor.
COPHOS. (Κωφος, dumb.) Deaf or dumb. Also a dulness in any of the senses.

COPHOSIS. (From xapes. deaf.) difficulty of hearing. It is often symptomatic of some disease. See Dysecoea.

(Quasi as Cyprium; so named from the island of Cyprus, whence it was formerly brought.) A metal found in the earth, in various states. It is found native, (native copper,) possessing the red colour, malleability, and many of its other properties; it is, however, not quite pine, but generally mixed with a minute portion of gold, or silver.

This ore is found of an indeterminate figure, in solid and compact masses; sometimes in plates and threads, which assume a variety of forms. It crystallizes in cubes. It then is flexible. It has much metallic lustre. It is found in many parts of Eu-

rope.

Copper ores are very numerous. Copper combined with oxygen, forms oxyd of copper, or the earthy copper ore, (mountain blue.) United to carbonic acid, it constitutes the hepatic copper ores, (mountain green.) &c. The compact ore of this kind is termed malachite. It generally exhibits a very fine grass-green, emerald green, or apple-green colour. It is found in solid masses of an indeterminate shape. It has often a beautiful sattin-like appearance, or silky lustre.

Copper also exists mineralized by the muriatic acid, sulphuric acid, arsenic acid, &c. Copper mineralized with sulphur is called vitreous copper ore. Its colour is generally lead-gray. Combined with sulphur and iron, it forms the azure copper ore, and all the varieties of copper pyrites. Mmeralized with sulphur, arsenic, iron, and zinc, it constitutes the brown or blendose copper ores, of which there are many varieties. Copper mines are abundant in Britain,

Germany, &c.

Properties of Copper - Pure copper is of a rose-red colour, very sonorous, very tenacious, ductile, and malleable; of a considerable compactness; moderately hard and elastic. Its texture is granulated, and subject to blisters. It crystallizes in quadrilateral pyramids. Its specific gravity is between 7,788 and 8.584. When rubbed, it emits a disagreeable odour. It melts at 27° of Wedgwood's pyrometer. At a higher temperature, it burns with a beautiful green flame. It is a good conductor of caloric, of electricity, and of galvanism. Exposed to the air it becomes brown, and at last green, by absorbing carbonic acid. When heated, it turns blue, vellow, violet, and brown. It readily fises with phosphorus and unites to sulphur, when finely divided by mere trituration. It does not decompose water at the temperature of ig-nition. It is acted on by the greater num-ber of the acids. Nitric acid acts on cop-per with great vehemence. Sulphuret of potash combines with it in the dry and in the humid way. It is capable of alloying with the greater number of the metals, With zinc it forms the compound metals

called brass, pinchbeck, and others: with tin it forms bell-nietal and bronze. unites to the earths merely in vitrification. Liquid ammonia causes it to oxydate quickly when air is admitted. It decomposes muriate of ammonia, and red sulphurated oxyd of mercury, by heat. It is poisonous to the human constitution.

COP

Method of obtaining Copper.-Copper is procured from its ores, by different processes according to the nature of those ores. If they contain much sulphur, after being pounded and washed, they are roasted in the open air to dispel the sulphur. The ore is afterwards roasted once or twice more, and is melted in an open fire into a mass, called a mat of copper. In this state it still contains a large quantity of sulphur, which the workmen continue to expel by repeated roastings and fusion, till the metal acquires a certain degree of purity, and is called black copper, which is somewhat malleable, but still contains sulphur, iron, and in general some other impurities. order to get entirely rid of these, the copper is hastily fused with three times its weight of lead. The lead unites with the copper, and expels the iron; and the rest of the metals which happen to be mixed with the copper are thus expelled. The copper is afterwards refined, by keeping it heated in crucibles for a considerable time, so that it may throw up all the foreign substances it still contains in the form of scoriæ. It is examined from time to time by immersing iron rods into it, which become coloured with a small quantity of copper, and its purity is judged of by the brilliant redness of these specimens.

COPPERAS. A name given to blue, green, and white vitriol.

(From xorgoe, dung, and COPRAGOGA. aya, to bring away.) Copragogum. The name of a gently purging electuary, mentioned by Rulandus.

(From xorgos, excre-COPHIEMESIS, ment, and emea, to vomit.) A vomiting of

COPROCRITICA. (From nongos, excrement, and xgra, to separate.) Mild cathartic medicines.

(From xomeos, excre-COPROPHORIA. ment, and pogen, to bring away.) A purg-

Cornos, (Kongos.) The faces, or excrements.

COPROSTASIA. (From xorgos, faces, and isnui, to remain.) Costiveness, or a con-

striction of the belly.

COPTABIOM. (Korfin, a small cake.) Coptarium. A medicine in the shape of a very small cake, directed for disorders of the aspera arteria and lungs, and for many other intentions, by the arcients.

Corre. (Konin, a small cake.) It was the form of a medicine used by the ancients; also a cataplasm generally made of vegetable substances, and applied externally to the stomach, and internally on many occasions.

Copula. (Quasi compula; from compello, to restrain.) A name for a ligament.

COQUENTIA. (From coquo, to digest,) Medicines which promote concoction.

1. The heart. See Heart.

2. Gold.

3. An intense fire.

CORACINE. (From nogat, a crow; so named from its black colour.) A name for a lozenge, quoted by Galen from Asclepi-

CORACO-BRACHIALIS. (From nogaž, a crow, and Beaxtor, the arm.) Coraco-humeral of Dumas. Coraco-brachiaus. muscle, so called from its origin and insertion. It is situated on the humerus, before the scapula. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the fore-part of the coracoid process of the scapula, adhering, in its descent, to the short head of the biceps; inserted, tendinous and fleshy, about the middle of the internal part of the os humori, near the origin of the third head of the triceps, called brachialis externus, where it sends down a thin, tendinous expansion to the internal condyle of the os humeri. Its use is to raise the arm upwards and forwards.

CORACO-HYOIDEUS. (Coraco-hyoideus, sc. musculus, nogano voidaios: from nogaž, a crow, and vossoes, the bone called hyoides.)

See Omo-hyoideus.

CORACOID. (Corocoidens; from nogaž, a crow, and eidos, resemblance; besause it is shaped like the beak of a crow ) A name given to a process on the upper and anterior part of the scapula.

Coral, See Corallium.

CORALLINA. (Dim. of corallium; from nogn, a daughter, and ans, the sea; because it is generated in the sea.) Muscus maritimus. Corallina officinalis. Corallina alba. Sea coralline, and white wormseed. marine production, resembling a small plant without leaves, consisting of numerous brittle cretaceous substances. friable betwixt the fingers, and crackling between the teeth. Powdered, it is administered to children as an anth. Iminuic.

Helminthocor-CORALLINA CORSICANA. Conferva helmintho cortos. Corallena rubra. Corallina melito-corton. Lemi-Corsican worm weed. tho-corton. helmintho-corton of De La Tourette. plant has gained great repute in destroying all species of intestinal worms. Its virtues are extolled by many; but impartial experimentalists have frequently been disappointed of its efficacy. The Geneva Pharmacopæia directs a syrup to be made

CORALLINA MELITO-CORTON. lina corsicana.

CORALLINA RUBBA. See Corollina corsicana.

Coralline. Sec Corallina. Corulline, Corsican. See Corallina Corst-

cana.

CORALLIUM ALBUM. A hard, white, calcareous, brittle substance; the nidus of Class, Fermes. the Madrepora oculata. Order, Lithophyta It is sometimes exhibited as an absorbent earth.

CORALLIUM RUBRUM. (From xcpn, a daugnter, and axe, the sea; so named because it is generated in the sea.) Acmo. Azur. The red coral is mostly employed medicinally. It is a hard, brittle, calcareous substance, resembling the stalk of a plant, and is the habitation of the Isis nobilis. Class, Vermes. Order, Zoophitæ. When powdered, it is exhibited as an absorbent earth to children; but does not appear to claim any preference to common chalk.

CORALLODENDRON. (From ROGARAGO, CO. ral, and Serdeor, a tree; resembling in hardness and colour a piece of coral.) ral-tree of America; antivenereal.

CORALLOIDES SEPTFOIL. Tooth or coral-

wort: corroborant,

CORALLOIDES FUNGUS. (From Rogannion, coral, and afor, likeness.) Erotylus. Clavaria coralloides of Linnæus. It is said to be corroborant and astringent.

Conchonon. (From 20gn, the pupil of the eye, and 20gea, to purge; so called because it was thought to purge away rheum from the eyes.) The herb pimpernel, or chickweed.

Corda. See Chordee.

CORDA TYMPANI. The portio dura of the seventh pair of nerves, having entered the tympanum, sends a small branch to the stapes, and another more considerable one, which runs across the tympanum from behind forwards, passes between the long leg of the incus and the handle of the malleus, then goes out at the same place where the tendon of the anterior muscle of the malleus enters. It is called corda tympani, besause it crosses the tympanum as a cord crosses the bottom of a drum. Dr. Monro thinks that the corda tympani is formed by the second branch of the fifth pair, as well as by the portio dura of the seventh.

CORDÆ WILLISH. See Dura mater. CORDIALS. Medicines are generally so termed, which possess warm and stimulating properties, and that are given to raise

CORDIA MYXA. Schastina. The systematic name of the Sebesten plant. See Se-

CORDINEMA. (From naga, the head, and diview, to move about.) A head-ach, attended with a vertigo.

Corpolium. (From cor, the heart, and dolor, pain.) A name formerly applied to

cardialgia, or heart-burn.

Cone. (Kogn.) The pupil of the eye. (From nogen, to cleanse.) COREMATA. Medicines for cleansing the skin,

Coriander. See Coriandrum.

CORIANDRUM. (From 2021, a pupil, and 2012, a man; because of its roundness, like the pupil of a man's eye; or probably so called from 2021, cumex, a bug, because the green herb, seed and all, stinks intolerably of bugs.) Coriander.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digunia.

2 The pharmacopæial name of the officinal coriander. Gassibor. Corianon. The Coriandrum sativum of Lannaus :- fructibus This plant is a native of the South of Europe, where, in some places, it is said to grow in such abundance as frequently to choke the growth of wheat and other grain. From being cultivated here as a medicinal plant, it has for some time become naturalized to this country, where it is usually found in corn-fields, the sides of roads, and about dunghills. Every part of the plant, when fresh, has a very offensive odour, but, upon being dried, the seeds have a tolerable grateful smell, and their taste is moderately warm and slightly pungent. They give out their virtue to-tally to rectified spirit, but only partially to water. In distillation with water, they yield a small quantity of a yellowish essential oil, which smells strongly and pretty agreeably of the coriander.

Dioscorides asserts, that the seeds, when taken in a considerable quantity, produce deleterious effects; and, in some parts of Spain and Egypt, where the fresh herb is eaten as a cordial, instances of faturty, lethargy, &c. are observed to occur very frequently; but these qualities seem to have been unjustly ascribed to the coriander; and Dr. Withcring informs us, that he has known six drachms of the seeds taken at once, without any remarkable effect. These seeds, and indeed most of those of the umbelliferous plants, possess a stomachic and carminative power. They are directed in the infusum amarum, the infusum scnux tartarizatum, and some other compositions of the pharmacopæias; and, according to Dr. Cullen, the principal use of these seeds is, "that infused along with senna, they more powerfully correct the odour and taste of this than any other aromatic that I have employed, and are, I believe, equally powerful in obviating the griping that senna is very ready to pro-

duce."

Corian putty sativum. The systematic name of the plant called coriandrum in the pharmacopæiss. See Coruandrum.

Coulanon. See Coriandrum.

Coms. (From xago, to cleave, or cut; so called because it was said to heal wounds.) The herb hypericum.

Conis LUTEA. Coris legitima cretica. The hypericum saxatile, or bastard St. John's wort.

Coris Monspellensis. This plant is intensely bitter and nauseous, but apparently an active medicine, and employed, it is said, with success in syphilis.

CORK. The bark of the Quercus ruber of Limans, formerly employed as an astringent, but now disused. It affords an

acid.

CORN. Clavus. A hardened portion of cuticle, produced by pressure: so called because a piece can be picked out like a corn o' barley. Corns are sometimes connected with the periosteum.

Cornactini pulvis. Scammony, anti-

mony, and cream of tartar.

CORNEA OPACA. The sclerotic membrane of the eye is so called, because it is of a horny consistence and opake. See Sclerotic membrane.

CORNEA TRANSPARENS. Sclerotica ceratoides. The transparent portion of the sclerotic membrane, through which the rays of light pass, is so called, to distinguish it from that which is opake. See Sclerotic membrane.

CORNESTA. A chemical retort.

Cornflower. See Cyanus.

CORNICULA. (From cornu, a horn.) A cupping instrument, made of horn.

Connicularis. (From cornu, a horn.) Shaped like a horn; the coracoid process.

CORN-SALLAR. This is the Valeriana locusta of Linnaus. It is cultivated in our gardens, and eaten amongst the early sallads. It is a very wholesome succulent plant, possessing anti-scorbutic and gently aperient virtues.

CORNU AMMONIS. Cornu, arietis. When the pes hippocampi of the human brain is cut transversely through, the cortical substance is so disposed as to resemble a ram's horn. This is the true cornu ammonis, though the name is often applied to the pes hippocampi.

CORNU ARIETIS. See Cornu ammo-

CORNU. Cornu cervi. Hartshorn. The horns of several species of stag, as the cervus alces, cervus dama, cervus elaphus, and cervus turanda, are used medicinally. Boiled, they impart to the water a nutritious jelly, which is frequently served at table. Hartshorn jelly is made thus:—Boil half a pound of the shavings of hart's-horn, in six punts of water, to a quart; to the strained liquor add one ounce of the juice of lenon, or of Seville orange, four ounces of mountain winc, and half a pound of sugar; then boil the whole to a proper consistence. The chief use of the horns is for calcination, and to afford the liquor volatilis cornu

CORNU CERVI CALCINATUM. See Cornu

cervi and carbenate of ammonia.

CORNU USTUM. Burnt hartshorn shavings possess absorbent, antacid, and adstringent properties, and are given in form of decoc-

tion, as a common drink in diarrheas, py-

CORNUA. Warts. Horny excrescences, which mostly form on the joints of the toes. Similar diseased productions have been known to arise on the head, and other

Cornua uteri. Plectene. In comparative anatomy, the horns of the womb; the womb being in some animals triangular, and its angles resembling horns.

CORNUMUSA. A retort.
CORNUS. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Tetrandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmocopæial name of the cornel tree. Cornus sanguinea of Linnaus. The fruit is moderately cooling and astringent.

CORNUTA. (From cornu; from its re-

sembrance to a horn.) A retort.
Corona ciliaris. The ciliar ligament. CORONA GLANDIS. The margin of

the glans penis.

CORONA IMPERIALIS. A name for crownimperial. The Turks use this plant as an emetic. The whole plant is considered poisonous.

CORONA REGIA. The melilotus.

CORONA SOLIS. Sun-flower. Called also chimalati. The Helianthus annuas of Linnæus. It has been noticed as heating, and an agreeable food. The seeds are made into bread.

CORONA VENERIS. Venereal blotches on

the forehead are so termed.

CORONAL SUTURE. (From corona, a crown, or garland; so named because the ancients wore their garlands in its direction.) Sutura coronalis. Sutura arcualis. suture of the head, that extends from one temple across to the other, uniting the two parietal bones with the frontal.

CORONAHIUS STOMACHICUS. Part of the

eighth pair of nerves.

CORONARY VESSELS. Vasa coronaria. The arteries and veins of the heart and stomach. The term coronary is here given from corona, a crown, surrounding any part in the manner of a crown.

CORONARY LIGAMENTS. corona, a crown.) Ligaments uniting the radius and ulna. The term ligamentum coronarium is also applied to a ligament of

the liver.

CORONE. (Kegorn, a crow; so named from its supposed likeness to a crow's bill.) The acute process of the lower jaw bone.

CORONOID. (Coronoideus; from negaof bones are so called, that have any re-semblance to a crow's beak, as coronoides apophysis ulnæ, coronoides apophysis maxillæ.

Conontres. (From negarn, a carrion crow, and reve, foot; the plant being said to resemble a crow's foot.) Coronopodium. Cornu. Cervinum. Stella terræ. Plantago. Buck's-horn plantain. The Plantago coronopus of Linnæus. Its medical victues are the same as those of the other plan-

CORPORA ALBICANTIA. albicantia Willisii.

CORPORA CAVERNOSA CLÍTORI. Two hollow crura, forming the clitoris.

CORPORA CAVERNOSA PENIS. Two spongy bodies that arise, one from each ascending portion of the ischium, and form the whole bulk of the penis above the urethra, and terminate obtusely behind its glans. See Penis.

CORPORA FIMBRIATA. The flattened terminations of the posterior crura of the fornix of the brain, which turn round into the inferior cavity of the lateral ventricle, and end in the pedes hippocampi.

CORPORA LOBOSA. Part of the cortical

part of the kidney.

CORPORA NERVEO-SPONGIOSA. The cor-

pora cavernosa penis.

Corpora NERVOSA. The corpora cavernosa clitoridis.

OLIVARIA. CORPORA The two external prominences of the medulla oblongata, that are shaped somewhat like an

CORPORA PYRAMIDALIA. Two internal prominences of the medulla oblongata, which are more of a pyramidal shape than the former.

CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA.

Tubercula quadrigemina.

CORPORA STRIATA. So named from their appearance. See Cerebrum.

CORPUS ANNULARE A synonym of

pons Varolii. See Pons Varolii.
CORPUS. The body. Many parts and substances are also distinguished by this name: as corpus callosum, corpus luteum, &c. See also Body.

CORPUS CALLOSUM. Commissura magna cerebri. The white medullary part joining the two hemispheres of the brain, and coming into view under the falx of the dura mater when the hemispheres are drawn from each other. On the surface of the corpus callosum two lines are conspicuous, called the raphe.

CORPUS GLANDULOSUM. The prostrate

gland.

CORPUS LUTEUM. The granulous papilla which is found in that part of the ovarium of females, from whence an ovum had proceeded; hence their presence determines that the female has been impregnated; and the number of the corpora lutea corresponds with the number of impreg-It is, however, asserted by a nations. modern writer, that corpora lutea have been detected in young virgins, where no impregnations could possibly have taken place.

Corpus Mucosum. See Rete mucosum.

CORPUS PAMPINIFORME. (Pampiniformis; from pumpinus, a tendril, and forma, likeness, resembling a tendril.) Corpus pyramidale. Applied to the spermatic chord, and thoracic duct; also to the plexus of veins surrounding the spermatic artery in the cavity of the abdomen.

Conpes RETICULARE. See Rete muco-

CORPUS SESAMOIDEUM. A little prominence at the entry of the pulmonary

CORPUS SPONGIOSUM URETHRÆ. Substantia spongiosa urethræ. This substance origispongiosum penis. nates before the prostate gland, surrounds the methra and forms the bulb; then proceeds to the end of the corpora cavernosa, and terminates in the glans penis, which it

The spermatic Corpus VARICOGUM.

chord.

Conrago. (From cor, the heart; it being supposed to have a good effect in comforting the heart.) See Borago.

(From neiga, to shave.) The That part of the jaws where the temples. beard grows, and which is used to shave.

CORROBORANTS. (Corroborantia, sc. medicamenta.) Medicines, or whatever gives strength to the body, as bark, wine, beef, cold bath, &c. &c. See Tomes.

Corrosive sublimate. See Oxymurias hy-

drargyri.

CORROSIVES. (Corrosiva, sc. medicamenta; from corrodo, to eat away.) See Escharotics

CORRUGATOR SUPERCILII. (From corrugo, to wrinkle.) Musculus supercilii of Winslow. Musculus frontalis verus, seu corrugator coiterii of Douglas, and Cutaneo sourcillier of Dumas. A small muscle situated on the forehead. When one muscle acts, it is drawn towards the other, and projects over the inner canthus of the eye. When both muscles act, they pull down the skin of the forehead and make it wrinkle, particularly between the eye-

CORTEX. This term is generally, though improperly, given to the Peruvian bark. It

apriles to any rind or bark

CORTEX ANGELINE. The bark of a tree growing in Grenada. A decoction of it is recommended as a vermifuge. It excites tormina, similar to jalap, and operates by

CORTEX ANGUSTURÆ. See Angus-

tura cortex.

CORTEX ANTISCORBUTICUS. The canella zel-tree. alba.

CORTEX AROMATICUS. The canella alba. CORTEX BELA-AVE. See Bela-aye cortex.

CARDINALIS DE LUGO.

Cardinal Lugo had testimonials of above a thousand cures performed by it in the year

CONTEX CEREBRI. The cortical substance of the brain.

CORTEX CHINÆ REGIUS. See Cinchona.

CORTEX CHINÆ SURINAMENSIS. This bark is remarkably bitter, and preferable to the other species in intermittent fevers.

CORTEX CHINCHINA. See Cinchona.

CORTEX ELUTHERIA. See Cascarilla cor-

CORTEX GEOFFROY JAMAICENSIS. Bulge-water-tree bark. The bark of the Geoffroya Jamaicensis; inermis foliolis lanceolutis, of Swartz. It is principally used in Jamaica, and with great success, as a vermifuge.

CORTEX LAVOLA. The bark bearing this name is supposed to be the produce of the tree which affords the anisum stellatum. Its

virtues are similar.

CORTEX MAGELLANICUS. See Winteranus cortex

CORTEX MASSOY. The produce of New Gumes, where it is beaten into a pultaceous mass with water, and rubbed upon the abdomen to allay tormina of the bowels. It partakes of the smell and flavour of cinna-

CORTEX PATRUM. The Peruvian bark. CORTEX PERUVIANUS. See Cinchona.

CORTEX PERUVIANUS FLAVUS. See Cin-

CORTEX PERUVIANUS RUBER. chona.

CORTEX POCCERFBÆ. This bark is sent from America; and is said to be serviceable in diarrhoas, dysenteries, and hepatic

CORTEX QUASSIÆ. See Quassia.

CORTEX WINTERANUS. See Winteranus cortex

CORTICAL. Cineritious substance. The external substance of the brain is of a darker colour than the internal, and surrounds the medullary substance, as the bark does the tree; hence it is termed cortical. also Kidney.

CORTUSA. The plant self-heal; bear's ear; sanicle. It is expectorant.

CORU CANARICA. A quincc-like tree of Malabar; it is antydysenteric.

CORYLUS. (Derivation uncertain; according to some, from ragua, a walnut.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Class, Monacia. Linnæan system.

der, Polyandria.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the ha-The nuts of this tree are much eaten in this country; they are hard of digestion, and often pass the bowels very little altered; if, however, they are well CORTEX CANELLE MALABRICE. See Cas- chewed, they give out a nutritious oil. An oil is also obtained from the wood of this The tree, Corylus aveilana of Linnaus:-sti-Peruvian bank was so called, because the pulis ovatis, obtusis, which is efficacions

against the tooth-ach, and is said to kill

CORYLUS AVELLANA. The hazel-nut tree. See Corylus.

CORYPHE. (Koguon.) The vertex of the head. The inner parts of the nails.

CORYZA. (Coryza, πορυζα: from παρα, the head, and ξεω, to boil.) An increased discharge of mucus from the nose. See Catarrh.

CORYZA CATARRHALIS. A catarrh from cold.

A catarrh with CORYZA FEBRICOSA. fever.

CORYZA PHLEGMATORRHAGIA. tarrh, with much discharge of mucus.

CORYZA PURULENTA. A catarrh, with discharge of matter.

CORYZA VARIOLOSA. A catarrh accompanying small-pox.

CORYZA VIRULENTA. A catarrh, with discharge of acrid mucus.

Cosculia. The grains of kermes.

COSMETIC. A term applied to remedies against blotches and freckles.

Cosmos. Rythmus. A regular series. In Hippocrates it is the order and series of critical days.

Cossis. Cossi. A worm that breeds in wood; also a little tubercle in the face, like the head of a worm.

Cossum. A malignant ulcer of the nose

mentioned by Paracelsus.

(A custodiendo; because the ribs surround and defend the vital parts.) A rib. The ribs are four-and-twenty in number, twelve on each side of the thorax. See Ribs.

COSTA PULMONARIA. Costa herba. name of the herb hawkweed.

(From costa, a rib, Costo-Hyoldeus. and hyoideus, belonging to the hyoidal bone.) A muscle so named from its origin and insertion. See Omo-hyoideus.

COSTUS. (From kasta, Arabian.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monandria. Order, Mono-

gynia.

Costus amanus. See Costus arabicus.

COSTUS ARABICUS. Costus indicus, ama-Sweet and bitter rus, dulcis, orientalis. costus. The root of this tree, Costus arabicus of Linnæus, possesses bitter and aromatic virtues, and is considered as a good stomachic. Formerly there were two other species, the bitter and sweet, distinguished for use. At present, the Arabic only is known, and that is seldom employed. It is, however, said to be stomachic, diaphoretic, and diuretic.

Costus conticosus. The canella alba. Costus hortorum minor. The agera-

COSTUS NIGRA. The artichoke.

COSTYLE. (KOTUAN, the name of an old measure.) The socket of the hip-hone.

COTARONIUM. A word coined by Paracelsus, implying a liquor into which all bodies, and even their elements, may be dissolved.

Coris. (From north, the head.) The back part of the head; sometimes the hol-

low of the neck.

COTULA FETIBA. (Cotula, dim. of cos, a whetstone, from the resemblance of its leaves to a whetstone; or from zolan, a hollow.) Chamamelum fatidum. Mayweed. Stinking camomile This plant, Anthemis cotula of Linnaus:-receptaculis conicis, paleis sataceis, seminibus nudis, has a very disagreeable smell; the leaves, a strong, acrid, bitterish taste; the flowers, however, are almost insipid. It is said to have been useful in hysterical affections, but is very seldom employed.

COTYLOID CAVITY. (Cotyloides; from 2070An, the name of an old measure, and 260c, resemblance.) The acetabulum.

See innominatum os.

COUCHING. See Cotyloid cavity. consists in removing the opaque lens out of the axis of vision, by means of a needle, constructed for the purpose. There are two couching needles, which now seem to be preferred to all others; the one used by Mr. Hey, and that employed by Professor

Couch-grass. See Gramen caninum.

COUGH. Tussis. A sonorous concussion of the thorax, produced by the sudden expulsion of the inspired air.

Coum. The meadow-saffron...

COUNTER-OPENING. Contra-apertura. An opening made in any part of an abscess opposite to one already in it. is often done in order to afford a readier egress to the collected pus.

Coup de soleil. An erysipelas from a

scorching sun.

COURAP. (Indian.) A distemper very common in Java, and other parts of the East-Indies, where there is a perpetual itching and discharge of matter. It is a herpes on the axilla, groins, breast, and face.

COURBARIL. The tree which produces

the gum anime. See Anime.

Counon DI. An evergreen tree of India, said to be antidysenteric.

Couror Moelli. A shrub of India, said to be antivenomous.

Couscos. An African food, much used about the river Senegal. It is a composition of the flower of millet, with some flesh, and what is there called lalo.

Cowhage. See Dolichos. Cow-itch. See Dolichos.

COWPER'S GLANDS. (Corvperi glandulæ; named from Cowper, who first described them.) Three large muciparous glands of the male, two of which are situated before the prostate gland under the accelerator muscles of the mme, and the third more forward, before the bulb of the arethra. They excrete a fluid, similar to that of the prostate gland, during the venereal orgasm.

COWPERI GLANDULE. See Comper's

glunds.

COVOLAM. The Crateva nurmelos of Linneus, whose feuit is astringent whilst numpe, but when ripe, of a delicious taste. The bark of the tree strengthens the stomach, and relieves hypochondriac languors.

COXA. The ischium is sometimes so called, and sometimes the os coccygis.

COXENDIX. (From coxa, the hip.) The ischium; the hip-joint.

CRABLOUSE. A species of pediculus which infests the axilia and pudenda.

CRAB-YAWS. A name in Jamaica for a kind of ulcer on the soles of the feet, with callous lips, so hard that it is difficult to cut them.

CRAMBE. (KgzµCn, the name given by Dioscorides, Galen, and others, to the cabbage; the derivation is uncertain.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Order, Silviculosa. Cabbag.

CRAMBE MARITIMA. The systematic name for the sea-coal. See Sea-coal.

CRAMP. (From krempen, to contract. Germ.) A spasin of a muscle or muscles.

Cranesbill, bloody: See Geranium san-

gumum

CRANIUM. (Κεανιον, quasi καςανιον; from καςα, the head.) The scull, or superior part of the head. (See Caput.

CHANTERES. (From Egano, to perform.) A name given to the sapientia dentes and molares, from their office of masticating the food.

CRAPULA. (Kpaistuna.) A surfeit;

drunkenness.

CRASIS. (From resprepsion, to mix.) Mixture. A term applied to the humours of the body, when there is such an admixture of their principles as to constitute a healthy state: hence, in dropsies, senry, &c. the crasis, or healthy mixture of the principles of the blood, is destroyed.

Chastenon (Kgacrador, the hem of a garment; from kgsazar, to hang down) A relaxation of the uvula, when it hangs down in a thin, tong membrane, like the hem of a garment.

CRASSAMENTUM. (From crassus,

thick ) Se. Blood.

Chas that (From crassus, thick: so nam d from the thickness of its leaves.)
See Faba crassa.

CRATEGUS. (From \*gallot, strength: so called from the strength and hardness of its wood.) The wild service-tree, whose virtues are astringent.

GRATICULA. (From crates, a hurdle.)

The bars or grate which covers the ashhole in a chymical furnace.

Cream of turtar. See Supertartras po-

Cream of turtar. See Supertartras po-

CREMASTER. (From regiment, to suspend.) A muscle of the teacte, by which it is suspended, and drawn up and compressed, in the act of c tion. It arises from Poupard's figament, passes over the spermatic cord, and is lost in the certuar membrane of the scrotum, covering the testicles.

CREANUS. (From xg µres, a precipice, or shelving plac.) The lips of an ulcer is so called. At a Le lanum pudendi.

CREMOR. C eam. Any substance floating on the top, and skimmed off.

CREPITUS. (From crepo, to make a noise.) A puff or note noise: the cracking made by the joints when there is a defect of synovia.

CREPITUS LUPI. See Bovista.

Cress water. See Masturtium aquaticum. CRE: A PREPARATA. Prepared chalk is a carbonate of lime, and possesses antacid qualities: it is exhibited in form of electinary, maxture, or bolus, in pyrosis, cardialgia, acidities of the prima via, rhachitis, crusta lactea, &c. and is an antidote against white arsenic. See Carbonas calcus.

Cretaceous acid. See Carbonic acid.

Crete, dittany of See Dictamnus creticus. CRIBRIFORMIS. (From cribrum, a sieve, and forma, likeness; because it is perforated like a sieve.) See Ethmoid bone.

CITICO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached

to the cricoid cartilage.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDEUS LATERA-LIS. Crico lateri-arithenoidien of Dumas-A nuscie of the glottis, that opens the rima by pulling the ligaments from each other.

CRICO ARYTÆNOIDEUS POSTICUS. Crico creti arithenoidien of Dumas. A muscle of the glottis, that opens the rima glottidis a little, and by pulling back the arytænoid cartilage, stretches the ligament so as to make it tense.

CHICO-PHARYNGEUS. See Constrictor pha-

ryngis inferior.

GRICO-THYROIDEUS. Crico-thyroidien of Dumas. The last of the second layer of muscles between the os hyoides and trunk, that pulls forwards and depresses the throid cartilage, or elevates and draws backwards the cricoid cartilage.

CRICOIDES. (From x2120c, a ring, and stock, resemblance.) A round ring like cartilage of the larynx is called the cricoid.

See Larynx.

term applied to urine, which deposits a sediment like bran.

CRINATUS. (From noner, the lily ) A term

given to a suffumigation mentioned by P. Egineta, composed chiefly of the roots of

CRINIS. The hair, Sec Capillus.

CRINOMERON. (From upivor, a lily, and An ointment composed Mupor, ointment.)

chiefly of lilies.

(From crinis, the hair.) CRINODES Comedones. Collections of a sebaccous fluid in the cutaneous follicles upon the face and breast, which appear like black spots, and when pressed out, look like small worms, or, as they are commonly called, maggots.

CRIGGENES. An epithet for certain troches, incutioned by P. Ægineta, and which he commends for cleansing sordid

ulcers.

CRIPSORCHIS. (From upunla, to conceal, and opxis, a testicle.) Having the testicle concealed, or which is not yet descended

into the scrotum.

CRISIS. (From upwa, to judge.) The dgmen. The sudden change of sympjudgmen. toms in acute diseases, from which the recovery or death is prognosticated judged of.

CRISPATURA. (From crispo, to curl ) spasmodic contraction, or curling of the

membranes and fibres.

(Quasi cerista; from uspac, a horn, or carista: from napa, the head, as being on the top of the head.) Any thing which has the appearance of a crest or comb upon the head of a cock, as crista Also a tubercle clitoridis, the nympha. about the anus; so called from its form.

CRISTA GALLI. An eminence of the ethinoid bonc, so called from its resem-Sec Ethmoid blance to a cock's comb.

CRITHAMUM. See Crithmum.

(From κρινω, to judge.) CRITHERION.

The same as crisis.

(Kpibn.) Barley. A stye or CRITHE. tumour on the evelid, in the shape and of

the size of a barley-corn.

CRITIMUM. (From κρινω, to secrete; so named from its supposed virtues in promoting a discharge of the urine and menses.) Samphire, or sea-fennel.

(From κριθη, barley, and CRITHODES. edos, resemblance.) Resembling a barleycorn. It is applied to small protuber-

CRITICAL. Determining the event of a disease. Many physicians have been of opinion, that there is something in the nature of fevers which generally determines them to be of a certain duration; and, therefore, that their terminations, whether salutary or fatal, happen at certain periods of the disease, rather than at others. periods, which were carefully marked by Hippocrates, are called critical days. The critical days, or those on which we suppose the termination of continued fevers especi-

ally to happen, are the third, fifth, seventh, ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and twentieth

CROCIDIXIS. (From uponidiza, to gather wool.) Flocilatio. A fatal symptom in some diseases, where the patient gathers up the bed-clothes, and seems to pick up substances from them.

CROCINUM. (From uponos, saffron.) Oil of saffron, or a mixture of oil, myrrh and

CROCODES. (From sposes, saffron; so called from the quantity of saffron they contain.) A name of some old troches.

CROCOMAGMA. (From uponos, saffron, and mayna, the thick oil or dregs.) A troch made of oil of saffron and spices.

CROCUS. (Kponos of Theophrastus.) The story of the young Crocus, turned into this flower, may be seen in the fourth book of Ovid's Metamorphoses. Some derive this name from uponin, or ugous, a thread; whence

the stamens of flowers are called ngonowies, Others, again, derive it from Coriscus, a city and mountain of Cilicia, and others from crokin. Chald.) Saffron.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Triandria. Order,

Monogynia. Saffron.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the prepared stigmats of the Crocus sativus of Linnæus :- spatha univalvi radicali, corolli tubo longissimo. Saffron has a powerful, penetrating, diffusive smell, and a warm, pungent, bitterish taste. Many virtues were formerly attributed to this medicine, but little confidence is now placed in it. The Edinburgh College directs a tincture, and that of London a syrup of this drug.

3. A term given by the older chymists to several preparations of metallic substances, from their resemblance: thus, cro-

cus martis, crocus veneris.

CROCUS ANTIMONII. Crocus metallorum. This preparation is a sulphurated oxyd of antimony, and therefore called oxydum stibii sulphuretum in the new chymical nomenclature. It possesses emetic and drastic cathartic powers, producing a violent diaphoresis afterwards.

CROCUS GERMANICUS. See Carthamus.

CROCUS INDICUS. See Curcuma. Crocus Mantis. Green vitriol exposed

to fire till red. CROCUS METALLORUM. See Crocus anti-

monii.

CROCUS OFFICINALIS. See Crocus.

CROCUS SARACENICUS. See Carthumus.

Chocus SATIVUS. See Crocus.

Crocus veneris. Copper calcined to a red powder.

CROMMYON. (Пара то та кора; ришу, всcause it makes the eyes wink.) An onion.

CROMMYOXYREGMA. (From κρομμυον, an omion, and ogus, acid, and payvujui, to break out.) An acid eructation accompanied with a taste resembling onions.

CROTAPHICA ARTERIA. The tendon of the temporal muscle.

CHOTAPHITES. (Crotaphites, sc. musculus; from upolaque, the temple.) See Temporalis.

CROTAPHIUM. (From κρόλω, to pulsate; so named from the pulsation which in the temples is eminently discernible.) Crotaphos. Crotaphus. A pain in the temples.

CROTAPHOS See Crotaphium. CROTAPHUS. See Crotaphium.

CROTCHET. A curved instrument with a sharp hook to extract the fœtus.

CROTON. (From κρθέω, to beat.)
1. An insect called a tick, from the noise

it makes by beating its head against wood.

2 A name of the ricinus or castor-oil-

berry, from its likeness to a tick.
3. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Monoecia. Order,

Monadelphia.

CROTON BENZOE. Gum-Benjamin was

formerly so called.

CROTON CASCARILLE. The systematic name of the plant which affords the Cascarilla bark. See Cascarilla.

Choron Lacciferum. The systematic name of the plant upon which gum-lac is deposited.

Choron Tiglium. The tree which affords the pavaua wood and tiglii seeds. See Lignum payaus, and Tiglia strang.

See Lignum pavauæ, and Tiglia grana.
CROTON TINCTORIUM. The systematic
name of the lacmus plant. See Bezetta

cærulea.

CROTONE. (From \*\*spolor\*), the tick.) A fungus on trees produced by an insect like a tick; and by metaphor applied to tumours and small fungous excrescences on the periosteum.

Croup. See Cynanche.

Chousis. (From κρεω, to beat, or pulsate.) Pulsation.

Chousmata. (From upue, to pulsate.) Rheums or defluxions from the head.

Crowfoot. See Ranunculus.

Crowfoot cranesbill. See Geranium batrachiones.

CRUCIAL. Some parts of the body are so called when they cross one another, as the cincial ligaments of the thigh.

Cuttalis, Cross-like. Mugweed or

CRUCIBLE. (Crucibulum from crucio, to tornent; so named, because, in the language of old chymists, metals are tornented in it, and tortured, to yield up their powers and virtues.) A chemical vessel made mostly of earth to bear the greatest heat. They are of various shapes and composition.

Chuditas. (From crudus, raw.) It is applied to undigested substances in the stomach and humours in the body unpre-

pared for concoction.

CRUNION. (From upuroc, a torrent.) A

The tendon of medicine mentioned by Ætius, and named from the violence of its operation as a phites, sc. mus-

CRUOR. The red part of the blood. See Blood.

CRURA. The plural of crus, a leg or root; applied to some parts of the body, from their resemblance to a leg or root: thus, crura cerebri, crura cerebelli, the crura of the diaphregm, &c. &c.

CHURA CLITORIDIS. See Clitoris.

CRURA MEDULLE OBLONGATE. The roots

of the medulla oblongata.

CRURÆUS (From crus, a leg; so named, because it covers almost the whole foreside of the upper part of the leg, or thigh.) Cruralis. A muscle of the leg, situated on the forepart of the thigh. It arises, fleshy, from between the two trochanters of the os femoris, but nearer the lesser, firmly adhering to most of the forepart of the os femoris; and is inserted, tendinous, into the upper part of the patella, behind the rectus. Its use is to assist the vasti and rectus muscles in the extension of the leg.

CRURAL. Belonging to the crus, leg,

or lower extremity.

CRURAL HERNIA. Femoral hernia; A tumour under the groin, and in the upper part of the thigh, arising from a protusion of part of an abdominal viscus under Poupart's ligament. See Hernia cruralis.

. CRUNALIS. See Cruraus.

CRUETA. A shell; a scab; the scum or surface of a fluid.

CRUSTA LACTEA. A disease that mostly attacks some part of the face of infants at the breast. It is known by an eruption of broad pustules, fuil of a glutinous liquor, which form white scabs when they are ruptured. It is cured by mineral alteratives.

CRUSTA VILLOSA. The inner coat of the stomach and intestines has been so called.

CRUSTULA. (Dim. of crusta, a shell.) An ecchymosis or discoloration of the flesh from a bruise, where the skin is entire and covers it over like a shell.

CRUSTUMINATUM. (From Crustuminum, a town where they grew.)

1. A kind of Catherine pear.

2. A rob or electuary made of this pear and apples boiled up with honey.

Chymones, (From 2005, cold.) An epithet for a fever, wherein the external parts are cold.

CRYPSORCHIS. (From  $xpx\pi^2a$ , to conceal, and  $q\chi x_0$ , a testicle.) When the testicles are hid in the belly, or have not descended into the scrotum.

into the scrotum.

CRYPTÆ. (From \*gy=\tau\_w, to hide.) The little rounded appearances at the end of the small arteries of the cortical substance of the kidneys, that appear as if formed by

the artery being convoluted upon itself.

CUB CUC

CRYPTOPYICA ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine from a retraction of the penis within the body.

CRYSORCHIS. (Kousopysic.) A retraction or retrocession of one of the testicles, the

same as crypsorchis.

CRYSTALLI. Eruptions about the size of a lupine, white and transparent, which sometimes break out ail over the body. They are also called *Crystalline*, and by the Italians Taroli. They are probably

the pemphigus of modern writers.

CRYSTALLINE LENS. (Lens crystallina-crystallina, from its crystal-like appearance.) A lentiform pellucid part of the eve, enclosed in a membranous capsule, called the capsule of the crystalline I ns, and situated in a peculiar depression in the anterior part of the vitreous humour. Its use is to transmit and refract the focus of the rays of light to the vitreous humour.

CRYSTALLINUM. (From upusannos, a chrystal, so called from its transparency.)

White arsenic.

CRYSTALLIZATION. (From cristal. lus, a chrystal.) Crystallizatio, A property by which crystallizable bodies tend to assume a regular form, when placed in circumstances favourable to that particular disposition of their particles. Almost all minerals possess this property, but it is most eminent in saline substances. The circumstances which are favourable to the crystallization of salts, and without which it cannot take place, are two. 1. Their particles must be divided and separated by a fluid, in order that the corresponding faces of those particles may meet and unite. 2. In order that this union may take place, the fluid which separates the integrant parts of the salt must be gradually carried off, so that it may no longer divide them.

CRYSTALLUS. (From upuss, cold, and seλλω, to contract: i. e. contracted by cold into ice.) Chrystal. The ancients supposed that chrystals were water intensely frozen. It also means an eruption over the body of white transparent pustules. See Crys-

CTEDONES. (From xlvday, a rake.) The fibres are so called from their pectinated course.

CTEIS. (KTus.) A comb or rake. Ctenes, in the plural number, implies those teeth which are called incisores, from their likeness to a rake.

CUBEBR. (From cubabah, Arab ) Piper candatum. Cumamus. Cubebs, The dried berries of the Piper cubeba of Linnaus:foliis oblique ovatis, sen oblongis venosis acutis, spica solitaria pedunculata oppositifolio, fructibus pedicellatis. They are of an ashbrown colour, generally wrinkled, and resembling pepper, but furnished each with a slender stalk. They are a warm spice, of a

taste; imported from Java; and may be exhibited in all cases where warm spicy medicines are indicated, but they are inferior to pepper.

Cubebs. See Cubea.

CURITAL ARTERY. Arteria cubitalis. Arteria ulnaris. A branch of the brachial that proceeds in the fore-arm, and gives off the recurrent and inter-osseals, and forms the palmary arch, from which arise branches going to the fingers, called digi-

CUBITAL NERVE. Nervus cubitalis. Nerwas ulnaris. It arises from the brachial plexus, and proceeds along the ulna.

CUBITALIS MUSCULUS. An extensor mus-

cle of the fingers.

CUBITÆUS EXTERNUS. An extensor muscle of the fingers. CUBITÆUS INTERNUS. A flexor muscle

of the fingers.

CUBITI PROFUNDA VENA. A vein of the

CUBITUS. (From cubo, to he down; because the ancients used to lie down on that part at their meals.) The fore-arm, or that part between the bend of the arm, including the elbow and wrist.

CUBOIDES OS. (From nuclos, a cube or die, and usos, likeness.) A tarsal bone of the foot, so called from its resemblance.

Euckow flower. See Cardamine.

CUCULLARIS. (Cucullaris sc. musculus; from cucullus, a hood: so named, because it is shaped like a hood.) See Trapezius.

Cucullus. A hood. An odoriferous

cap for the head.

Cucumber. See Cucumis. Cucumber, bitter. See Colocynthis. Cucumber, squirting. See Cucumis agres-

Cucumber, wild. See Cucumus agreetis. CUCUMIS. (Quasi curvimeres, from their curvature. The cucumber. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the

Linnæan system. Class, Monoecia. Order,

Syngenesia. The cucumber.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the garden cucumber, Cucumis sativus of Linnæns:-foliorum angulis rectis; pomis oblongis scubris. It is cooling and aperient, but very apt to disagree with bilious stomachs. It should always be eaten with pepper and oil. The seeds were formerly used medicinally.

CUCUMIS AGRESTIS. Cucumis asini-Cucumis sylvestris. Elaterium officinarum. Boubalios. Guarerba orba. Wild or squirting cucumber. Momordica elaterium of Linnæus :- pomis hispidus cirrhis nullis. The dried juice of this plant is the elaterium of the shops. It has neither smell nor taste, and is the most powerful cathartic in the whole materia medica. Its efficacy in dropsies is said to be considerable; it, pleasant smell, and moderately pungent however, requires great caution in the exhibition. From the eighth to the half of a gram should be given at first, and repeated at proper intervals until it operates.

Cuccmis Asininus. See Cucumis agres-

CUCUMIS COLOCYNTHIS. The systematic name for the officinal bitter apple. See Colorynthis.

Cuccuis Melo. The systematic name of the meion plant. See Melo.

Ct. UMIS SATIVUS. The systematic name

of the cucumber plant. See Cucumis. CUCUMIS SYLVESTRIS. See Cucumis

agrestis. CUCUPHA. A hood. An odoriferous

cap for the head composed of aromatic drugs.

CUCURBITA. (A curvitate, according to Scaliger; the first syllable being dou-

bled, as in cacula, populus, &c)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monoecia. Order,

Syngenesia. The pumpion.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common pumpion or gourd. The seeds of this plant, Cucurbita pepo; foliis lobatis, pomis levibus, are used indifferently with those of the Cucurbita lagenaria; folis subangulatis, tomentosis, basi subtus biglandulosis; pomis lignosis. They contain a large proportion of oil, which may be made into emutsions; but is superceded by that of sweet almonds.

S. A chymical distilling vessel shaped

like a gourd.

CUCURBITA CITRULLUS. The systematic name of the water-melon plant. See Citrul-

CUCCHBITA LAGENARIA. The systematic name of the bottle-gourd plant. See

UCURBITA PEPO» The systematic name of the common pumpion. See Cucurbita.

CUCURBITINUS. A species of worm, so called from its resemblance to the seed of the gourd. See Tania.

CUCURBITULA. (A diminitive of cucurbita, a gourd; so called from its shape.)

A cupping glass.

CUCURBITULA CRUENTA. A cupping glass with scarification to procure

CUCURBITULA CUM FERRO. cupping-glass with scarification to draw out blood.

CUCURBITULA SICCA. A cupping-

glass without scarification.

CUEMA. (From xue, to carry in the womb) The conception, or rather, as Hippocrates signifies by this word, when the complete rudiments of the fœtus are formed.

CULBICIO. A sort of stranguary, or

rather heat of urine.

Cullitlawan. Cor-CULILAWAN CORTEX. tex caryophylloides. The bark of the Laurus callilaran of Linneus:-folits tripli-

nerviis oppositis. It very much resembles ciunamon in appearance and properties.

CULINARY. (Culinarius, from culina, a kitchen.) Any thing belonging to the kitchen, as culinary salt, culinary herbs.

CULTER. (From colo, to cultivate.) A knife or shear. The third lobe of the liver is so called from its resemblance.

Culus. (From xxxos.) The anus or fundament.

CUMAMUS. See Cubebæ.

Cumin seeds. See Cuminum.

CUMINUM. (From xuw, to bring forth; because it was said to cure sterility.) minum. Fæniculum orientale.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Heptandria. Or-

der, Digynia. The cumin plant.

2. The pharmacopoid name of the Cuminum cyminum of Linnæus. A native of Egypt and Ethiopia, but cultivated in Sicily and Malta, from whence it is brought to us. The seeds of cumin which are the only part of the plant in use, have a bitterish taste, accompanied with an aromatic flayour, but not agreeable. They are generally preferred to other seeds for external use in discussing indolent tumours, as the encysted scrophulous, &c. and give name both to a plaster and cataplasm in the pharm copæias.

CUMINUM ÆTHIOPICUM. A name for the

ammi verum.

CUMINUM CYMINUM. The systematic name of the cumin plant. See Cuminum.

CUNEALIS SUTURA. The suture by which the os sphenoides is joined to the os frontis.

CUNEIFORM. (Cuneiformis; from cuneus, a wedge, and forma, likeness.) Some parts of the body are so called, being shaped or fixed in, like a wedge : such are the sphænoid bone, and some bones of the wrist and tarsus.

CUNEOLUS. (From cuneo, to wedge.) A

crooked tent to put into a fistula.

CUPEL. (Kuppel, German.) Catellus cinereus. Cinertuim. Patella doci-mastica. Testa probatrix emploratrix, or domicastica. A chymical instrument, which suffers the baser metals to pass through it, when exposed to heat, and retains the pure metal. This process is termed cupellation.

CUPELLATION. (From kuppel, German.) The purifying of perfect metals by means of an addition of lead, which at a due heat becomes vitrified and promotes the vitrification and calcination of such imperfect metals as may be in the mixture, so that these last are carried off in the fusible glass that is formed, and the perfect metals are left nearly pure. The name of this operation is taken from the vessels made use of, which are called cupels.

Сирноs. (Кифоз.) Light, when applied to aliments, imports their being easily digested; when to distempers, that they are mild.

CUPRESSUS. (So called, and TE RULLY παρισσες τες ακρεμονας, because it produces equal branches.) Cypress.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Monæcia. Order,

Monadelphia. The cypress-tree.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Cupressus sempervirens of Linnaus :- foliis imbricatis squamis quadrangulis; cailed also cyparissus. Every part of the plant abounds with a bitter, aromatic, terebinthinate fluid; and is said to be the remedy against intermittents. Its wood is extremely durable, and constitutes the cases of Egyptian mummies.

The sys-CUPRESSUS SEMPERVIRENS. tematic name of the cupressus of the shops.

See Cupressus.

Aqua sap-CUPRI AMMONIATI AQUA. pharina. "Take of lime water, one pint; sal ammoniac, one drachm: let them stand together in a copper vessel until the ammonia is saturated."

CUPRI RUBIGO. Verdigris or rust of

CUPRUM. (Quasi æs Cyprium: so called from the island of Cyprus, whence it was formerly brought.) See Copper.

CUPRUM AMMONIACALE. Cuprum ammoniacum. Blue vitriot and prepared ammonia. An ammoniacal sulphat of cop-

CUPRUM VITRIOLATUM. See Sulphas

CURA AVENACEA. A decoction of oats and succory roots, in which a little nitre and sugar were dissolved, was formerly used in fevers, and was thus named.

CURCAS. The Barbadoes nut; a drastic

purge.

(From karkarah. Heb.) CURCULIO. The throat; the aspera arteria.

The large celandine; deob-CURCUM. struent.

CURCUMA. (From the Arabic curcum, or hercum.) Turmeric.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the turmeric-tree. Curcuma longa of Linnxus:foliis lanceolatis; nervis lateralibus numerossimis; called also, Crocus Indicus. Terra marita. Cannacorus radice croceo. Curcuma longa. Curcuma rotunda. Mayella. Kua kaha by the Indians. The Arabians call every root of a saffron colour by the name of curcim. The root of this plant is imported here in its dried state from the East Indies, in various forms. Externally it is of a pale yellow colour, wrinkled, solid, ponderous, and the inner substance of a deep saffron or gold colour: its odour is somewhat fragrant; to the taste it is bitterish, slightly acrid, exciting a moderate degree of warmth in the mouth, and on being chewed it tinges the saliva yellow. It is an ingredient in the composition of Curry powder, is valuable as a dyeing drug, and furnishes a chymical test of the presence of uncombined alkalies. It is now very seldom used medicinally, but retains a place in our pharmacopæias.

The turmeric plant. CURCUMA LONGA.

See Curcuma.

CURCUMA ROTUNDA, See Curcuma.

CURMI. (From negaw, to mix.) A drink made of bariey, according to Dioscorides.

Currants. See Ribes.

CURSUMA. Curtuma. The Ranunculus ficaria of Linnæus.

CURVATOR COCCUGIS. A muscle bending the coccyx.

(Corrupted from cassuta, ka-CURSUTA. The root of the Gentiana pursuth, Arah.) purea of Linnæus.

CUSCUTA. (According to Linnaus, a corruption from the Greek Karulas, or Ka-Solas, which is from the Arabic Chessuth, or Chasuth.) Dodder.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Tetrandria. Or-

der, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of dodder

of thyme. See Epithymum. The systematic name of dodder of thyme. See Epithy-

CUSCUTA EUROPEA. The systematic name of a species of dodder of thyme. See Epithumum.

CUSPIDATUS. (From cuspis, a point.) See Teeth.

CUSPARIA. The general name given by Messrs. Humboldt and Boupland to the tree from which we obtain the Augustura bark. See Augustura.

Cuspis. (From caspa, Chald, a shell, or bone, with which spears were formerly pointed.) The glans penis was so called, from its likeness to the point of a spear. Also a bandage.

Custos oculis. An instrument to fix the

eye during an operation.

CUTAMBULI. (From cutis, the skin.) Cutaneous worms; scorbutic itching.

CUTANEUS MUSCULUS. The platysma myoides.

CUTANEOUS. (From cutis, the skin.)

Belonging to the skin.

CUTICLE. (Cuticula, dim. of cutis, the skin.) Epidermis. Scarf-skin. pellucid, insensible membrane, of a white colour, that covers and defends the true skin, with which it is connected by the hairs, exhaling and inhaling vessels, and the rete mucosum.

CUTIS. Derma, The true skin. thick, fibrous, vascular, and nervous membrane, that covers the whole external surface of the body, and is the situation of the organ of touch, exhalation, and inhalation.

CUTIS ANSERINA. (Anserina; from

unser, a goose.) The rough state the skin are directed by the London College to he is sometimes thrown into from the action of made into a mucilage, which is recommendcold, or other cause, in which it looks like the skin of the goose.

CUTIS VERA. The true skin under

CYANUS. (Kuaros, carulean, or sky-blue; so called from its colour.) Blue-bottle. Corn-flower. The flowers of this plant, Centaurea cyanus of Linnaus:-calycibus serratis; foliis linearibus, integerrimis, infimis dentatis, were formerly in frequent use; but their antiphlogistic, antispasmodic, cordial, aperient, diuretic, and other properties are now, with great propriety, forgotten.

CYAR. (From KEW, to pour out.) The lip of a vessel. The eye of a needle; and the orifice of the internal ear, from its likeness

to the eye of a needle.

Crasma. Spots on the skin of pregnant

CYATHISCUS. (From xualos, a cup.) The hollow part of a probe, formed in the shape of a small spoon, as an ear-picker.

CYBITOS. See Cubitus. CYHITUM. See Cubitus.

CYBITUS. Sec Cubitus.

CYNGIDES. See Cuboides.

CYCEUM. From xuxxw, to mix.) Cyceun. A mixture of the consistence of pap,

CYCIMA. (From KURZW, to mix.) So called from the mixture of the ore with lead, by which litharge is made.

CYCLAMEN. (From nunlos, circular; either on account of the round form of the leaves, or of the roots.) Cyclamen.

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the sow-

See Arthanita bread.

CYCLAMEN EUROPEUM. The systematic name of the sow-bread. See Arthanita.

CYCLISCUS. (From xuxxos, a circle.) An instrument in the form of a half moon, formerly used for scraping rotten bones.

CYCLISMUS. (From MUNAOS, a circle.)

CYCLOPHORIA. (From κυκλος, a circle, and φεζα, to bear.) The circulation of the blood, or other fluids.

CYCLOPION. (From KUKACO, to surround, and of, the eyc.) The white of the eye.

Crelos. A circle. Hippocrates uses this word to signify the cheeks, and the orbits of the cyes.

CYCLUS METASTNCRITTYUS. It is a long protracted course of remedies, persisted in with a view of restoring the particles of the health.

CYDONIUM MALUM. (From Cyclon, a town in Crete, where they grew.) The quince. The tree which affords this fruit is the Pyrus cydonia of Linnaus :- foliis integerrinus, foribus solituriis. Quince seeds seasons. It has been said, that it is most

ed in apthous affections, and excoriations of the mouth and fauces.

CYEMA. (From xuw, to bring forth ) Par-

CYLICHNIS. (From RULIE, a cup.) gallipot or vessel of any kind to hold medi-

CYLLOSIS. (From xuxxow, to make lame.) A tibia or leg bending outwards.

CYLINDRUS (From xx.ww, to roll round.) A cylinder. A tent for a wound, equal at

the top and bottom. CYLLUS. (From kullow, to make lame.) In Hippocrates, it is one affected with a kind of luxation, which bends outwards, and is hollowed inward. Such a defect in the tibia is called Cyllosis, and the person to whom it belongs is called, by the Latins, Varus, and is opposed to Valgus

CYMATORES. Is applied by Galen and some others to an unequal fluctuating

pulse.

(From number, hollow.) CYMBA. boat, or pinnace. A bone of the wrist is so called, from its supposed likeness to a skiff.

CYMINALIS. Gentian.

CYMINUM. See Cuminum.

CYNANCHE. (From num, a dog, and avxa, to suffocate, or strangle; so called from dogs being said to be subject to it.) Sore throat. A genus of disease in the class pyrexie, and order phlegmasie of Cullen. It is known by pain and redness of the throat, attended with a difficulty of swallowing and breathing. The species of this disease are-

1. Cynanche trachialis; called also cynanche laryngea. Suffocatio stridula angina perniciosa. Asthma infantum. Cynanche stridula. Morbus strangulatorius. rhus suffocatius Barbadensis. Angina polyposa sive membranacea. The croup. A disease that mostly attacks infants, who are suddenly seized with a difficulty of breathing and a crouping noise; it is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the trichea, that induces the secretion of a very tenacious coagulable lymph, which lines the trachea and bronchia, and impedes respiration. The croup does not appear to be contagious, whatever some physicians may think to the contrary; but it sometimes prevails epidemically. It seems, however, peculiar to some families; and a child having once been attacked, is very liable to its returns. It is likewise pecu-liar to young children, and has never been body to such a state as is necessary to known to attack a person arrived at the age of puberty.

The application of cold seems to be the general cause which produces this disorucr. and therefore it occurs more frequently in the water and spring, than in the other prevalent near the sea coast; but it is frequently met with in inland situations, and particularly those which are marshy.

Some days previous to an attack of the disease, the child appears drowsy, inactive, and fretful; the cyes are somewhat suffused and heavy; and there is a cough, which, from the first, has a peculiar shrill sound; this, in the course of two days, becomes more violent and troublesome, and likewise more shrill. Every fit of coughing agitates the patient very much; the face is flushed and swelled, the eyes are pro uberant, a general tremor takes place, and there is a kind of convulsive endcavour to renew respiration at the close of each fit. As the disease advances, a constant difficulty of breathing prevails, accompanied with a welling and inflammation in the tonsits, uvula, and velum pendulum palati; and the head is thrown back, in the agony of attempting to escape suffoca-There is not only an unusual sound produced by the cough, (something between the yelping and barking of a dog.) but respiration is performed with a lussing noise, as if the trachea was closed up by some slight spongy substance. The cough is generally dry; but if any thing is spit up, it has either a purulent appearance, or seems to consist of films resembling portions of a membrane. Where great nausea and frequent retchings prevail, co-gulated matter of the same nature is brought up. With these symptoms, there is much thirst, and uneasy sense of heat over the whole body, a continual inclination to change from place to place, great restlessness, and frequency of the pulse.

In an odvanced stage of the disease, respiration becomes more stridulous, and is performed with still greater difficulty, being repeated at longer periods, and with greater exertions, until at last it ceases en-

tirely.

The croup generally proves fatal by suffocation, induced either by spasm affecting the glottis, or by a quantity of matter blocking up the bronchiæ; but when it terminates in health, it is hy a resolution of the inflammation, by a ceasing of the spasms, and by a free expectoration of the matter exuding from the trachea, or of the crusts formed there.

The discase has, in a few instances, terminated fatally within twenty-four hours after its attack; but it more usually happens, that where it proves fatal, it runs on to the fourth or fifth day. Where considerable portions of the membraneous films, formed on the surface of the trachea, are thrown up, life is sometimes protracted for a day or two longer than would otherwise have happened.

Dissections of children who have died of the croup ave always shewn a preternatural membrane, lining the whole internal

surface of the upper part of the traches, which may always be easily separated from the proper membrane. There is likewise usually found a good deal of muchs, with a mixture of pus, in the trachca and its ra-

2. Cynanche tonsillaris. The inflammatory quincy, called also angina inflammato-In this complaint the inflamination principally occupies the glands, such as the tonsils; but often extends through the whole mucous membrane of the fauces, so as essentially to interrupt the speech, respiration, and deglutition of the patient.

The causes which usually give rise to it are, exposure to cold, either from sudden vicissitudes of weather, from being placed in a partial current of air, wearing damp linen, sitting in wet rooms, or getting wet in the feet; all of which may give a sudden check to perspiration. It principally attacks those of a full and plethoric habit, and is chiefly confined to cold chmates, occurring usually in the spring and autumn; whereas the ulcerated sore throat chiefly attacks those of a weak irritable habit, and is most prevalent in warm climates. The former differs from the latter likewise in not being contagious. In many people their seems to be a particular tendency to this disease; as from every considerable application of cold it is readily induced.

An inflammatory sore throat discovers itself by a difficulty of swallowing and breathing, accompanied by a redness and tumour in one or both tonsils, dryness of the throat, foulness of the tongue, lancinating pains in the parts affected, a frequent but difficult excretion of mucus, and some small degree of fever. As the disease advances, the difficulty of swallowing and breathing becomes greater, the speech is very indistinct, the dryness of the throat and thirst mereuse, the tongue swells and is incrusted with a dark fur, and the pulse is full and frequent. In some cases, a few white sloughly spots are to be observed on the tonsils. If the inflammation proceeds to such a height as to put a total stop to respiration, the face will become livid, the pulse will sink, and the patient will quickly be destroyed.

The chief danger arising from this species of quincy is, the inflammation occupying both tonsils, and proceeding to such a degree as to prevent a sufficient quantity of nourishment for the support of nature from being taken, or its occasioning suffocation; but this seldom happens, and its usual termination is eather in resolution or suppuration. When proper steps are adopted, it will in general readily go off by the former.

Where the disease has proved fatal by suffocation, little more than a highly inflamed state of the parts affected, with som, murbid phenomena in the head, have

been observed on dissection.

3. Cynanche pharyngea. This species is so called when the pharynx is chiefly affected. Dr. Wilson, in his treatise on Febrile Diseases, includes in his definition of cynanche tonsillaris, that of cynanche pharyngea. These varieties of cynanche differ considerably when they are exquisitely formed. But the one is seldom present in any considerable degree without being attended with more or less of the other. Dr. Cullen declares, indeed, that he never saw a case of true cynanche pharyngea; that is, a case in which the inflammation was confined to the pharynx; it constantly spread in a greater or less degree to the tonsils and neighbouring parts. Besides the mode of treatment is, in almost every instance, the same in both cases. And if we admit the cynanche pharyngea to be a distinct variety, we must admit another, the cynanche æsoplingea; for the inflammation frequently attacks the æsophagus, and is sometimes even confined to it.

4. Cynanche paratidαa. The mumps A swelling under the jaw, extending over the neck; an inflammation of the parotid gland, rendering deglution difficult, declining the fourth day. Epidemie and

contagious.

5. Cynanche maligna. The malignant, putrid, or ulcerous sore throat. Called also cynanche gangrænosa. Agina ulcerosa. Febris epidemica cum angina ulcusculosa. Angina epilemica. Angina gangrænosa. Angina suffocativa. Angina maligna. This disease is readily to be distinguished from the inflammatory quincy, by the soreness and white speeks which appear in the fauces, together with the great debility of the system, and small fluttering pulse, which are not to be observed in the former. In the inflammatory sore throat there is always great difficulty of swallowing, a considerable degree of tumour, with a tendency in the parts affected to suppurate, and a hard, full pulse. Moreover in the former affection the disease is seated principally in the mucous membrane of the mouth and throat; whereas in the latter the inflammation chiefly occupies the glandular parts.

The putril sore throat often arises from a peculiar state of the atmosphere, and so becomes epidemical; making its attacks chiefly on children, and those of a weak relaxed habit. It is produced likewise by contagion, as it is found to run through a whole family, when it has once seized any person in it; and it proves often fatal, particularly to those in an infintile state.

It usually makes its attack with cold shiverings, anxiety, nausea, and vomiting, succeeded by heat and restlessness, debility and oppression at the chest. The face looks flushed, the eyes are red, and a stiffness is perceived in the neck, with a hoarseness of voice, and soreness in the throat; and, upon viewing the internal fauces, there appears a fiery redness in every part, with some slight degree of swelling in the tonsils, which, however, is by no means so great as to impede either respiration or deglutition.

The inflammation, after a short time, takes a peculiar termination; for, upon further inspection into the throat, a number of white specks, or sloughs, are to be observed on the tonsils and uvula, the breath is highly offensive, the tongue is covered with a thick brown fur, and the inside of the lips are beset with vesicles, containing an acrid matter, which, falling on the corners of the mouth and other parts, occasions execriations. With these symptoms there is likewise a coryza, which pours out a thin aerid matter, excoriating the nostrils. A purging often attends also, particularly in infants, and a thin aerid matter flows from the anus, excoriating this and the neighbouring parts.

From the first attack of the complaint, there is a considerable degree of fever, with a small, frequent and irregular pulse; and every evening there occurs a manifest exacerbation, and in the morning some slight remission, together with general loss of strength, and debility. In some cases the brain is affected with delirium, or coma.

About the second or third day, large patches of a searlet or fiery red colour, make their appearance about the face and neck, which, by degrees, become dispersed over every part of the body, even to the extremities of the fingers, which feel swelled and stiff. These eruptions, after continuing for about four days, then depart without producing any remission of the symptoms.

In bad cases, the sloughs corrode deeper and deeper, and spread throughout the whole of the alimentary tube, so as to terminate at last in gangrene; and the symptoms of irritation continuing to increase, together with a severe purging, the patient is at length cut off; which event happens usually before the seventh day, and in some

cases so early as on the third.

Where there is a great increase of the evening paroxysm of fever, with vast debility, irregularity in the pulse, much fetor of breath, and a livid appearance in the ulcers, with a purging, or hamorrhage, the disease will certainly terminate fatally but when the fever is moderate, and of a less putrid nature, and suffers a remission on the appearance of the efflorescence on the skin; and when this remission increases as it proceeds, together with a falling off of the cuticle in scales, it promises fair to terminate in a return of health.

From dissections it appears that, in this

disease, the fauces are inflamed, suppurated and gangrenous; and that the trachea and larynx are likewise in a state of inflammation, and lined with a viscid fetid matter. In many instances, the inflammatory affection extends to the lungs themselves. Large swellings of the lymphatic glands about the neck, occasioned by an absorption of the acrid matter poured out in the fauces, are now and then to be The same morbid appearances which are to be met with in putrid fever, present themselves in other parts of the

CYNANCHE A DEGLUTITIS. Quincy from

hard substances swallowed.

CYNANCHE A DYSENTERIA. Quincy from dysentery.

CYNANCHE ANGINOSA. The inflammatory quincy. Quincy from

CYNANCHE ARTHRITICA.

The cynanche CYNANCHE EPIDEMICA.

CYNANCHE GANGRENOSA. The cynanche maligna.

Quincy from a CYNANCHE HEPATICA. disease of the liver.

The cynanche CYNANCHE LARYNGEA. trachealis.

CYNANCHE MALIGNA. See Cynanche.

CYNANCHE PAROTIDEA. See Cynanche. CYNANCHE PHARYNGEA. See Cynanche.

Common sore CYNANCHE PRUNELLA. throat.

CYNANCHE PURPURO-PAROTIDEA. A CYnanche maligna, or malignant sore throat. CYNANCHE STRIDULA. The croup. Cynanche.

CYNANCHE THYMICA. Sore throat from an enlargement of the thyroid gland.

CYNANCHE TONSILLARIS. See Cynanche. CYNANCHE TRACHEALIS. See Cynanche. CYNANCHE ULCEROSA. The malignant sore throat.

CYNANCHICA. (From EUVAY Xn, the quincy.) Medicines which relieve a quincy.

ČΥΝΑΝΤΕΠΟΡΙΑ. (From κυων, a dog, and ανθρωπος a man.) It is used by Bellini, De Morbis Capitis, to express a particular kind of melancholy, when men fancy themselves changed into dogs, and imitate their actions.

CYNARA SCOLYMUS. See Cinara.

CYNCHNIS. (Kuyxvis.) A vessel of any kind to hold medicines in.

CYNOCOCTANUM. (From xuva, a dog, and noslayor, the herb coctanum.) A species of aconitum, said to destroy dogs if they eat it.

CYNOCRAMBE. (From NUW, a dog, and κεμμών, cabbage; a herbe of the cabbage tribe, with which dogs are said to physic themselves.) Dog's mercury. Mercurialis perennis of Linnxus. A poisonous plant very common in our hedges. It produces vomiting and purging, and the person then

goes to sleep, from which he does not often awake

CYNOCYTISIS. (From KUWV, a dog, and и покоз, the cytisus; so named because it was said to cure the d stemper of dogs.)

The dog-rose. See Cynosbatus.

Cynopecros. (From κυων, a dog, and δατνω, to bite.) So Dioscorides calls a per-

son bit with a mad dog.

CYNODESMION. (From RUWY, a dog, and See, to bind; so named because in dogs it is very discernible and strong.) A ligature by which the prepuce is bound upon the glans. Sometimes it signifies the lower part of the prepuce.

(Kuvefortes: from nuw, a CYNODONTES. dog, and odes, a tooth.) The canine teeth.

CYNOGLOSSUM. (From NUWY, a dog, and γλωσσα, a tongue; so named from its supposed resemblance.) Hound's tongue.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.
2. The pharmacopæial name of the Lingua canina of some authors. Cynoglossum, officinale of Linnaus:-staminibus coralla brevioribus; foliis lato lanceolutis, tomentosis, sessilibus. It possesses narcotic powers, but is seldom employed medicinally. Acids are said to counteract the ill effects from an overdose more speedily than any thing else, after clearing the stomach.

CYNOGLOSSUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name for hound's tongue. See Cy-

noglassum

(From xuw, a dog, and CYNOLOPHUS. λόφος, a protuberance; so called because in dogs they are peculiarly eminent.) The asperities and prominences of the vertebra.

CYNOLYSSA. (From RUGY, a dog, and AUGON, madness.) Canine madness.

CYNOMORIUM. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Monæcia. Order, Monandria

CYNOMORIUM COCCINEUM. The systematic name of the fungus melitensis. See Fungus melitensis.

CYNOPASTUM. (From RUGY, a dog, and σπαω, to attract.) See Cynosbatus.

(From xuw, a dog, and CYNOREXIA. opegis, appetite.) A voracious or canine appetite. See Bulimia.

CYNOSBATOS. See Cynosbatus.

CYNOSBATUS. (From nuwr, a dog, and Balo, a thorn; so called because dogs are said to be attracted by its smell.) Cynor-rhodon Cynosbutos. The dog-rose, or wild brier, or hip tree. Rosa canina of Linnæus:-germinibus ovatis pedunculisque glabris, caule petrolisque aculeatis. The fruit of this tree, called heps, or hips, has a sourish taste, and obtains a place in the London pharmacopæias in the form of conserve. It is seldom employed but to give form to more active remedies, in pills, boluses, linctuses, &c,

CYOPHORIA. (From 2005, a fectus, and

of a woman. Gestation. The pregnancy

CYPARISSUS. See Cupressus.

CYPERUS. (From πυπαξος, a little round vessel which its roots are said to resemble.) Cyperus. The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Triandria. Order, Monogynia.

CYPERUS LONGUS. The pharmacopoial name of the English galangale. Cyperus longus of Linnaus:—culmotriquetro folioso, umbella folioso supra-decomposita; pedunculs nudis, spicis alternis. The smell of the root of this plant is aromatic, and its taste warm, and sometimes bitter. It is now totally fallen into disuse.

CYPERUS ROTUNDUS. This species, the round cyperus, Cyperus rotundus of Linnuas:—culmo triqueto subnudo, umbella decomposita; spicis alternis linearibus, is generally preferred to the former, being a more gratefully aromatic bitter. It is chiefly used as a stomachic.

CYPHOMA. (From κυπλω, to bend.) gibbosity, or curvature of the spine.

Cypnosis. An incurvation of the spine.

Cypress spurge. See Esula minor.
CYPRINUM OLEUM. Flowers of cypress, calamus, cardamons, &c. boiled in olive

CYPRIUM. (From Kungos, Cyprus, an island where it is said formerly to have

island where it is said formerly to have abounded.) Copper. CYPRUS. The cypress-tree, or Eastern

CYPRUS. The cypress-tree, or Eastern privet; so called from the island of Cyprus, where it grew abundantly.

Cypselis. (From xu year, a bee-live.) The aperture of the ear; the ear-wax.

Cyrenisis. (Fr m κυζκναω, to mix.)
A mixture, or composition.

CYRTOMA. (From \*voglos, curved.) An unnatural convex tumour; tympanites.

CYRTONOSUS. (From uvglos, curved, and vocos, a disease.) The rickets, or curved spine.

Crasanus. (From 2000s, the anus.) The intestinuin rection is so called, because it reaches to the anus.

Cyssoris. (From xuous, the anus.) An inflammation of the anus.

CYSTEOLITHUS. (From μυσις, the bladder, and λιθος, a stone.) The stone in the bladder

Crsmus. (Koobos.) The anus.

CYSTIC. Belonging to the urinary or gall ladder.

CYSTIC DICT. Ductus cysticus. The membraneus canal that conveys the bile from the hepatic ductinto the gall-bladder.

CYSTICA. (From wsw, the bladder.)
Remedies for diseases of the bladder.

Cysted tumours. (From Rusis a bag.) Encysted tumours.

Crytiphlogia. (From κυσκ, the bladder, and φληφ, to burn.) An inflammation in the bladder.

CYSTIRRHAGIA. (From 20016, the blad-

der, and geo, to flow.) A discharge of blood rom he bladder.

CYSTIS (Kusk, a bag.) The bladder; any recep acle of morbid humours. See Urinary bladder.

CYSTIS CHOLEDOCHA. See Gall-bladder.

CYSTIS FELLEA. See Gall bladder.

CVSTITIS. (From xusus, the bladder.) Inflammation of the bladder. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class, pyrexie, and order phlegmasie. It is known by great pain in the region of the bladder, attended with fever and hard pulse, a painful discharge of urine, and a frequent desire to make water. This is rarely a primary disease, and when it occurs, the above character of it will readily point it out. There is frequently also nausea a d vomiting, and, in some cases, delirium. It most generally arises in consequence of inflammation of the adjacent parts, or from calculi in the bladder.

CYSTOCELE, (From west, the bladder, and wan, a tumour.) An herma formed by the protusion of the urinary bladder.

CYSTOLITHICUS. (From xusic, the bladder, and xibue, a stone.) A suppression of urine from a stone in the bladder, is called ischuria cystolithica.

CYSTOPHLEGICUS. (From 20516, the bladder, nud φλεγω, to burn.) A suppression of urme from an inflanmation of the bladder, was formerly called ischuria cystophlegmatica.

Cystophlegmatica. (From 2051s, the bladder, and φλεγμα, phlegm.) A suppression of urine, from too much matter or mucus in the bladder, was called ischuria cystophlegmatica.

Cystoracetica. (From xusus, the bladder, and wgwxlss, the anus, or rectum.) A suppression of urine from pain in the bladder, caused by wind, inflammation of the rectum, hardened faces, &c. is called ischuria cystoproetica.

CYPTOPTO 18. (From 2050s, the bladder, and 2017/20, to fall.) A protusion of the inner membrane of the bladder, through the trethra.

Cystospasticus. (From κυσις, the bladder, and σλασμα, a spasm.) A suppression of urine, from a spasm in the sphineter of the bladder, was called ischura cystospastica.

Cystospyicus. (From 2050, the bladder, and 2000, pus.) A suppression of urine, from purulent matter in the bladder, was called ischuria cystospyica.

CYSTOTHROMBOIDES. (From xosis, the bladder, and beginson of urine, from a concretion of grumous blood in the bladder, was called ischuria cystothromboides.

CYSTOTOMIA. (From 2051), the bladder, and Isuau, to cut) The operation of cutting or piercing the bladder

CTTHION. An eye-wash.

CYTINUS. (From xua, to produce; so called from its fecundity.) The bud or

flower of the pomegranate.

CYTINUS HYPOCISTIS. The plant from whose fruit the succus hypocistidis is obtained. See Hypocistis.

CYTISO-GENISTA. Common broom. See Genista.

CYXICENUS. A plaster for wounds of the nerves.

CYZEMER. A painful swelling of the wrists.

## D.

This letter signifies vitriol in the old

chemical alphabet.

(From Saxva, to bite.) DACNERUS. Biting. Pungent. An epi het for a sharp collyrium, or eye-wash, composed of burnt copper, pepper, cadmia, myrrh, and opium.

DACRYDIUM. (From Sangu, a tear.)
The inspissated juice of scammony. It is in small drops, and therefore called a

tear.

DACRYGELOSIS. (From Sangua, to weep, and yenaw, to laugh.) A species of insanity, in which the patient weeps and laughs at the same time.

DACRYODES. (From Sangua, to weep.)

A sanious ulcer. A weeping sore.

DAETROMA. (From Sangua, to weep.)
A union of one or more of the puncta lachrymalia, causing an effusion of tears.

DACTYLETHRA. (From Sauluxos, a finger.) A species of bougies shaped like a finger,

to excite vomiting.

DACTYLETUS. (From Saxluxos, the date.)

The hermodactylus.

DACTYLIUS. (From faxluxos, a finger.) A round pastil troche, or lozenge, shaped

like a finger.

DACTYLUS. (A finger; so called from the likeness of its fruit to a finger.) The date. The oblong fruit of the Phanix dactulifera of Linnæus :- frondibus pinnatis; foliolis ensiformibus complicatis. Before they are ripe, dates are rather rough and astringent; but when perfectly matured, they are much of the nature of the fig. See Carica. Senegal dates are most esteemed, they having a more sugary, agreeable flavour than those of Ægypt and other places.

DEDIUM. (From Sais, a torch.) A small

torch or candle. A bougie.

DAMNATUS. (From damno, to condemn) Caput mortuum. The dry useless faces left in a vessel after the moisture has been distilled from it, is called terra damnata.

Daisy, common. See Bellis minor. Daisy, ox eye. See Bellis major. Damask rose. See Rosa centifolia.

DEMONOMANIA. (From δαιμον, a dæmon, and μανια, madness.) That species of melancholy, where the patient supposes himself to be possessed of devils.

Damson. The fruit of the Prunus da-

mascena, which, when perfectly ripe, affords a wholesome article for pies, tarts, &c. gently opening the body; but when damsons are not perfectly mature, they produce cholicy pains, diarrhæa, convulsions in children.

Dandelion, See Taraxacum. Dandrif. See Pityriasis. Dane-wort. See Ebulus.

DAPHNE. (Daphne, Sapre: from Saw, to burn, and φωνη, a noise; because of the noise it makes when burnt.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Octandria. Order, Monogynia. The laurel, or bay-tree.

Daphne, flax-leaves. See Thymelaa.
Daphne GNIDIUM. The systematic name of the tree which affords the garou. See

Thymelæa.

DAPHNE LAUREOLA. The systematic name of the spurge laurel. See Laureola.

DAPHNE MEZERIUM. The systematic name of the mezereon. See Mezereum.

DAPHNELEON. (From δαφνη, the laurel, and ελαιον, oil.) The oil of bay-berries.

DAPHNITIS. (From δαφνη, the laurel)

A sort of cassia resembling the laurel.

DAPHNOIDES. (From δαφνη, the laurel, and ωδος, a likeness.) The herb spurge laurel.

DARSIN. (From darzin, Arab.) The grosser sort of cinnamon.

DARSIS. (From Segu, to excoriate.) An excoriation.

DARTOS. (From Segu, to excoriate; so called from its raw and excoriated appearance. The part so called, under the skin of the scrotum, is by some anatomists considered as a muscle, although it appears to be no more than a condensation of the cellular membrane lining the scrotum. It is by means of the dartos that the skin of the scrotum is corrugated and relaxed.

DASYMNA. (From Saous, rough.)

scabby roughness of the eye-lids.

DASYS. (Augus, rough.) A dry, parched tongue. Difficult respiration.

Date plum, Indian. See Indian date

Date. See Dactylus.

DATURA. (Blanchard says it is derived from the Indian word datire, of which he knows not the meaning.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

DATURA STRAMONIUM. The systematic name of the thorn apple. See Stramo-

nium.

steeped in must.

lieving the cholic, and discussing flatulen-The carrot.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnean system. Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia.
2. The pharmacopæial name of the garden carrot. Daucus sylvestris. Pastinaca sylvestris tenuifolia officinarum. The cultivated root of the Daucus carota of Linnæus :--- seminibus hispidis, petiolis subtus nervosis, scraped and applied in the form of a poultice, it is an useful application to phagedenic ulcers, and to cancers and putrid sores. The seeds, which obtain a place in the materia medica, have a light aromatic smell, and a warm acrid taste, and are esteemed for their diuretic qualities, and for their utility in calculous and nephritic complaints, in which an infusion of three spoonfuls of the seeds in a pint of boiling water, has been recommended; or the seeds may be fermented in malt liquor, which receives from them an agreeable flavour, resem-bling that of lemon peel. The boiled root is said, by many, to be difficult of digestion; but this is the case only when the stomach is weak. It contains a considerable quantity of the saccharine principle, and is very nutritious.

DAUCUS ALSATICUS. The oreoselinum

pratense.

DAUCUS ANNUUS MINOR. The caucalis anthriscus.

DAUCUS CAROTA. The systematic name of the carrot plant. See Daucus.

DAUCUS CRETICUS. Myrrhus annua. Candy Carrot. The seeds of this plant, Athamanta cretensis of Linnaus :- foliolis linearibus planis, hirsutis; petalis bipartitis; semimibus oblongis, hirsutis, are brought from the isle of Candy; they have an aromatic smell, and a slightly biting taste; and are occasionally employed as carminatives and diu-

retics in diseases of the primæ viæ and urinary passages.

DAUCUS SATIVUS. A variety of the daucus carota, whose seeds are preferred by some practitioners.

DAUCUS SEPRINUS. Common chervil.

DAUCUS SYLVESTRIS. Wild carrot. or bird's nest. The seeds of the wild plant are said to be more efficacious than those of the garden carrot; they possess demulcent and aromatic qualities, and are given, in infusion, or decoction, in calculous com-

Dead nettle, See Labium album. Deadly nightshade. See Belladonna.

DEAFNESS. It is occasioned by any thing that proves injurious to the ear, as loud noises from the firing of cannon, violent colds, particularly affecting the head, Decocrum ALTHERE. Decoction of marsh inflammation or ulceration of the mem-mallows. Take of dried marsh mallow

DAUCUS. (Are the fault, from its re-In some instances it ensues in consequence of preceding diseases, such as fever, syphilis, &c. and in others it depends upon an original defect in the structure or formation of the ear. In the last instance the person is usually not only deaf but likewise dun.b. See Paracusis.

DEARTICULATIO. (From de, and articulus, a joint.) Articulation admitting evident

motion.

DEASCIATIO. (From de, and ascio, to chip, as with a hatchet.) A bone splintered on its side.

DECAMPRON. (From Sexa, ten, and mugor, An aromatic ointment, an omtment.) mentioned by Oribasius, containing ten ingredients.

DECIDENTIA. (From decido, to fall down.) Cataptosis. Any change prolong-

ing acute diseases.

DECIDUA. (Decidua, sc. membrana; from decido, to fall down.) Membrana decidua. A very thin and delicate membrane or tunic, which adheres to the gravid uterus, and is said to be a reflexion of the chorion, and, on that account, is called decidua reflexa. The tunica decidua comes away after delivery, in small pieces, mixed with the lochia.

DECIMANUS. (From decem, ten, and mane, the morning.) Returning every tenth day,

applied to some erratic fevers.

DECLIVIS. (From de, and clivis, a hill.) Declining, descending. A name of an abdominal muscle, because of its posture.

DECOUTUM. (From decoquo, to boil) A decoction. Any medicine made by boiling in a watery fluid. In a chemical point of view, it is a continued ebullition with water, to separate such parts of bodies as are only soluble at that degree of heat. The following are among the most approved decoctions.

DECOCTUM ALBUM. See Decoctum cor-

DECOCTUM ALOES COMPOSITUM. pound decoction of aloes. Take of extract of liquorice, half an ounce; subcarbonate of potash, two scruples; extract of spiked aloe powdered, myrrh powdered, saffron stigmata, of each a drachm; water, a pint. Boil down to twelve fluid ounces, and strain; then add compound tincture of cardamoms, four fluid ounces. This decoction. now first introduced in the London Pharmacopæia, is analagous to an article in very frequent use, invented by the late Dr. Devalingin, and sold under the name of beaume de vie. By the proportion of tincture, which is added, it will keep unchanged for any length of time.

brane, hard wax, or other substances inter- roots, 3iv; raisins of the sun stoned, 3ii;

water, Hvjj. Boil to five pounds; place apart the strained liquor, till the f ces have subdued, then pour off the clear. This preparation, directed in the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, may be exhibited as a common drink in nephralagia, and many diseases of the urinary passages with advantage.

DECOCTUM ANTHEMIDIS. See Decoctum

chamæmeli.

DECOCTUM ASTRAGALI. Take of the root of the astragalus excapus, \$\frac{3}{2}\]; distilled water, \$\frac{1}{2}\]jj. These are to be boiled, till only a quart of fluid remain. The whole is to be taken, a little warmed, in the course of 24 hours. This remedy was tried very extensively in Germany, and said to evance very powerful effects, as an antisyphilitic

DECOCTUM BARDANÆ. Take of bardana root,  $3\sqrt{1}$ ; of distilled water,  $15\sqrt{1}$ . These are to be boiled till only two quarts remain. From a pint to a quart in a day is given, in those cases where sarsap rilla and other remedies that are called alterative are sup-

posed to be requisite.

DECOCTUM CHAMEMELI, Chamomile decoction. Take of chamomile flowers, \$\frac{3}{3}\$; carraway seeds, \$\frac{2}{3}\$ss; water, Hssv. Boil fifteen minutes, and strain. A very common and excellent vehicle for tonic powders, pills, &c. It is also in very frequent use

for fomentation and clysters.

DECOCTUN CINCHONA. Decoction of cinchona, commonly called decoction of Peruvian bark. Take of lance-leaved cinchona bark bruised, an ounce; water, a pint. Boil for ten minutes, in a vessel slightly covered, and strain the decoction while According to the option of the practitioner, the bark of either of the other species of cinchona, the cordifolia, or yellow, or the oblongifolia, or red, may be substituted for the lancifolia, or quilled; which is here directed. This way of administering the bark is very general, as all the other preparations may be mixed with it, as necessity requires. It is a very proper fomentation for prolapsus of the uterus and rectum.

Decoctum cornu. Decoctum album. Decoction of hartshorn. Take of burnt and prepared hartshorn, two ounces by weight; gum-arabic, 6 drachms by weight; distilled water, three pints. Boil, constantly stirring, to two pints, and strain. This decoction, which is omitted in the last edition of the London Pharmacopoxia, is a much weaker absorbent than the julep ecreta, but is much more agreeable to most people. It forms an excellent drink in fevers attended with diarrhoa, and acidities of the prima via.

DECOCTUM CYDONIE. Mucilago seminis cydonii mali. Mucilago seminum cydoniorum. Decoction of quince seeds. Take of quince seeds, two drachms; water, a pint. Boil over a gentle fire for ten minutes, then

strain. This decoction, in the new London Pharmacopæia, has been removed from among the mucilages, as being less dense than either of the others, and as being employed in larger doses, like other mucilaginous decoctions. In addition to gum, it contains other constituent parts of the seeds, and is, therefore, more apt to spoil than common mucilage, over which it possesses no other advantages than that it is more grateful, and sufficiently thin, without further dilution, to form the bulk of any liquid medicine. Its virtues are demulcent. Joined with syrup of mulberry, and a little borax, it is useful against aphthæ of the mouth and fauces.

Decoction of mezereon. Take of the bark of mezereon,  $\overline{3}jj$ ; liquorice root bruised,  $\overline{3}ss$ : water,  $\overline{1}bjjj$ . Boil it, with a gentle heat, down to two pounds, and strain it. From four to eight ounces of this decoction may be given four times a day, in some ob-tinate venereal and rheumatic affections. It ope-

rates chiefly by perspiration.

Decoctum dulcamaræ. Decoction of woody nightshade. Take of woody nightshade stalks, newly gathered, Zi; distilled water, Hiss. These are to be boiled away to a pint, and strained. The dose is half an ounce to two onnecs, mixed with an equal quantity of milk. This remedy is employed in inveterate cases of scrophula; in cancer and phagedæna; in lepra and other cutaneous affections; and in anomalous local diseases, originating in veneral lues.

Decoctum Geoffrææ inermis. Decoction of cabbage-tree plant. Take of bark of the cabbage-tree powdered, \$\frac{3}{3}\$; water, \$\frac{1}{3}\$; Boil it, with a gentle fire, down to one pound, and strain. This is a powerful anthelmistic. It may be given in doses of one table-spoonful to children, and four to adults. If disagreeable symptoms should arise from an over-dose, or from drinking cold water during its action, we must immediately purge with castor-oil, and dilute with acidulated drinks.

Decoctum Gualact officinalis composition. Decoctum Liquorum. Composited decoction of guaiacum, commonly called decoction of the woods. Take of guaiacum raspings, 5jjj; raisins stoned, 5jj; wasafras root, liquorice, each 5j; water, Ibx. Boil the guaiacum and raisins, with the water, over a gentle fire, to the consumption of one half; adding, towards the end, the sassafras and liquorice. Strain the liquorice without expression. This decoction possesses stimulant and diaphoretic qualities, and is generally exhibited in rheumatic and cutaneous diseases, which are dependent on a vitiated state of the humours. It may be taken by itself, to the quantity of a quarter of a pint, twice or thrice a day, or used as an assistant in a

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tives; the patient, in either case, keeping warm, in order to promote the operation of the medicine.

DECOCTUM HELLEBORI ALBI. Decoction of hellebore. Take of the root of white helfebore powdered, by weight, 3j; distilled water, two pints; rectified spirits of wine, 3 jj by weight. Boil the water, with the root, to one pint; and the liquor being cold and strained, add to it the spirit. This decoction, in the last London Pharmacopolia is called decoctum veratri. It is, however, a very efficacious application externally, as a wash, in tinea capitis, lepra, psora, &c. When the skin is very tender and irritable, it should be diluted with an equal quantity of water.

DECOCTUM HORDEL. Decoctum hordei distichi, Apua hordeata. Take of pearl barley, 3 jj; water, four pints and a half. First wash away any adhering extraneous substances with cold water; next, having poured upon the barley half a pint of water, boil for a few minutes. Let this water be thrown away, and add the remainder of the water boiling; then boil down to two pints and strain. Barley water is a nutritive and softening drink, and the most proper of all liquors in inflammatory diseases. It is an excellent gargle in inflammatory sore throats, mixed with a little mitre.

DECOCTUM HORDET COMPOSITUM. Decoctum pectorale. Compound decoction of barley. Take of decoction of barley, two pints; figs sliced, 3 jj; liquorice root, sliced and bruised, \$\bar{z}\$ss; raisins stoned, \$\bar{z}\$jj; water, a pint. Boil down to two pints, and strain. From the pectoral and demuleent qualities of this deeoction, it may be administered as a common drink in fevers and other acute disorders, in catarrh, and several affections of the chest.

DECOCTUM HORDET CUM GUMMI. Barley water, Ibjj; gum arab. 3j. The gum is to be dissolved in the barley decoction whilst warm. It then forms a suitable diluent in strangury, dysury, &c. for the gum, finding a passage into the bladder in an unaltered state, mixes with the urine, and prevents the action of its neutral saits on the urinary canal.

DECOCTUM LICHENIS. Decoction of liver-Take of liverwort, one ounce; water, a pint and a half. Boil down and strain.

The dose is from \$\frac{3}{2}\$ to \$\frac{3}{2}\$ iv.

Decourse lobelle Take a handful of the roots of the lobelia syphilities; distilled water, lbxjj. These are to be boiled in the usual way, till only four quarts re-The very desirable property of curing the venereal disease has been attributed to this medicine; but it is not more to be depended on than guaiacum, or other vegetable substances, of which the same thing has been alleged. The effects of

course of incrcurial or anatomical altera- this decoction are purgative; and the manner of taking it, as described by Swediaur, is as follows. The patient is to begin with half a pint twice a day. The same quantity is then to be taken four times a day, and continued so long as its purgative effect is not too considerable. When the case is otherwise, it is to be discontinued for three or four days, and then had recourse to again till the cure is completed. As this is a remedy on the old system, and not admitted into our pharmaeopæias, little confidence ought to be placed in it.

DECOCTUM LUSITANIEUM. Take of sliced sarsaparilla, lignum sassafras, lignum santalum rubrum, officinal lignum guaiacum, of each one ounce and a half; of the root of mezereon, coriander seed, of each half an ounce; distilled water, ten pounds. These are to be boiled till only half the fluid remains. The dose is a quart or more in a day.

" Take of sliced sarsaparilla, lignum santalum rubrum, lignum santalum citrinum, of each Zjss; of the root of glycyrrhiza and mezereon, of each 3jj; of lignum rhodii, officinal lignum guaacum, and lignum sassafras, of each 3ss; of antimony, 3j; distilled water, Hiv." These ingredients are to be macerated for 24 hours, and afterwards boiled, till the fluid is reduced to half its original quantity. From one to four pints are given daily.

The late Mr. Hunter notices this and also the following formula, in his Treatise on the Venercal Disease.

" Take of sliced sarsaparilla, of the root of China, of each 3j; walnut peel dried, xx; antimony, 3jj; pumice stone, powdered, 3j; distilled water, Bbx. The powdered antimony and pumice stone are to be tied in separate pieces of rag, and boiled along with the other ingredients" This last decoction is reckoned to be the genuine Lisbon diet drink, whose qualities have been the subject of so much encomium.

DECOCTOM MALVE COMPOSITUM. tum pro enemate. Decoctum commune pro clystere. Compound decoction of mallows. Take of mullows dried, an ounce : chamomile flowers dried, half an ounce; water, a pint. Boil for a quarter of an hour, and strain. A very excellent form for an comolhent clyster. A variety of medicines may be added to answer particular indica-

DECOCTUM MEZEREI. See Decoctum daphnes mezerei.

DECOCTUM PAPAVERIS. Decoctum pro fo-Fotus communis. Decoction of poppy. Take of white poppy capsules bruised, Biv; water four pints. Boil for a quarter of an hour, and strain. This preparation possesses antiseptic properties, and may be directed with advantage in spacelus, &c.

DECOCTUM PRO ENEMATE. See Decoctum malvæ compositum.

DECOCTUM PRO FOMENTO. See Decoctum

papaveris.

DECOCTUM QUERCUS Decoction of oak bark. Take of oak bark, 3j; water, two pints. Boil down to a pint, and strain. This astringent decoction has lately been added to the Lond. Pharm. and is chiefly used for external purposes. It is a good remedy in prolapsus ani, and may be used also in some cases as an injection.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLE. Decoction of sarsaparilla. Take of sarsaparilla root, sliced, Ziv; boiling water, four pints. Macerate for four hours, in a vessel lightly covered, near the fire; then take out the sarsaparilla and bruise it. After it is bruised, put it again into the liquor, and macerate it in a similar manner for two hours more; then boil it down to two pints and strain.

This decoction is much extolled by some practitioners, in phthisis, and to restore the strength after a long course of

mercury.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLE COMPOSITUM. Compound decoction of sarsaparilla. Take of decoction of sarsaparilla, boiling, 4 pints; sassafras root sliced, guriacum wood shavings, liquorice root bruised, of each an ounce; mezereon root bark, Ziji. Boil for a quarter of an hour, and strain. The alterative property of the compound is very great; it is generally given after a course of mercury, where there have been nodes and indolent ulcerations, and with great benefit. The dose is from half a pint to a pint in twenty-four hours.

DECOCTUM SENEGE. Decoction of sene-Take of senega root, \$\frac{7}{3}j\$; water, two pints. Boil down to a pint, and strain. This is now first introduced in the London Pharm, as being a useful medicine especially in affections of the lungs, attended with debility and inordinate secretion.

DECOCTUM ULMI. Decoction of elm bark. Take of fresh elm bark bruised, four ounces; water, four pints. Boil down to two pints, and strain. This may be employed with great advantage as a collyrium in chronic ophthalmia. It is given internally in some cutaneous eruptions.

Decoctum veratri. See Decoctum hel-

lebori albi.

DECOLLATIO. (From decollo, to behead.) The loss of a part of the skull.

DECOMPOSITION. A separation of

parts. See Analysis.

DECORTICATION. (From de, from, and cortex, bark.) The stripping of any thing of its bark, husk, or shell: thus almonds, and the like, are decorticated, that is, deprived of their pellicle, when ordered for medicinal purposes.

DECREPITATION. (From decrepo, to crackle.) A kind of crackling noise, which takes place in bodies when heated: it is peculiar to some kinds of salts; which, from a state of solution, are crystallized so rapidly, that the crystals formed burst into minute pieces.

DECUSSATION. (From decutio, to divide.) When nerves, or muscular fibres. cross one another, they are said to decus-

sate each other.

DECUSSORIUM. (From decusso, to divide.) An instrument to depress the dura mater, after trepanning.

defendo, to pre-(From DEFENSIVA. serve.) Cordial medicines, or such as resist infection.

DEFERENS. (From defero, to convey: because it conveys the semen to the vesi-

culæ seminales.) See Vas deferens. DEFLAGRATION. (From deflagro, to burn.) Calcination. A chymical term, chiefly employed to express the burning or setting fire to any substance; as nitre, sulphur &cc.

DEFLUXION. (From defluo, to run off.) A falling down of humours Defluxio. from a superior to an inferior part. Many writers mean nothing more by it than inflammation.

DEGLUTITION. (From deglutio, to swallow down.) A natural action, by which the masticated bole or a fluid is conveyed from the mouth into the fauces, and from thence through the @sophagus into the stomach.

DEGMUS. (From Sanva, to bite.) biting pain in the orifice of the stomach.

DEJECTIO ALVINA. Discharge of excrement by stool.

(From dejicio, to cast out.) DEJECTORIA. Purging medicines.

Deinosis. (From Servow, to exaggerate.) An enlargement of the supercilia.

DELACHRYMATIVA. (From de, and lachryma, a tear.) Medicines which dry the eyes, first purging them of tears.

DELAPSIO. (From delabor, to slip down.) A falling down of the anus, uterus, or in-

testines.

DELETERIOUS. (Deleterius ; from SHASEW, to hurt, or injure.) stances are so called which are of a poisonous nature

DELIQUESCENCE. Deliquation, or the gradually melting down of crystallized salts, from exposure to the air.

DELIQUIUM ANIMI. (Deliquium; from delinquo, to leave.) See Syncope.
DELIRIUM. (From deliro, to rave.) A febrile symptom, consisting in the persons acting or talking unreasonably. It is to be

carefully distinguished from an alienation of the mind, without fever. DELOCATIO. (From de, from, and locus

a place. A dislocation, or putting any part out of its proper place.

DELPHINIUM. (From denomous, the dolphin.) Larkspin; so called from the likeness of its flower to the dolphin's head. The name of a genus of plants in the Linner in system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Trigyma.

DELPHINIUM CONSOLIDA. The systematic name of the consolida regalis. See

Consolida regalis.

DELPHINUM STAPHYSAGHIA. The systematic name of stave-acre. See Staphisagria.

Delphys, Δε φυς. The uterus, or pudendum muliebre.

DELTA. (The Greek letter, A.) The external pudendom numbebre is so called, from the tri ngular shape of its hair.

DELITOIDES. (From διλτα, the Greek letter Δ, and ω/σς, a likeness; shaped like the Greek delia.) Sous acromio-clavi-lumeral of Dumas. A muscle of the superior extremity, situated on the shoulder. It arises exactly opposite to the trapezius, from one third part of the clavicle, from the acromium and spine of the scapula, and is inserted, tendinous, into the middle of the os humeri, which bene it lifts up directly; and it assists with the supra-spinatus and coracobrachials in all the actions of the humerus, except the depression; it being convenient that the arm should be raised and sustained, in order to its moving on any side.

DEMENTIA: (From de, and mens, without mind.) Madness. Delirium. Absence

of intellect.

DEMULCENTS. (Demulcentia, sc. medicamenta; from demulceo, to soften.) Medicines suited to obviate and prevent the action of acrid and stimulant matters; and that not by correcting or changing their acrimony, but by involving it in a mild and viscid matter, which prevents — from acting upon the sensible parts of our bodies, or by covering the surface exposed to their action.

Where these substances are directly applied to the parts affected, it is easy to perceive how benefit may be derived from their application. But where they are received by the medium of the stomach, into the circulating system, it has been supposed that they can be of no utility, as they must lose that viscidity on which their lubricating quality depends. Hence it has been concluded that they can be of no service in gonorrhoa, and some similar affections. It is certain, however, says J. Murray, in his Elements of Materia Medica and Pharmacy, that many substances which undergo the process of digestion, are afterwards separated, in their entire state, from the blood, by particular secreting organs, especially by the kidneys; and it is possible, that mucilaginous substances, which are the principal demulcents, may be separated in this manner. There can be no doubt, however, but that a great

share of the relief devulcents (fford, in irritation or inflammation of the art of passages, is owing to the large quarties of water in which they are drivised, by which the urine is readered less stimulating from dilution. In general, demulcents may be considered merely as substances less stimulating than the fluids usually applied.

Catarrh, d'arrhoa, dys mery, calculus, and gonordoa, are the diseases in which demulcents are employed. As they are medicines of no great power, they may be taken in as large quantities as the stomach

can bear.

The particular demuleents may be reduced to the two divisions of mucilages and expressed oils. The principal demuleents are the acacia vera, astragalus tragacantha, linum instatissimum, althea officinalis, malva sylvestris, glycyrrhiza glabra, cycas circinalis, orelis mascula, maranta arundinacea, triticum hybernum, ichthyocolla, olca Europæa, amygdalus communis, cetaceum, and cera.

DENDROLIBANUS. (From Serseov, a tree, and oxisaros, frankincense.) The herb rose-

mary, or frankincense trce.

DENS. (Quasi edens; from edo, to eat, or from edos, dorler.) A tooth. See Teeth. Many herbs have this specific name, from their fancied resemblance to the tooth of some animal; as dens teonis, the dandelion; dens canis, dog's tooth, &c.

DENS LEONIS. See Taraxacum.

DENTAGRA. (Dentagra. οδοντωγεα: from δω, a tooth, and αγεα, a seizure.) The tooth-ach; also an instrument for drawing the teeth.

DENTARIA. (Dentaria, from dens, a tooth; so called because its root is denticulated.) Dentillaria. Tooth-work. This plant is to be distinguished from the pelletory of Spain, which is also called dentaria. It is the Plumbago Europæa of Linnus:—foliis amplexicualibus, lanceolatis scabris. The root was formerly esteemed, prepared in a variety of ways, as a cure for the toothach, wising from carees

DENTARPAGA. (From cles, a tooth, and αgπαζω, to fasten upon.) An instrument

for drawing of tecth.

DENTATA. See Dentatus.

DENTATUS. (From dens, a tooth; from its tooth-like process.) Dentata. Epistrophicus. The second vertebra of the neck. It differs from the other cervical vertebra, by having a tooth-like process at the upper part of the body. See Vertebra.

part of the body. See Vertebra.

DENTELLARIA. (From dentella, a little tooth; so called because its root is denticulated.) The herb tooth-wort. See Den-

taria.

DENTES INCISONES. See Tecth.

DENTES CANINI. See Canine teeth. DENTES LACTEL. The milk-teeth.

Teeth, and Dentition.
DENTES MOLARES. See Teeth.

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DENTIFICEM. (From dons, a tooth, and done, to draw.) An instrument for drawing of teeth.

DENTIFRICE. (From dens, a tooth, and frizo, to rub.) A medicine to cican the

teeth

DENTI-CALPIUM. (From dens, a tooth, and scalps, to scrape.) An instrument for

scaling teeth.

DENTITION. (From dentio, to breed teeth.) The breeding or cutting of the teeth. The first dentition takes place about the sixth or seventh mouth, and the teeth are termed the primary or milk teeth. About the seventh year, these fail out, and are succeeded by others, which remain during life, and are called the secondary or peremial teeth. The last dentition takes place between the ages of twenty and five-and-twenty, when the four last grinders appear; they are called dentes sapientiae. See also Teeth.

DENTODUCUM. See Dentiducum.

DENUNATIO. (From denudo, to make

barc.) A laying bare the bone.

DEOBSTRUENTS. (Deobstruentia, sc. medicamenta; from de, and obstruo, to obstruct.) Medicines that are exhibited with a v.ew of removing any obstruction.

Deoppilativa. (From de, and oppilo, to stop.) Deoppilativa. Medicines which remove obstructions; deobstruct or aperi-

tive medicines.

DEPARTITIO. (From de, and partier, to

divide.) Scparating metals.

DEPERTURIO. (From dependo, to lose.)
Abortion, or the undue loss of the fætus.

DEFETIGO. (From de, and petigo, a running scab.) A ring-worm, or tetter. A scurf, or itch, where the sk n is rough.

DEPHLIEGRATIO. (From de, and phlegma, phlegm.) The operation of rectifying or freeing spirits from their watery parts.

DEPILATORY. (Depilatoria, sc. unguenta; from de, of, and pilus, the hair.)
Any application which removes the hairs from any part of the body; thus, a pitch cap pulls the hairs of the head out by the roots.

DEPLUMATIO. (From de, and pluma, a feather.) A disease of the eyelids, which

causes the hair to fall off.

DEFREMENSIO. (From deprehendo, to catch mawares.) The epilepsy is so called, from the suddenness with which persons are seized with it.

Depressio. (From deprime, to press down.) Depression. When the bones of the skull are forced inwards by fracture, they are said to be depressed.

DEPRESSOR. (From deprimo, to press down.) Several muscles are so termed, because they depress the part on which they act.

Defresson alm nasi. See Depressor labii superioris alaque nusi.

DEPRESSOR ANGULI ORIS. Trangularis of Winslow Depressor labiorum communis of Douglas. Depressor labiorum of Cowper. Sous-maxillo-labial of Dumas. A muscle of the mouth and hip, situated below the under hip. It arises, broad and fleshy, from the lower edge of the lower jaw, near the chin; and is inserted into the angle of the mouth, which it pulls downwards.

DEPRESSOR LABII INTERIORIS.
Quadratus of Winslow. Depressor labii inferioris proprius of Douglas and Cowper.
Mentonier labial of Dunas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, that pulls the under lip and skin of the side of the chin downwards.

and a little outwards.

LABII DEPRESSOR SUPERIORIS ALÆQUE NASI. Depressor alæ misi of Incisious andius of Winstow. Albinus. Depressor labii superioris proprius f Dou-Constrictores alarum nasi, ac de. pressores labii supersoris of Cowper. Max. illo-alveoli nasal of Dumas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, situated above the month, that draws the upper lip and ala nasi downwards and backwards. It arises, thin and fleshy, from the superior maxillary bone, immediately above the joining of the gums, with the two incisor teeth and cuspidatus; from thence it runs upwards, and is inserted into the upper lip and root of the ala of the nose.

DEPRESSOR LABII SUPERIORIS PROPRIUS. See Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi.

Depressor Lamorum communis. See Depressor anguli oris.

Dermesson oculi See Rectus inferior

Deprimens. See Rectus inferior oculi.
Depuration. (From depuro, to make clean.) Medicines which evacuate impurities.

DEPURATION. The freeing a liquor

or solid body from its foulness.

DEPURATORIUS. (From de, and purus, pure.) It is applied to fevers, which terminate in per-piration.

Denis. (Degis: from Segw, to excoriate.)

The skin.

off.) The doctrines of derivation and revulsion, talked of by the ancients, are now, in their sense of the terms, wholly exploded. Derivation means the drawing away any disease from its original seat to another part.

DERMA. (Aegua.) The skin.

Dermatores. (From Sigma, skin, and sides, a likeness.) Resembling skin, or leather, in its consistence. It is applied to the dura mater.

DERMATOLOGIA. (From δες μα, the skin, and λογος, a discourse.) A discourse or treatise on the skin.

DERTRON. (From Segs., skin.) The omentum, or perstongum, is so named, from its skin-like consistence.

DEESCENSORIUM. (From descendo, to A vessel in which the move downwards.) distillation by descent is performed.

Descensus (From descendo, to move downwards) The same chymists call it a distillation per descensum, by descent, when the fire is applied at the top and round the vessel whose orifice is at the bottom.

DESICCATIVA. (From desicco, to dry. up,) Such medicines as, being applied outwardly, dry up the humours and moisture running from a wound.

DESIFIENTIA. (From desipio, to dote.) A defect of reason. Symptomatic phrenzy. DESME. (From Sew, to bind up.) A bandage, or ligature.

Desmipsion. (From δετμη, a handful.) A small bundle, or little bandage.

Desmos. (From See, to bind up.) A bandage. An inflammatory stricture of a joint, after luxation.

DESPUMATION. (From despumo, to clarily ) The clarifying a fluid, or separat-

ing its foul parts from it.

DESQUAMATION. (From desquamo, to scale off.) The separating of lamina, or scales, from a bone. Exfoliation.

DESQUAMMATORIUM. (From desquamo, to cale off.) A trepan, or instrument to take a piece out of the scull.

DESTILLATION. See Distillation.

DESUDATIO, (From desudo, to sweat much.) An unnatural and morbid sweat-

DETENTIO. )From detineo, to stop, or hinder) Epilepsy is so called, from the suddenness with which the patient is seized.

DETERGENTS. (From detergo, to wipe away.) Medicines which cleanse and remove such viscid humours as adhere to and obstruct the vessels. Also such applications as clear away foulness from ulcers.

DEFONATION. (From detono, to make

a noise.) Explosion.

Detracton. (From detraho, to draw.) applied to a muscle, whose office is to draw the part to which it is attached.

DETRAHENS QUADRATUS. See Platysma myoides.

DETRUSOR URINÆ. (From Detrudo, to thrust out.) The name of a muscle whose office is to squeeze out the urine. The muscular coat of the urinary bladder was formerly so called.

DECTERI. (From & olegor, second; because it is discharged next after the fætus.) The

secundines, or after-birth.

DEUTEROPATHIA. (From Sediegos, cond, and mxtos, a suffering.) An affection or suffering by consent, where a second part suffers, from consent, with the part originally affected, as where the stomuch is disturbed through a wound in the head.

Devil's dung. See Assafatida.

DIABERUS. (From Subface, to strengthen; so caled, as afforcing the chief support to the foot) The ankle-bone.

DIABETES. (From &1, through, and &2x100, to pass.) An immoderate flow of urine. A genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi of Cullen. There are two species of this complaint: 1. Diabetes scrosus, in which there is a super bundant discharge of limped urine, of itusual minary taste. 2. Diabetes mellitus in which the urme is very sweet, and contains a great quantity of sugar. Great thirst, will a voracious appente, gradual emaciation of the whole body, and a frequent discharge of urine, containing a large proportion of s coharme and other matter, which is voided in a quantity far exceeding that of the aliment or third introduced, are the characteristics of this disease. Those of a shartered constitution, and those who are in the decline of life, are most subject to its attacks. It not unfrequently attends on hysteria, hypochondriasis, dyspepsia, and asthma; but it is alway, much milder when symptomatic, than when it appears as a primary affection.

Diabetes may be occasioned by the use of strong diuretic medicines, intemperance of life, and hard drinking; excess in venery, severe evacuations, or by any thing that tends to produce an impoverished state of the blood, or general debility. I has, however, taken place, in many instance-, with

out any obvious cause.

That which immediately gives rise to the disease, has ever been considered as obscure, and various theories have been alvanced on the occasion. It has been usual to consider diahetes as the effect of relaxation of the kidneys, or as depending on a general colliquation of the fluids. Dr. Rilcher, professor of medicine in the universily of Gaettengen, supposes the disease to be generally of a spasmodic nature, occasioned by a stimulus acting on the kidneys; hence a secretic aucta urine, and sometimes perversa is the consequence. Dr. Darwin thinks that it is owing to an inverted action of the urinary branch of the lymphatics; which doct, ine, although it did not escape the censure of the best ana. tomists and experienced physiologists, met, nevertheless, with a very favourable reception, on its being first announced. The late Dr. Cullen offered it as his opinion, that the proximate cause of this discose might be some fault in the assimilatory powers, or in those employed in converting alimentary matters into the proper animal fluids, which theory has since been adopted by Dr. Dobson, and still later by Dr. Rollo, surgeon general to the royal artil. The liver has been thought, by some, to be the chief source of the disease, but diabetes is hardly ever attended with any affection of this organ, as has been

proved by frequent dissections; and when observed, it is to be considered as acci-

The primary seat of the disease is, however far from being absolutely determined in favour of any hypothesis vet advanced, and, from the most attentive consideration of all the circumstances, the weight of evidence appears to induce the majority of pr ctitioners to consider diabetes as depending on a primary affection of the kidnevs.

Diabetes sometimes comes on slowly and imperceptibly, without any previous disorder; and it now and then arises to a considerable degree, and subsists long without being accompanied with evident disorder in any particular part of the system; the great inirst which always, and the voracions appetite which frequently occur in it, being often the only remarkable symptoms; but it more generally happens, that a considerable affection of the stomacl, precedes the coming on of the disease; and that, in its progress, besides the symptoms already mentioned, there is a great dryness in the skin, with a sense of weight in the kidneys, and a pain in the ureters, and the other urinary passages.

Under a long continuance of the disease, the body becomes much emaciated, the feet ædematous, great debility arises, the pulse is frequent and small, and an obscure fever, with all the appearance of hectic,

prevail.

The urine in diabetes, from being at first asipid, clear, and colourless, soon acqui es a sweetish or saccharine taste, its leading characteristic; and, when subjected to experiment, a considerable quantity of saccharine matter is to be extracted

In some instances, the quantity of urine is much greater than can be accounted for from all the sources united. Cases are recorded, in which 25 to 30 pints were discharged in the space of a natural day, for many successive weeks, and even months; and in which the whole ingesta, as was said, did not amount to half the weight of the To account for this overplus, it has been alleged that water is absorbed from the air by the surface of the body; as also that an extraordinary quantity of water is compounded in the lungs themselves.

Dissections of diabetes have usually shown the kidneys to be much affected. In some instances they have been found in a loose flabby state, much enlarged in size and of a pale ash colour; in others, they have been discovered much more vascular than in an healthy state, approaching a good deal to what takes place in inflammation, and containing, in their infundibula, a quantity of wnitish fluid, somewhat resembling pus, but without any sign of ulcera-

tion whatever. At the same time that these appearances have been observed in their interior, the superficial veins on their surface were found to be much fuller of blood than usual, forming a most beautiful net-work of vessels, the larger branches of which exhibited an absorbent appearance. In many eases of dissection, the whole of the mysentery has been discovered to be much diseased, and its glands remarkably enlarged; some of their being very hard, and of an irregular texture; others softer, and of a uniform spherical shape. Many of the lacteals have likewise been seen considerably enlarged. The liver, pancreas, spleen, and stomach, are in general perceived to be in a natural state; when they are not so, the occurrence is to be considered as accidental. The bladder, in many cases, is . found to contain a considerable quantity of muddy urme.

DIABETES HYSTERICUS. Large discharge

of urine in hysterical women.

DIABOLUS METALLORUM. Tin.

DIABOTANUM. (From Six and Gomann, a herb.) A plaster made of herbs.

DIACADMIAS. (From Siz, and xaduiz, cadmia.) The name of a plaster whose basis is

DIACALAMINTHES. (From Sia, and xaxaμινθης, calamint.) The name of an antidote, whose chief ingredient is cala-

DIACARCINUM. (From Siz and naguives, a crab.) The name of an antidote prepared from the flesh of crabs and cray-.

DIACARTON. (From Siz, and naguer, a nut.)

Rob of nuts, or wall nuts.

DIACASSIA. (From Siz, and narouz, cas-

sia.) Electuary of cassia.

DIACASTORIUM. (From & ia, and nasae, castor.) An antidote whose basis is cas-

DIACATHOLICON. (From Siz, and uzboxixos, universal.) The name of a purge, so called from its general usefulness.

DIACENTAURIUM. (From Sta, and revlaugion,

centaury.) The Duchess of Portland's powder is so called, because its chief ingredient is centaury.

DIACENTROTUM. From Siz, and newless, to prick.) A collyrium, so called from its pungency and stimulating qualities.

DIACHALCITIS. (From Siz yazude, chalcitis.) A plaster whose chief ingredient is

chalcitis.

Diachalsis. (From Suzzava, to be relax-A relaxation. The opening of the sutures of the head.

(From Siz, and yuz, the DIACHEIRISMUS hand.) Any operation performed by the hand.

(From dia, and xers. DIACHELIDONIUM Savior, cetandine.) A plaster whose chief ingredient was the herb celandine.

DIACHOREMA, (From Siaxweizw, separate from.) Diachoresis. Any excretion or excrement, but chiefly that by

Diacto ists. See Diachorema.

(From dia, and xpue, to DIACHRISTA. anomt ) Medicines to anoint sore or bruised parts.

DIACIRYSUM. (From Siz, and xpuros, gold.) A plaster for fractured limbs; so

named from its yellow colour.

Diaentium. (From δ<sub>1</sub>α, and χυλος, chyle.) The plaster of this name was formerly made of certain juices, but it now means an emollient digestive plaster.

DIACTESIS. (From Siz, and zue. to pour

out.) Fusien or melting.

DIACHTTICA. (From Suzue, to dissolve.) Medicines which discuss and dissolve tumours.

DIACINEMA. (From Siz, and zivea, to

move.) A light dislocation.

Diacissum. (From Siz. and ziooce, ivy.)

Dia rasis. (From Siz, and RASIG, to

break.) A small fracture

DIACLESMA. (From Siankulo, to week out.) \ gargarism, or wash for the mouth.

Dia Figureson. (From Siz, and non-numerior, plum. An electionry made of prunes.

DIACODIUM. (From dia, and nadia, a poppy head.) A composition made of the heads of poppies.

DIACOLOGYNTHIS. (From δια, and κολο-κυνθικ, the eologynth.) A preparation whose

chief ingredient is colocyuth.

DIACOMMA. (From Sianofle, to cut through.) Diacope. A deep cut or wound. DIACOPE. Sec Diacoma.

DI COPREGIA. (From Six, ROTTPOS, dung, and aix, a goat.) A preparation with goat's ding.

DIACORALLUM. (From Siz, and ROPERALION, coral. A preparation in which coral is a

chief ingredient.

Diacutsis. (From Sizapira, to distinguish.) The distinguishing diseases one from another by their symptoms.

DIACHOCIUM. (From Sia, and uponoc, s (fron.) A collyr.um in which is saffron

DIACURETHA. (From Siz, and RUPREMZ, turmeric.) An antidote in whice is turmeric or saffron.

DEACTHONIUM. (From Siz. and Rudavia, a numce.) Marmalade of quinces.

DIADAPHNIDION. (From Siz, and Sapric, the laurel tree.) A ilrawing-plaster in which were bay-berries.

DIADEMA. (From Stades, to surround.) A diadem or bar dage to put round the

DIADEXIS. (From Sudexques, to transfer.). Diadoche. A transposition of humours from one place to another.

DIADOCHE. See Diadexis.

DIADOSIS. (From Sadisficial, to distributc) The remission of a disorder.

DIERESIS. (From Spagesor, to divide or

separate.) A solution of continuity of the soft p rts of the human body.

DIARETICA, (From Sizipee, to divide.)

Corrosive medicines.

DIATA. (From Sixfixa, to nourish.) Diet; food. It means also the whole of the non-naturals. See Dict.

DIAGRAUCIUM. (From dia, and plausier, the blue juice of a herb.) An eye-water

made of the purging thistle.

DIAGNOSIS (From diagnatum to discern or distinguish.) The service which delivers the signs by which a disease may be distinguished from another disease; honce those symptoms which distinguish such affections are termed diagnostic.

Discuspion. Compled from discre-

dium or se a rmony

DETHIR RODACTELUM. (From dia, and spectationes the hermodactyl.) A purging med cir. whose basis is the hermedactyl.

BIAIREDN. (From Sir, and use, the hily.) An antidote in which is the root of the

DIAIUM. (From J.z., and 100, a violet.)

A pastil whose chief ingredient is visicis. Distacca. (From Siz, and Azzzz.) An

antidote in which is the lacca.

DIALAGOUM. (From Siz. and Azyec, a hare.) A medicine in which is the day of a hare.

DIALEMMA. (From Siz, and Auto, to leave.) The remission of a disease.

Dialepsis. (From dialetra, to leave a space.) An intermission. Also a space left between a band ge.

(From dia, and Maror DIALIBANUM frankineense.) A medicine in which frankincense is a chief ingredient.

DIALOES. (From dia, and aren, the aloe.) A medicine chiefly composed of aloes.

DIALTHEA. (From Sia, and anbaia, the mallow.) An ointment composed chiefly of mallows.

DIALYSIS. (From Suavo, to dissolve.) A solution of continuity, or a destruction of parts.

DIALYSES. An order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology.

DIALTTICA. (From Sizzue, to dissolve.) Medicines which heal wounds and fractures.

DIAMARGARITON. (From Sir, and Map. yaufle, pearl.) An antidote in which pearls are the chief ingredient.

DIAMASSEMA (From Sia and personal. to chew.) A masticatory, or substance put into the mouth, and chewed to excite a discharge of the saliva.

(From Siz, and zulez, am-DIAMBERA. ber.) An aromatic composition in which

was ambergris.

(From de, and mexor, a DIAMELON. A composition in which are quince.)

DIAMISTOS. (From dia, and pieve, misy.) A composition in which misy is an ingredient.

DIAMOND. The diamond, which was well known to the ancients, is principally found in the western peninsula of India, on the coast of Coromandel, in the kingdoms of Golconda and Visapour, in the island of

Borneo, and in the Brazils.

They are generally found bedded in vellow othre, or in rocks of free-stone, or quartz, and sometimes in the beds of running waters. When taken out of the earth they are incrusted with an exterior earthy covering, under which is another, consisting of carbonate of lime.

In the Brazils, it is supposed that diamonds might be obtained in greater quantities than at present, if the sufficient working of the diamond mines was not prohibited, in order to prevent that diminution of their commercial value, which a greater abun-

dance of them might occasion.

Brazilian diamonds are, in commercial estimation, inferior to the oriental oncs.

In the rough, diamonds are worth two pounds sterling the carat, or four grains, provided they are without blemish. The expense of cutting and polishing amounts to about four pounds more. The value however is far above what is now stated when they become considerable in size.

The usual method of calculating the value of diamonds is by squaring the number of carats, and then multiplying the amount by the price of a single carat; thus suppesing one carat to be 21. a diamond of 8 corats is worth 1281. being 8 × 8 × 2.

The famous Pigot diamond weighs 188

1.8th grains.

Physical Properties of Diamond.

Diamond is always crystallized but sometimes so imperfectly, that at first sight it might appear amorphous. The figure of diamond when perfect, is an eight-sided prism. There are also cubical, flat, and round diamonds. It is the oriental diamond which crystallizes into octobedra, and exhibits all the varieties of this primitive fi-The diamond of Brazil crystallizes into dodecahedra.

The texture of the diamond is lamellated, for it may be split or cleft with an instrument of well-tempered steel, by a swift blow in a particular direction. There are however some diamonds which do not appear to be formed of laminæ, but of twisted and interwoven fibres, like those of knots in wood. These exceed the others greatly in hardness, they cannot be cut or polished, and are therefore called by the lapidaries diamonds of nature.

The diamond is one of the hardest bodies known. It resists the most highly-tempered steel file, which circumstance renders it necessary to attack it with diamond powder. It takes an exquisite and lasting polish. It has a great refractive power, and hence its lustre, when cut into the form of a regular solid, is uncommonly great. . The usual colour of diamonds is a light gray, often inclining to yellow, at times lemon colour, violet, or black, seldomer rose-red, and still more rarely green or blue, but more frequently pale brown. The purest diamonds are perfectly transparent. The colourless diamond has a specific gravity which is in proportion to that of water as 3.512 to 1.000. according to Brisson. This varies however considerably. When rubbed it becomes positively electric, even before it has been cut by the lapidary.

Diamond is not acted upon by acids, or by any chymical agent, oxygen excepted; and this requires a very great increase of

temperature to produce any effect.

The diamond burns by astrong heat, with a sensible flame, like other combustible bodies, attracting oxygen and becoming wholly converted into carbonic acid gas

during that process.

It combines with iron by fusion, and converts, it like common charcoal, into steel; but diamond requires much more oxygen to burn in than common charcoal does, and even then it consumes but slowly, and ceases to burn the instant its temperature is, lowered.

It is considered by modern chymists as pure crystallized carbon. See Carbon.

DIAMORON. (From Sia, and Margor, a mulberry.) A preparat on of mulberries.

DIAMOSCHUM. (From Siz, and MOTXOS, musk.) An antidote in which musk is a. chief ingredient.

DIAMOTOSIS. (From Siz, and molos, lint.) The introduction of lint into an ulcer or

DIANA. (A name of the moon.) The chymical name for silver from its white shining appearance.

DIANANCASMUS. (From δια, and αναγ-καζω, to force.) The forcible restoration of a luxated part into its proper place. An instrument to reduce a distorted spine.

DIANTHUS. (From Die, Sie, Jove, and avocs, a flower; so called from the elegance and fragrance of its flowers.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Digy-

DIANTHUS CARYOPHYLLUS. The systematic name of the clove-pink. See Caryophyllum rubrum.

DIAPASMA. (From διαπασσω, to sprinkle.) A medicine reduced to powder and sprinkled over the body, or any part.

DIAPEDESIS. (From Siamosaw, to leap through.) The transudation or escape of blood through the coats of an artery.

DIAPEGMA. (From Sianvyvum, to close together.) A surgical instrument for closing together broken bones.

DIAPENTE. (From Siz. and mevre, five.) A medicine composed of five ingredients.

DIAPHANOUS. (From Siz, through, and paive, to shine.) A term applied to any substance which is transparent; as the hyaloid membrane covering the vitreous humour of the eye, which is as transparent

DIAPHENICUM. (From Sia, and point a date.) A medicine made of dates.

DIAPHORA. (From Stapepa, to distinguish.) The distinction of diseases by their characteristic marks and symptoms.

DIAPHORESIS. (From Surgeges, to carry through.) Perspiration or increased cutaneous secretion.

DIAPHORETICS. (Diaphoretica, sc. medicamenta; from Suapogew, to carry through.) Medicines which, from being taken internally, increase the discharge by the skin. When this is carried so far as to be condensed on the surface, it forms sweat; and the medicines producing it are named sudorifics. Between diaphoretics and sudorifics there is no distinction; the operation is in both cases the same, and differs only in degree from augmentation of dose, or employment of assistant means. This class of medicines comprehends five orders: 1. Pungent diaphoretics, as the volatile salts and essential oil, which are well adapted for the aged; those in whose system there is little sensibility; those who are difficultly affected by other diaphoretics; and those whose stomachs will not bear large doses of medicines. 2. Calefacient diaphoretics, such as serpentaria, contrayerva, and guaiacum: these are given in cases where the circulation is low and languid. 3. Stimulant diaphoretics, as antimonial and mercurial preparations, which are best fitted for the vigorous and plethoric. 4. Antispasmodic diaphoretics, as opium, musk, and camphire, which are given to produce a diaphoresis, when the momentum of the blood is increased. 5. Diluent diaphoretics, as water, whey, &c. which are best cal-

DIAPHRAGMA (From Six, and opention, Septum transversum. to divide.) midrif, or diaphragm. A muscle that divides the thorax from the abdomen. is composed of two muscles; the first and superior of these arises from the sternum, and the ends of the last ribs on each Its fibres, from this semi-circular origination, tend towards their centre, and terminate in a tendon, or aponeurosis, which is termed the centrum tendinosum. The second and inferior muscle comes from the vertebræ of the loins by two productions, of which that on the right side comes from the first, second, and third vertebræ of the loins; that on the left side is somewhat shorter, and both these proportions join and make the lower part of the dianhragm, which joins its tendons with the tendon of the other, so that they make but one muscular partition. It is covered by the pleura on its upper side, and by the

culated for that habit in which a predis-

position to sweating is wanted; and in

which no diaphoresis takes place, although

there be evident causes to produce it.

peritonæum on the lower side. It is pierced in the middle, for the passage of the vena cava; in its lower part for the œsophagus, and the nerves, which go to the upper orifice of the stomach; and betwixt the productions of the inferior muscle, passes the aorta, the thoracic duct, and the vena azygos. It receives arteries and veins called phrenic or diphragmatic, from the cava and aorta; and sometimes on its lower part two branches from the vena adiposa, and two arteries from the lumbares. It has two nerves which come from the third vertebra of the neck, which pass through the cavity of the thorax, and are lost in its substance. In its natural situation the diaphragin is convex on the upper side towards the breast, and concave on its lower side towards the belly: therefore, when its fibres swell and contract, it must become plain on each side, and consequently the cavity of the breast is enlarged to give liberty to the lungs to receive air in inspiration; and the stomach and intestines are pressed for the distribution of their contents; hence the usc of this muscle is very considerable; it is the principal agent in respiration, particularly in inspiration; for when it is in action the cavity of the thorax is enlarged, particularly at the sides, where the lungs are chiefly situated; and as the lungs must always be contiguous to the inside of the thorax and upper side of the diaphragm the air rushes into them, in order to fill up the increased space. In expiration it is relaxed and pushed up by the pressure of the abdominal muscles upon the viscera of the abdomen; and at the same time that they press it upwards, they pull down the ribs, by which the cavity of the thorax is diminished, and the air suddenly pushed out of the lungs.

DIAPHRAGMATITIS. (From διαφραγμα, the diaphragm.) Diaphragmitis. Paraphrenitis. An inflammation of the diaphragm. See Paraphrenitis.

DIAPHEAGMITIS. See Paraphrenitis.

Diaphthora. (Front διαφθέρα, to corrupt.) An abortion where the fœtus is corrupted in the womb.

DIAPHYLACTICA. (From διαφυλασσω, to preserve.) Medicines which resist putrefaction or prevent infection.

DIAPHYSIS. (From διαφυα, to divide.) An interstice or partition between the joints.

DIAPISSELÆUM. (From δια, and σισσελαιον, the oil of pitch, or liquid pitch.) A composition in which is liquid pitch.

DIAPLASIS. (From διατλάσσα, to put together.) The replacing a luxated or fractured bone in its proper situation.

DIAPLASMA. (From διαπλασσα, to anoint.) An unction or fomentation applied to the whole body or any part.

DIAPNE. (From States, to blow through

or pass gently as the breath does.) An involuntary and insensible discharge of the

(From Sixtrea, to breathe through.) The transpiration of air through

the pores of the skin.

DIAPNOICA. (From Sizzrew, to trans i.e.) Diaphoretics or medicines which promote perspiration.

(From Sixworsw, to be in DIAPOREMA.

doubt.) Nervous anxiety.

DIAPORON (From da, and orapa, autumnal fruits.) A composition in which are several autumnal fruits, as quinces, medlars, and services.

DIAPRASSIUM. (From Siz. and mparticy, horehound.) A composition of horehound. DIAPRUNUM. (From Siz, and mpsvn, a

prune ) An electuary of prunes.

DIAPSORICUM. (From Su, and Japa, the itch or scurvy.) A medicine for the itch or scurvy

DIAPTERNES. (From Siz, and Tippez, the heel.) A composition of cow heels and

DIAPTEROSIS. (From Sex, and Alepov, a feather.) The cleaning the ears with a fea-

DIAPYEMA. (From Sia, and muoy, pus.)

A suppuration or absce-s.

DIAPYEMATA. (From Statumua, a suppuration.) Suppurating medicines.

DIAPPETICA. (From Siatunua, a suppu-

ration.) See Diapyemata.

DIARHUCHA. (From dia, and pages, a space.) The space between the foldings of a bandage.

DIARIUS. (From dies, a day.) A term applied to fevers which last but one day.

DIAROMATICUM. (From Sia, and apopua-Tixov, an aromatic.) A composition of spices.

Diarrhage. (From Siappnyvumi, to break asunder.) A fracture of the temple bones.

DIABRHODOMELI. (From Siagosov, a rose, and ment, honey.) Scammony, agaric, pepper and honey.

(From dia, and podov, a DIARRIGODON.

rose.) A composition of roses.

DIARRHŒA. (From diagesw, to flow through.) A purging. It is distinguished by frequent stools with the natural excrement, not contagious, and seldom attended with pyrexia. It is a genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi of Cullen, containing the following species: 1. Diarrhau crapulosa. The feculent diarrhaa, from crapulus, one who overloads his stomach. 2. Diarrha biliosa. The bilious, from an increased secretion of bile. 3. Diarrhau mucosa. The mucous, from a quantity of slime being voided. 4. Diarrhan hepatirrhan. The hepatic, in which there is a quantity of scrous matter, somewhat resembling flesh, voided; the liver ber 3 marriy affected. 5. Diarrhaa lienterica. The lientery; when the food passes

unchanged. 6. Diarrhau caliaca. The coliac passion: the food passes off in this affection in a white liquid state like chyle. 7. Durrhaa verminsa. Arising from worms.

DIARTHROSIS. (From Suppeou, to articulate.) A moveable councaion of bones. This genus has five species, viz. enarthrosis, arthrodia, ginglymus, trochoides, and amplivarthrosis.

DIASAPONIUM. (From Siz, and ourar,

soap.) An ointment of soap.

DIASATTRIUM. (From Sia, and ralupion, the orchis.) An ointment of the orchis-

Diascillium. (From dia, and oxida, the squill.) Oxymel and vinegar of squills.

Diascincus. (From dia, and out nos, the crocodile.) A name for the mithridate, in the composition of which there was a part of the crocodile.

DIASCORDIUM. (From Six, and ousplier, the water germander.) Electuary of scor-

Diasena. (From dia, and sena.) A medicine in which is seima.

DIASMYRNUM. (From Siz, and Guupyn, myrrh.) A collyrium containing myrrh.

DIASOSTICA. (From Suzala, to preserve.)

Medicines which preserve health,

DIASPERMATUM. (From dia, and oreque, seed.) A medicine composed chiefly of

DIASPHAGE. (From Siaopaža, to separate.) Diusphaxis. The interstice between two veins.

DIASPHYXIS. (From Siz. and opula, to

strike.) The pulsation of an artery.
DIASTASIS. (From διστημι, to separate.) Diastema. A separation.

1. A separat on of the ends of bones.

2. (From Surraya, to distend.) The extension of a fractured limb, in order to reduce it.

DIASTETUMA. (From dia, and seap, fat.) An ointment of the fat of animals.

DIASTEMA. See Diastusis.

DIASTOLE. (From Siz, and στελλω, to stretch.) The dilatation of the heart and ar-

(From Siasopica, to di-DIASTOMOSIS. late.) Any dilatation, or dilating instru-

DIASTREMMA. (From diaspeque, to turn aside.) Diastrophe. A distortion of any limb or part.

DIASTROPHE. See Diastremma.

DIATECOLITHUM. (From Siz, and Innoxibos, the Jew's stone.) An antidote containing lapis judaicus.

DIATERESIS. (From Six, and Tepew, to perforate.) A perforation or aperture.

DIATERETICA. (From Siz, and Tepew, to preserve.) Medicines which preserve health and prevent disease.

(From dia, and Terrapes, DATESSARON four ) A medicine compounded of four simple ingredients.

DIATETTIGUM. (From diz, and Netlig, a grasshopper.) A medicine in the composition of which were grasshoppers.

(From Sizenius, to dis-DIATHESIS. pose.) Any particular state of the body: thus, in inflammatory fever, there is an inflammatory diathesis, and, during putrid fever, a putrid diathesis.

DIATHESMUS. (From Statew, to run through.) A rupture through which some

fluid escapes.

DIATRAGACANTHUM. (From δια, and τραγακανθα, tragacanth.) A medicine composed of gum-tragacanth.

DIATRIUM. (From Sia, and Ipeis, three.) A medicine composed of three simple in-

gredients.

DIAXYLALOES. (From Siz, and Euraron, the lign aloe.) A medicine in which is

lignum aloes.

DIAZOMA. (From διαξωννυμι, to surround; because it surrounds the cavity of the tho-

rax.) The diaphragm.

Diazosten, (From Statewroun, to surround; because when the body is girded, the belt usually lies upon it.) A name of the twelfth vertebra of the back.

DICENTETUM. (From Siz, and nevlew, to stimulate.) A pungent stimulating col-

lyrium.

DICHASTERES. (From διχαξω, to divide, because they divide the foot.) A name of the fore-teeth.

DICHOPHYIA. (From fixz double, and φυω, to grow.) A distemper of the hairs, in which they split and grow forked.

DICROTIC. (Dicroticus, sc. pulsus; from dia, twice, and xexw, to strike.) term given to a pulse in which the artery rebounds after striking, so as to convey the sensation of a double pulsation.

DICTAMNITES. (From Sinlamvos, dittany.)

A wine medicated with dittany.

(From Dictamnus, a DICTAMNUS. city in Crete, on whose mountains it grows.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaun system. Class, Decandria. Order,

Monogynia. Dittany.

DICTAMNUS ALBUS. White fraxinella, or bastard dittany. Fraxinella. Dictamus albus; foliss pinnatis, caule simplici, of Linnaus. The root of this plant is the part directed for medicinal use; when fresh, it has a moderately strong, not disagreeable, smell. Formerly it was much used as a stomachic, tonic, and alexipharmic, and was supposed to be a medicine of much efficacy in removing uterine obstructions and destroying worms; but its medi-cinal powers became so little regarded by modern physicians, that it had fallen almost entirely into disuse, till Baron Stoerck brought it into notice, by publishing several cases of its success, viz. in tertian intermittents, worms (lumorici) and men-strual suppressions. In all these cases, he

employed the powdered root to the extent of a scruple twice a day. He also made use of a tincture, prepared of two ounces of the fresh root digested in 14 ounces of spirit of wine; of this, 22 to 50 drops two or three times a day, were successfully employed in epilepsies, and, when joined with steel, this root, we are told, was of great service to chlorotic patients. dictamnus undoubtedly, says Dr. Woodville, is a medicine of considerable power; but notwithstanding the account of it given by Stoerck, who seems to have paid little attention to its modus operandi, we may still say with Haller " nondum autem vires pro dignitate exploratus est," but is now fallen into

DICTAMNUS CRETICUS. Dittany of Crete. Origanum creticum. The leaves of this plant, Origanum dictamnus; foliis inferioribus tomentosis, spicis nutantibus, of Linnæus, are now rarely used; they have been recommended as emmenagogue and alexipharmic.

DIDYMÆA. (From δίδυμος, double.) A cataplasm; so called by Galen, from the

double use to which he put it.

DIDIMI. (From & idopos, double.) Twins. An old name of the testicles, and two eminences of the brain, from their double protuberance.

(Fom ola, and excanac, DIECBOLIUM. to cast out.) A medicine causing an abor-

DIELECTRON." (From Sta, and executor, amber.) A name of a troche, in which

amber is an ingredient. DIERVILLA. (Named in honour of Mr. Dierville, who first brought it from Arcadia.) The young branches of this species of honeysuckle, Lonicera diervilla racemis terminalibus, foliis serratis of Linnæus, are employed in North America as a certain remedy in gonorrhoa and suppression of

urine. It has not yet been exhibited in Europe.

DIET. The dietetic part of Diæta. medicine is no inconsiderable branch, and seems to require a much greater share of regard than it commonly meets with. A great variety of diseases might be removed by the observance of a proper diet and regimen, without the assistance of medicine, were it not for the impatience of the However, it may on all occasufferers. sions come in as a proper assistant to the cure, which sometimes cannot be perform-ed without a due observance of the nonnaturals. That food is, in general, thought the best and most conducive to long life, which is most simple, pure, and free from irritating, and such as approaches nearest to the nature of our own bodies in a healthy state, or capable of being easiest converted into their substance by the vis vitæ, after it has been duly prepared by

the art of cookery; but the nature, composition, virtues, and uses of particular atiments can never be learnt to satisfaction, without assistance of practical chym-

DIET DRINK. An alterative decoction employed daily in considerable quantities, at least from a pint to a quart. The decoction of sarsaparilla and mezereon, the Lisbon diet drink, is the most common and most useful.

DIETETICS. That part of medicine which considers the way of living with relation to food, or diet, suitable to any particular case

Diexonos. (From dia, and exosos, a way Diodos. In Hippocrates it to pass out.) means evacuation by stool.

DIFFLATIO. (From difflo, to blow away.)

Perspiration,

DIGASTRICUS. (Digastricus, sc. musc. from de, twice, and γαστηρ, a belly.) Biventer maxillæ of Albinus. Mastoido hy-genien of Dumas. A muscle so called from its having two bellies, situated externally between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It arises, by a fleshy belly, from the upper part of the processus mastoidæus, and descending, it contracts into a round tendon, which passes through the stylohyoid aus, and an annular ligament which is fastened to the os hyoides; then it grows fleshy again, and ascends towards the middle of the edge of the lower jaw, where it is inserted. Its use is to open the mouth by pulling the lower jaw downwards and backwards; and when the jaws are shut to raise the larynx, and consequently the pharynx, upwards, as in deglutition.

DIGERENTIA. (From digero, to digest.)
Medicines which promote the secretion of proper pus in wounds and ulcers.

DIGESTION. (Digestio, from digero,

to dissolve.)

1. An operation in which such matters as are intended to act slowly on each other, are exposed to a slow heat, continued for

2. The change that the food undergoes in the stomach, by which it is converted into chyme. The circumstances necessary to effect a healthy digestion of the food are: 1. A certain degree of heat of the stomach. 2. A free mixture of saliva with the food in the mouth. 3. A certain quantity of healthy gastric juice. 4. The natural peristaltic motion of the stomach. 5. The pressure of the contraction and relaxation of the abdominal muscles and diaphragm. From these circumstances, the particles of the food are softened, dissolved, diluted, and intimately mixed into a soft pap, called chyme, which passes through the pylorus of the stomach into the duodenum. The fluid which is termed gastric juice, is separated by the minute arteries opening into the cavity of the stomach.-

From various experi-See Gastric Juice. ments of physiologists, it is ascertained that the gastric juice reduces the aliments into an uniform pap or paste, even out of the body; that it acts in the same manner after death; and that it is the chief agent in the process of digestion.

Animals only are invested with organs of digestion; every one, from man to the polypus, presents an alimentary canal differently formed; the existence of a digestive apparatus, then, could be given as an essential character of animal life. In man this consists of a long canal extending from the mouth to the anus, into which open the excretory ducts of various glands, situated in the vicinity, that secrete liquors, necessary to alter, liquefy, and animalize alimen-

tary matter.

It would be useless to recapitulate the hypotheses formed to explain digestion; they may be reduced to coction, fermentation, trituration, putrefaction, and maceration of the food received into the cavity of the stomach. Physiologists are generally agreed, at present, in considering digestion in the stomach as a solution of the aliment by the gastric juice. This liquid, copiously poured on the internal surface of the stomach, when this viscus is irritated by the presence of food, is the production of arterial exhalation; it is neither an acid nor alkali, and seems to be of a nature nearly analogous to saliva; the gastric juice producing great properties of solutions, penetrates into the alimentary matter on all sides, separates and divides its particles, combines with it, changes its composition, and impresses qualities very different from those it possessed before this mixture. In fact, if a mouthful of wine or food be re-turned from the stomach some minutes after it has been received, the odour, taste, and all the qualities, both physical and chymical, of these substances, are so altered, that we can with difficulty distinguish them; and vinous liquors, more or less acid, are no longer susceptible of spirituous fermentation. The energy of the power of the gastric juice, perhaps exaggerated by some physiologysts, is sufficient to reduce to a soft mass the hardest bones, on which certain animals subsist: it is very probable that its chymical composition is different and variable, and that it is acid, alkaline, or saponaceous, according to the nature of the aliment. Although gastric juice is the most powerful agent of digestion in the stomach, its dissolvent power has need of assistance from the action of several secondary causes, as heat, which seems to augment and concentrate itself in the epigastric region. So long as the exertion of the stomach continues, there is a sort of intestine fermentation, which should not be, in the full sense, compared to the motion by which fermentative and putrescent substances are decomposed; there is also a moderate and peristaltic motion of the nauscular fibres of the stomach which press the aliment on all sides, and perform a slight trituration, while the gastric moisture softens and macerates the food before it is dissolved; it may then be affirmed that the process of digestion is at the same time chymical, vital, and mechanical: the authors, therefore, of various theories to explain this function, have erred by attributing to one cause only, as heat, fermentation, putrefaction, trituration, maceration, and the gastric juice, that which is the aggregate result of all those causes united.

The aliment remains a greater or less time in the stomach, agreeably to the facility or difficulty of the necessary changes taking place. Gosse of Geneva, has proved on himself, that the animal and vegetable fibre, the white of an egg boiled, white and tendinous parts, paste kneaded with butter, schaeeous substances, and those things which are not fermented, or very little fermentative, make greater resistance to the gastric juice, than the gelatinous parts of vegetables and animals, fermented bread, &c. that the latter class of substances require only an hour for their complete dissolution, while the digestion of the former was not completed at the end of several hours.

During the time of digestion, both orifices of the stomach are closed; no gas, disengaged from the aliment, ascends through the esopliagus, unless in cases of bad digestion: slight chills are felt; the pulse becomes quicker and stronger, and the powers of life seem diminished in some organs, to be carried to the seat of the digestive process. The parieties of the stomach soon begin to act: their circular fibres contract in different parts of its extent; these peristaltic oscillations, at first vague and uncertain, become more regular, and are directed from above downwards, from left to right, that is, from the cardia, towards the pylorus; its longitu linal fibres also contract, and thus approximate both terminations. In these different motions the stomach becomes parallel with the pylorns, and the angle formed by the duodenum is almost totally obliterated, which renders the passage of food casier. It has been remarked, that digestion proceeds better during sleep, when we lie on the right side than on the left, and this difference has been attributed to the compression made by the liver on the stomach. It should rather be considered, that on the right side, the passage of food is accelerated by its own gravity, the situation of the stomach is naturally oblique, from left to right, and becomes more so in consequence of changes induced by food.

The aperture of the pylorus is furnished with a muscular ring, covered by a duplicature of mucous membrane; this kind of sphincter keeps it closed during the time of digestion in the stomach, and does not give passage to the aliment until it has undergone a very material alteration. The pylorus, possessing a peculiar and extremely delicate sensibility, may be considered as a sort of vigilant centinel, that prevents any thing from passing that has not suffered proper changes. Many anthors quoted by Haller, have been well aware that the food did not pass from the stomach successively in the same manner as it was received, but agreeably to its greater or less facility of digestion.

It would appear that there is a real selection of food in the stomach, for those aliments that admit of an easy digestion are directed towards the pylorus, which gives passage to them; while, on the contrary, such as are not sufficiently digested are not permitted to pass, but kept back in the stomach. This delicate feeling, which we attribute to the pylorus, this exquisite sense, by which it exerts a kind of choice on the food that passes through, may be perhaps objected to; pieces of money, however, or other extraneous indigestible bodies, remain a longer or shorter time in the stomach before they go into the intestines, and present themselves several different times at the orifice of the pylorus, and do not get through till after it has been accustomed to their contact. It is the same with the gastric system as with a secreting gland; and in the same manner the 6mmencement of excretory ducts, possessed of a sort of elective sensibility, do not receive the secreted liquor before it has undergone necessary preparations in the glandular parenchyma; so the pylorus, which may be considered the excretory duct of the stomach, does not admit the food nor suffer it to pass into the intestines, until it has been sufficiently elaborated by the action of this organ.

In proportion as the stomach becomes empty, the spasm of the skin ceases, a moderate heat succeeds the shiverings, the pulse becomes more evident and elevated, the quantity of insensible perspiration increases; digestion then produces a general motion, analogous to a feverish paroxysm; and this digestive fever, described also by the ancients, is most casy to be observed in women of great sensibility. Nothing posi-tive can be established on the duration of digestion in the stomach. The aliments go out of the stomach with more or less celerity, in proportion as they offer a greater or less resistance to those powers which serve to dissolve them, and agreeably to the energy and strength of the stomach and activity of the gastric juice: five hours, however,

inay be considered the ordinary time of

The action of the parieties of the stomach ceases when this viscus is entirely liberated from the aliments that were in its cavity, but not before; the gastric juice, the secretion of which is not augmented by any stimulus, is no longer poured out by its arteries; and the parieties which come into contact with each other, are only lubricated by the mucous copiously secreted by its internal coat.

DIGESTIVES. (Digestiva, sc. medicamenta; from digero, to dissolve.) A term applied by surgeons to those substances which, when applied to an ulcer or wound, promote suppuration : such are the ceratum resinæ flavæ, unguentum elemi, warm poultices, fomentations, &c.

DIGESTIVUM SAL SYLVII. See Murias

potasse.

DIGITALIS. (From digitus, a finger; because its flower represents a finger.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order,

.Ingiospermia. Fox-glove.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common fox-glove. Digitalis purpurea of Linnæus :- calycudis foliolis ovatis acutis, corollis obtusis, labio superiore integro. leaves of this plant have a bitter nauseous taste, but no remarkable smell; they have been long used externally to ulcers and scrophulous tumours with considerable advantage. When properly dried, their colour is a lively green. They ought to be collected when the plant begins to blossom, to be dried quickly before the fire, and preserved unpowdered.

Of all the narcotics, digitalis is that which diminishes most powerfully the actions of the system; and it does so without occasioning any previous excitement. Even in the most moderate dose, it diminishes the force and frequency of the pulse, and, in a large dose, reduces it to a great extent, as from 70 beats to 40 or 35 in a minute, occasioning, at the same time, vertigo, indistinct vision, violent and durable sickness, with vomiting. In a still larger quantity, it induces convulsions, coldness of the body, and insensibility; symptoms which have sometimes terminated fatally. narcotic, fox-glove has been recommended in epilepsy, insanity, and in some acute inflammatory diseases. Lately it has been very extensively employed in phthisis, and the beneficial effects which it produces in that disease, are probably owing to its narcotic power, by which it reduces the force of the circulation through the lungs and general system. It is administered so as to produce this effect. One grain of the powdered leaves, or ten drops of the saturated tincture, may be given night and morning. This dose is increased one half every second day, till its action on the sys-

tein becomes apparent. As soon as the pulse begins to be diminished, the increase of dose must be made with more caution; and, whenever nausea is induced, it ought rather to be reduced, or, if necessary, intermitted for a short time. If the sickness become urgent, it is best relieved by stimulants, particularly large doses of brandy, with aromatics. The tincture has been supposed to be the best form of administering digitalis, when the remedy is designed to act as a narcotic: it is also more manageable in its dose and more uniform in its strength, than the dried leaves.

Besides its narcotic effects, digitalis acts as one of the most certain diuretics in dropsy, apparently from its power of promoting absorption. It has frequently succeeded where the other diuretics have failed. Dr. Withering has an undoubted claim to this discovery; and the numerous cases of dropsy related by him, and other practitioners of established reputation, afford incontestable evidence of its diuretic powers, and of its practicable importance in the cure of those disorders. From Dr. Withering's extensive experience of the use of the digitalis in dropsies, he has been able to judge of its success by the following circumstances :- "It seldom succeeds in men of great natural strength, of tense fibre, of warm skin, of florid complexion, or in those with a tight and cordy pulse. If the belly in ascites be tense, hard, and circumscribed, or the limbs in anasarca solid and resisting, we have but little hope. On the contrary, if the pulse be feeble, or intermitting, the countenance pale, the lips livid, the skin cold, the swollen belly soft and fluctuating, the anasarcous limbs readily pitting under the pressure of the finger, we may expect the diuretic effects to follow in a kindly manner." Of the inferences which he deduces, ner." Of the interences which he deduces, the fourth is, "that if it (digitalis) fails, there is but little chance of any other medicine succeeding." Although the digitalis is now generally admitted to be a very powerful diuretic, yet it is but justice to asknowledge that this medicine has more acknowledge that this medicine has more frequently failed than could have been reasonably expected from a comparison of the facts stated by Dr. Withering. dose of the dried leaves in powder, is from one to three grains twice a day. But if a liquid medicine be preferred, a drachm of the dried leaves is to be infused for four hours, in half a pint of boiling water, adding to the strained liquor an ounce of any spirituous water. One ounce of this infusion, given twice a day, is a medium dose. It is to be continued in these doses till it either acts upon the kidneys, the stomach, the pulse, (which as has been said, it has a remarkable power of lowering,) or the bowels.

The administration of this remedy re-

quires to be conducted with much caution. Its effects do not immediately appear; and when the doses are too frequent, or too quickly augmented, its action is concentrated so as to produce frequently the most violent symptoms. The general rules are, to begin with a small dose, to increase it gradually, till the action is apparent on the kidneys, stomach, intestines, or vascular system; and immediately suspending its exhibition, when its effects on any of these parts take place.

The symptoms arising from too large a dose of digitalis are, extreme sickness, verugo, indistinct vision, incessant vomiting, and a great reduction of the force of the circulation, terminating sometimes in syncope or convulsions. They are relieved by frequent and small doses of opium, brandy, aromatics, and strong bitters, and by a blister applied to the region of the stomach.

DIGITIUM. (From digitus, a finger.) A contraction of the finger-joint. A paronychia, or whitlow, or other sore upon the

tinger.

DIGITUS. (From digero, to direct.) A

finger.

Digitus manus. A finger. The fingers and thumb in each hand consist of fourteen bones, there being three to each finger; they are a little convex and round towards the back of the hand, but hollow and plain towards the palm, except the last, where the nails are. The order of their dispositions is called first, second, and third phalanx. The first is longer than the second, and the second longer than the third. What has been said of the fingers, applies to the toes also.

DIGITUS PEDIS. A toe. See Digitus ma-

nus.

DIGLOSSUM. (From \$\delta\_6\$, double, and \$\rangle \rangle \approx a\$ tongue; so called because above its leaf there grows a lesser leaf, like two tongues.) The laurus alexandrina. Galen speaks of a man born with two tongues.

DIGNOTIO. (From dignosco, to distin-

guish.) See Diagnosis.

DIREMATON. (From Sa, and aspa, blood.) An antidote in which is the blood of many animals.

Dinalon. (From Sia, and ake, salt.) A plaster prepared with salt and nitre, adapt-

ed to foul ulcers.

DIFFTES. (From Zeus, dios, Heaven, and artia, to fall: i.e. falling as rain.) An epithet applied by Hippocrates to semen, when it is discharged like a sudden shower of rain.

DILATATIO. (From dilato, to enlarge.) Dilatation, or enlargement. Diastole.

DILATOR. (From dilato, to enlarge.) The name of some muscles whose office is to open and enlarge parts.

DILATORES ALARUM NASI. See Leva-

tor

DILATORIUM. (From dilato, to enlarge.)

A surgical instrument for enlarging any part. A speculum oris.

Dill. See Anethum.

DILUENTS. (Diluentia, sc. medicamenta; from diluo, to wash away.) Those substances which increase the proportion of fluid in the blood. It is evident that this must be done by watery liquors. Water is indeed, properly speaking, the only diluent. Various additions are made to it, to render it pleasant, and frequently to give it a slightly demulcent quality. But these are not sufficiently important to require to be noticed, or to be classed as medicines.

Diluents are merely secondary remedies. They are given in acute inflammatory diseases, to lessen the stimulant quality of the blood. They are used to promote the action of diuretics in dropsy, and to favour

the operation of sweating.

DINICA. (From Stros, giddiness.) Medicines which relieve a giddiness.

DINOS. (From Sivea, to turn round.) A

vertigo, or giddiness.

Diocres. The name of a lozenge.

Dionos. (From Su, and ofoc, the way through.) Evacuation by stool.

DIMENANTIES. (From fix, and owarbu, the flower of the vine.) A remedy said to be good for cholera morbus, in which was the flower of the vine-tree.

Diognus. (From διακα, to persecute.)
A distressing palpitation of the heart.

DIONYSISCUS (From Διονυσος, Bacchus, was of old represented as having horns.) Certain bony excrescences, near the temples, were called dionysisci.

DIONYSONYMPHAS. (From Διονυσος, Bacchus, and νυμφα, a nymph.) A herb which, if bruised, smells of wine, and yet resists

drunkenness.

DIAFORUM. (From Siz, and orange, autumnal fruits.) A medicine composed of ripe fruits for quincy.

DIOPTRA. (From Surflowas, to see through.) Dioptron. Speculum ani oris, or uteri. Also the lapis specularis.

Dioptrica. (From Surloyas, to see through.) Dioptrics, or doctrine of the refraction of light.

DIOPTRISMUS. (From Storflough, to see through.) Dilatation of any natural passage.

DIOROBUM. (From Su, and ogshoc, a vetch.) A medicine, in the composition of which there are vetches.

DIGIRHOSIS. (From &ix, and oggos, the serum.) Diorosis. A dissolved state of the blood. A conversion of the humours into serum and water.

DIORTHROSIS. (From διορθέου, to direct.)

The reduction of a fracture.

DIOSCOREA. (Named in honour of Dioscorides.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Diacia. Order, Hexandria.

DIOSCOREA ALATA. See Yam.

DIOSCOREA BULBIFERA. See Yum.

DIS

DIOSCOREA SATIVA. See Yam.

DIOSCURI. (i. e. Διος Κυροι, the sons of Jupiter, or Castor and Pollux.) The parotids were so named from their twin-like equality in shape and position.

DIOSPYROS LOTUS. See Indian date

DIOXELEUM. (From Sia ogus, acid, and anasov, oil.) A medicine composed of oil and vinegar.

Dioxos. (From Siz, and ogos, acid.) A collyrium composed chiefly of vinegar.

DIPLISIASMUS. (From Sinhow, to double.) The re-exacerbation of a disease.

DIPLOE. (From διπλοω, to double.) Meditulluim. The spongy substance between the two tables of the skull.

DIPLOPIA. (From Simhos, double, and ease of the eye, in which the person sees an object double or triple. Dr. Cullen makes it a variety of the second species of pseudoblepsis, which he calls mutans, in which objects appear changed from what they really are: and the disease varies according to the variety of the remote cause.

DIPNOUS. (From  $\delta \iota_{\mathcal{E}}$ , twice, and  $\pi \nu \iota_{\mathcal{E}}$ , to breathe.) An epithet for wounds which are perforated quite through, and admit

the air at both ends.

DIPSACUS. (From ha, thirst; so called from the concave situation of its leaves, which hold water, by which the thirst of the traveller may be relieved.) Diapsacum.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. der, Polygamia. The teasel.

2. A diabetes, from the continual thirst attending it.

DIFIRENUM. (From Sis, twice, and Tuent, a berry.) A berry, or kernel: a probe with two buttons.

DIPYRITES. (From Sis, twice, and rug, fire.) Dipyros. An epithet given by Hippocrates to bread twice baked, and which he recommended in dropsies.

DIRECTOR. (From dirigo, to direct.) A hollow instrument for guiding an incisor-knife; also the name of a muscle which lifts up the penis.

DIRECTORES PENIS. (From dirigo, to direct.) The same as erectores penis.

DIRINGA. A name, in the isle of Java,

for the calamus aromaticus.

Discessus. (From discedo, to depart.) The separation of any two bodies, before united by chymical operation.

Disciformis. (From discus, a quoit, and forma, likeness.) Resembling a disk, or quoit, in shape. It is applied to the knee-pan.

Discordes. (From Signos, a quoit.) Resembling a disk, or quoit, in shape. It is applied to the chrystalline humour of the eye.

DISCRIMEN. A small roller. A term applied to the diaphragm.

DISCUTIENTS. (Discutientia, sc. mcdicamenta; from discutio, to make in pieces.) Discusoria. Diachytica. A term in surgery applied to those substances which possess a power of repelling or resolving tumours.

DISEASE. Morbus. Any alteration from a perfect state of health is a disease. A disease is variously termed: when it pervades the whole system, and does not depend on any other disease, as an inflam-matory fever, for instance, it is called a general disease, to distinguish it from inflammation of the eye, or any other viscus, which is a partial or local one: and when it does not depend on another disease, it is termed an idiopathic disease, which may be either general or partial, to distinguish it from a symptomatic affection, which depends upon another disease, and is produced by consent of parts. See also Endemic, Epidemic, Sporadic, &c.

DISLOCATION. (From disloco, to put out of place.) Luxation. The secession of a bone of a moveable articulation from

its natural cavity.

DISPENSARY. (Dispensarium, from dispendo, to distribute.) The shop, or place, in which medicines are prepared. Also the name of an institution, in which the poor are supplied with medicines and advice.

DISPENSATORY. (Dispensatorium; from dispendo, to distribute.) Antidotarium. A book which treats of the composi-

tion of medicines.

DISSECTION. (From disseco, to cut asunder.) The cutting to pieces of any part of an animal, or vegetable, for the purpose of exmining its structure.

DISSEPTUM. (From dissepio, to inclose round.) The diaphragm, or membrane, which divides the cavity of the thorax from

the abdomen.

DISSOLVENTIA. (From dissolvo, to loosen.) Medicines which loosen and dissolve morbid concretions in the body. In chymistry it means menstrua.

DISSOLUTUS. (From dissolvo, to loosen.) Loose. An epithet applied to the dysen-

tery, or morbus dissolutus.

DISTENTIO. (From distendo, to stretch out.) Distention, or dilatation. A convulsion.

DISTICHIA. See Distichiasis.

DISTICHIASIS. (From Sistizia; from dis, double, and sixos, a row.) Distichiasis. Distichia. A disease of the eyelash, in which there is a double row of hairs, the one row growing outwards, the other inwards towards the eye.

DISTILLATION. (From distillo, to drop little by little.) Alsacta. Catustag. A chymical process, very similar to evaporation, instituted to separate the volatile from the fixed principles by means of heat. Distillatory vessels are either alemhics or retorts; the former consist of an

inferior vessel, called a cucurbit, designed to contain the matter to be examined, and having an upper part fixed to it, called the capital, or head. In this last, the vapours are condensed by the contact of the sur-rounding air, or, in other cases, by the assistance of cold water surrounding the head, and contained in a vessel called the refrigeratory. From the lower part of the capital proceeds a tube, called the nose, beak, or spout, through which the vapours, after condensation, are, by a proper figure of the capital, made to flow into a vessel called the receiver, which is usually spherical. These receivers have different names, according to their figure, being called mattrasses, balloons, &c. Retorts are a kind of hottle of glass, pottery, or metal, the bottom being spherical, and the upper part gradually diminishing into a neck, which is turned on one side.

DISTORTION. (From distorqueo, to wrest aside.) Distortio. A term applied to the eyes, when a person seems to turn them from the object he would look at, and is then called squinting, or strabismus. It also signifies the bending of a bone preternaturally to one side; as distortion of the

spine, or vertebra.

DISTORTOR. (From distorqueo, to wrest aside.) A muscle, whose office is to draw the mouth awry.

DISTORTOR ORIS. (From distorqueo, to wrest aside.) The zygomaticus mi-

DISTRICHIASIS. See Distichiasis.

DISTRIX. (From dis, double, and lgis, the hair.) A disease of the hair, when it splits and divides at the end.

Dittander. Sec Nasturtium hortense. Dittany, bastard. Sec Dictamnus al-

Dittany of Crete. See Dictamnus creti-

Dittany, white. See Dictamnus albus.
DIURESIS. (From &u, through, and pu, to flow.) An increased secretion of urine.

It is also applied to a diabetes.

DIURETICS. (Diuretica, sc. medicamenta, dispartica: from disports, a discharge of urine.) Those medicines or substances are so called which, when taken internally, augment the flow of urine from the kidneys. It is obvious that such an effect will be produced by any substance capable of stimulating the secreting vessels of the kidneys. All the saline diaretics seem to act in this mapper. They are received into the circulation; and passing off with the urine, stimulate the vessels, and increase the quantity secreted.

There are other diureties, the effect of which appears not to arise from direct application, but from an action excited in the stomach, and propagated by nervous communication to the secreting urinary vessels. The diuretic operation of squill,

and several other vegetables, appears to be of this kind.

There is still, perhaps, another mode in which certain substances produce a ditrectic effect; that is, by promoting absorption. When a large quantity of watery fluid is introduced into the circulating mass, it stimulates the secreting vessels of the kidneys, and is carried off by urine. If, therefore, absorption be promoted, and if a portion of serous fluid, perhaps previously effused, be taken up, the quantity of fluid secreted by the kidneys will be increased. In this way digitalis seems to act: its diuretic effect, it has been said, is greater when exhibited in dropsy than it is in health.

On the same principle, (the effect arising from stimulating the absorbent system,) may probably be explained the utility of mercury in promoting the action of several diareties.

The action of these remedics is promoted by drinking freely of mild dilectes. It is also influenced by the state of the surface of the body. If external heat be applied, diuresis is frequently prevented, and diaphoresis produced. Hence the doses of them should be given in the course of the day, and the patient, if possible, be kept out of bed.

The direct effects of diurctics are sufficiently evident. They discharge the watery part of the blood; and, by that discharge, they indirectly promote absorption

over the whole system.

Dropsy is the disease in which they are principally employed; and when they can be brought to act, the disease is removed with less injury to the patient than it can be by exciting any other evacuation. Their success is very precarious, the most powerful often failing; and, as the disease is sofrequently connected with organic affection, even the removal of the effused fluid, when it takes place, only palliates without effecting a cure.

Diuretics have been likewise occasionally used in calculous affections, in gonorrhoa, and with a view of diminishing piethora, or

checking profuse perspiration.

Murray, in his Elements of Materia Medica, classes the super-tartrite of potash, or oritre, the muriate of ammonia, or crude salammoniac, potash, and the acetate of potash, or kali acetatum, among the saline diuretics; and selects the following from the vegetable kingdom:—scilla maritima, digitalis purpurea, uicotisna tabacum, solannm dulcamara, lactuca virosa, colchicum autumnale, gratiola officinalis, spartium scopairum, juniperus communis, copaifera officinalis, pinus balsamea, and pinus larix; and the lytta vesicatoria from the animal kingdom.

In speaking of particular diuretics, Dr.

tioned by writers are of very little power, and are employed with very little success. Of the umbellata, the medicinal power resides especially in their seeds; but he never found any of them very efficacious. The semen dauci sylvestris has been commended as a diuretic; but its powers as such are not very remarkable. In like manner some of the plante stellate have been commended as diuretics; but none of them deserve our notice, except the rubia tinctorum, the root of which passes so much by the kidneys as to give its colour to the urine. Hence it may fairly be supposed to stimulate the secretories; but Dr. Cullen found its diuretic powers did not always appear, and never to any con siderable degree; and as in brute animals it has always appeared hurtful to the system, he does not think it fit to be employed to any extent in human diseases. The bardana, lithospermum, ononis, asparagus, enula campana, are all substances which seem to pass, in some measure, by the kidnevs; but their diuretic powers are hardly worth notice.

The principal articles included by Dr. Cullen, in his catalogue of diuretics, are dulcamara, digitalis, scilla; some of the alliaciæ and siliquosæ; the balsams and resins; cantharides, and the diuretic salts.

DIVAPORATIO. Evaporation.

DIVAPORATIO.

DIVARICATION. The crossing of any two things: thus when the muscular or tendinous fibres intersect each other at the different angles, they are said to divaricate.

DIVERSORIUM. (From diversor, to resort

to.) The receptaculum chyli.

DIVERTICULUM. A mal-formation or diseased appearance of a part, in which a portion goes out of the regular course; and thereby forms a diverticulum, or deviation from the usual course. It is generally applied to the alimentary

DIVERTICULUM NUCKII. The opening through which the round ligaments of the uterus pass. Nuck asserted that it remained open a long time after birth; to these openings he gave the name of diverti-

DIVINUS. A pompous epithet of many compositions, from their supposed excel-

DIVULSIO. (From divello, to pull asunder.) Urine, with a ragged and uneven

DOCIMASTIC ART. Ars docimastica. The art of examining tossils, in order to discover what metals, &c. they contain.

Dock-cresses. See Lampsana.

Dock, sour. See Acetosa.

Dock, water. See Hydrolapathum.

Dodder of thyme. See Epithymum. Dodecadactilus. (From Sodera, twelve, and faxluxos, a finger; so named, be-

Cullen says, the diuretic vegetables men- cause its length is about the breadth of twelve fingers.) The duodenum, an intestine so called. It must be observed, that at the time this name was given, anatomy consisted in the dissection of brutes; and the length was therefore probably adjudged from the gut of some animal, and not of man.

DODECAPHARMACUM. (From Sofera, twelve. and preguzator, a medicine.) An ointment consisting of twelve ingredients, for which reason it was called the ointment of the twelve apostles.

DODECATHEON. (From Sodnuz, twelve, and Tibnui, to put.) An antidote consisting

of twelve simples. Dog-rose. See Cynosbatus.

Dog's BANE, SYRIAN. This plant, Asclepias Syriaca of Linnxus, is particularly poisonous to dogs, and also to the human species. Boiling appears to destroy the poison in the young shoots, which are then said to be esculent, and flavoured like asparagus.

Dog's-grass. See Gramen caninum. Dog's mercury. See Cynocrambe.

Dog-stones. See Satyrion.
DOGMA. (From δοδω, to be of opinion.) An opinion founded on reason and experi-

DOLICHOS. (From Jonixos, long: so called from its long shape.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the cowhage. Dolichos pruriens of Linnaus :- volubilis, leguminibus racemosis, valvulis sub-carinatis hirtis, pedunculis ternis The pods of this plant are covered with sharp hairs which are the parts employed me-dicinally in form of electuary, as anthel-mintics. The manner in which these hairy spiculæ act, seems to be purely mechanical: for neither the tincture, nor the decoction possess the least anthelmintic

Dolichos soja. The plant which affords the soy. It is much cultivated in Japan, where it is called daidsu: and where the pods supply their kitchens for various purposes; but the two principal are, with a sort of butter, termed mise, and a pickle called sooju.

DOLICHOS PRURIERS. The systemame of the cowhage. See Dolichos.
DOLOR FACIEI. See Tic Doloureux. The systematic

DOLOUREUX TIC. See Tic doloureux. DORONICUM. (From dorongi, Arab.)

Leopard's bane. See Arnica. DORONICUM GERMANICUM. See Ar-

The syste-DORONICUM PARDALIANCHES. matic name of the Roman leopard's bane. See Doronicum romanum.

DORONICUM ROMANUM. Roman leo-pard's bane. Doronicum pardiliunches; foliis cordatis, obtusis, denticulatis ; radicaliour periolatis; caulinis amplexicaulibus, of forcibly as to break it; for the part left The root of this plant, if given in a full dose, possesses poisonous properties; but instances are related of its efficacy in epileptical and other nervous diseases. DORSAL. Belonging to the back.

Dousales Nervi. The nerves which pass out from the vertebra of the back.

Dorsi spinalis. See Spinalis dorsi.

DORSTENIA. (Named in honour of Dr. Dorsten.) A name of the contrayerva. DORSTENIA DRAKENA. The systematic

name for the contrayerva.

DORSTENIA HOUSTONII. See Contra-

DOTHIEN. A name for furunculus.

DOVERI PULVIS. See Pulvis ipecacuanlæ compositus.

Dove's foot. The geranium columbinum. DRABA. (From Sarow, to seize; so called from its sudden effect upon the nose of those who eat it.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Class, Tetradynamia. Linnæan system.

Order, Siliculosa.

2. A name of the lepiduim, or Arabian mustard, and Turkey cresses.

DRACO SYLVESTRIS. See Ptarmica.

DRACOCEPHALUM. (From Seaxwv, a dragon, and κεφαλη, a head.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnos-

DRACOCEPHALUM CANARIENSE. The systematic name of the balm of Gilcad. See Moldavica.

DRACONIS SANGUIS. See Sanguis dra-

DRACONTIUM. (From δgαχαν, a dragon; so called because its roots resemble a dragon's tail ) Dracunculus polyphyllus. Colubrina dracontia. Erva de Sancta Ma-Gigarus serpentaria. Arum polyphylbem. Dragon's wort. Many-leaved arum? This plant is the Arum dracunculus of Linnaus. Its roots and leaves are extremely acrimonious, more so than the arum maculatum, with which it agrees in medicinal virtues.

DRACUNCULUS. (From Seanwy, a serpent.) The Guinea worm; called also vermiculus capillaris. These animalcules arc common in both Indies, in most parts honcy.) Honey-dew. Manna. of Africa, occasionally at Genoa, and other liot countries. These worms resemble the common worm, but are much larger; commonly found in the legs, but sometimes in the muscular part of the arms. They principally affect children, and their generation is not unlike that of the broad worms of the belly, hence their name tape-worm. While they move under the skin, they create no trouble : but, in length of time, the place near the dracunculus suppurates, and the animal puts forth its head. If it be drawn, it excites considerable uncasiness especially if drawn so chian tube.

within creates intolerable pain. worms are of different lengths. Edin. Med. Essays, mention is made of one that was three yards and a half in length.

DRAGACANTHA. See Tragacantha. Dragant gum. See Tragacantha. Dragon's blood. See Sanguis draconis. Dragon's wort. See Dracontium.

DRAKENA. See Contrayerva.

DRASTICA. (Drastica, sc. medicamenta seasoninos, active, brisk; from seaw, to effect.) A term generally applied to those medicines which are very violent in their action; thus, drastic purges, emetics, &c.

DRESDENSIS PULVIS. An oleo saccharum, containing the oil of cinnamon.

DROMA. The name of a plaster de-

scribed by Myrepsus.

DROPACISMUS. (From δεεπω, to remove.) Dropax. A stimulant plaster of pitch, wax, &c. to take off hair.

DROPSY. A collection of a serous fluid in the cellular membrane; in the viscera and the circumscribed cavities of the body. See Ascites, Anasarca, Hydroce-phalus, Hydrothorax, Hydrocele.

Dropsy of the belly. See Ascites.

Dropsy of the brain. See Hydrocephalus. Dropsy of the cellular membrane.

Dropsy of the chest. See Hydrothorax. Dropsy of the ovaria. See Ascites. Dropsy testicle. See Hydrocele.

Dropwort. See Enauthe, and Filipendula.

Dropwort hemlock. See Enanthe. Dropwort water. See Enanthe.

DROSERA. (From δροσικου, dewy; which is from δροσιος, dew; drops hanging on the leaves like dew.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnean system. Class,

Pentandria Order, Hexagynia. Sun-dew. Duosera Rotundifolia. The systematic name of the sun-dew. See Ros solis.

DROSIOBOTANUM. (From Sgoros, dew, and Rolarn, a herb; so called from its being covered with an aromatic dew.) The herb betony. See Betonica.

DROSOMELI. (From Sgood, dew, and mexi,

Dry belly ach. See Colica pictonum.
DUCTILITY. A property by which
bodies are dilated by repeated or continued pressure. It is peculiar to metals.

Ducts, biliary. See Biliary ducts.

DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS. A great inesculation found only in the fœtus, and very young children, betwixt the pulmonary artery and the aorta. In adults it is closed up.

DUCTUS AD NASUM. Sec Canalis nasalis.

DUCTUS AURIS PALATINUS. The eustaDUCTUS BILIARIS. Sec Choledochus duc-

DUCTUS COMMUNIS CHOLEDO-CHUS. See Choledochus ductus.

DUCTUS HEPATICUS. See Hepatic

DUCTUS LACHRYMALIS. Sec Lachrymal ducts.

Ductus ga-LACTIFERI. lactoferi. The excretory ducts of the glandular substance composing the female The milk passes along these ducts breast.

to the nipple.

DUCTUS PANCREATICUS. The pancreatic duct. It is white and small, and arises from the sharp extremity of the pancreas runs through the middle of the gland towards the duodenum, into which it pours its contents by an opening common to it and the ductus communis choledochus.

DUCTUS SALIVALES. The excretory ducts of the salivary glands, which

convey the saliva into the mouth.

DUCTUS STENONIS. The Stenonian duct, which was so called after its discoverer Steno. It arises from all the small excretory ducts of the parotid gland, and passes transversely over the masseter muscle, penetrates the buccinator, and opens into the mouth.

DUCTUS THORACICUS. See Thora-

cic duct.

DUCTUS VENOSUS. When the vena cava passes the liver in the fætus, it sends off the ductus venosus which communicates with the sinus of the vena portæ; but, in adults, becomes a flat ligament.

WARTHONIANUS. The excretory duct of the maxillary glands; so

named after its discoverer.

and acidus, sour.) An ox dulcis, sweet, An oxymel. A medicine composed of a sweet and sour ingredient.

DULCAMARA. (From dulcis, sweet, and amarus, bitter.) Salanum scandens. Glycypicros, sive umaradulcis. Solanum lignosum. Στευχνος of Theophrastes. Woody Solanum dulcamara of Linnightshade næus :- caule inermi frutescente flexuoso, foliis superioribus hastatis racemis cymosis. The roots and stalks of this nightshade, upon being chewed, first cause a sensation of bitterness, which is soon followed by a considerable degree of sweetness; and hence the plant obtained the name of bit-The berries have not yet been applied to medical use; they seem to act powerfully upon the primæ viæ, exciting violent vomiting and purging. Thirty of them were given to a dog, which soon became mad, and died in the space of three hours; and, upon opening his stomach, the berries were discovered to have undergone no change by the powers of digestion; bere can, therefore, be little doubt of the 'eterious effects of these berries: and,

as they are very common in the hedges. and may be easily mistaken, by children, for red currants, which they somewhat resemble, this circumstance is the more worthy of notice. The stipites, or younger branches, are directed for use in the Edinburgh Pharm, and they may be employed either fresh or dried, making a proportionate allowance in the dose of the latter for some diminution of its powers by drying. In autumn, when the leaves are fallen, the sensible qualities of the plant are said to be the strongest; and, on this account, it should be gathered in autumn rather than spring. Dulcamara does not manifest those narcotic qualities which are common to many of the nightshades; it is, however, very generally admitted to be a medicine of considerable efficacy. Murray says it promotes all the secretions; Haller observes, that it partakes of the milder powers of the nightshade joined to a resolvent and saponaceous quality; and the opinion of Bergius seems to coincide with that of Murray :- "Virtus : pellens urinam, sudorem, menses, lochia, sputa; mundificans." The diseases in which we find it recommended by different authors, are extremely various; but Bergius confines its use to rheumatism, retentio mensium, et lochiorum. Dulcamara appears also by the experiments of Razoux and others, to have been used with advantage in some obstinate cutaneous affections. Dr. Cullen says, "We have employed only the stipites, or slender twigs of this shrub, but as we have collected them, they come out very unequal, some parcels of them being very mild and inert, and others of them considerably acrid. In the latter state, we have employed a decoction of them in the cure of rheumatism, sometimes with advantage, but at other times without any Though the dulcamara is here inserted in the catalogue of diuretics, it has never appeared to us as powerful in this way; for, in all the trials made here, it has hardly ever been observed to be in any measure diuretic." This plant is generally given in decoction, or infusion, and to prevent its exciting nausea, it is ordered to be diluted with milk, and to begin with small doses, as large doses have been found to produce very dangerous symptoms. Razoux directs the following: & Stipitum dulcam. rec. drac ss in aquæ font. unc. 16 This was taken coquatur ad unc 8. in the dose of three or four drachms, diluted with an equal quantity of milk, every four hours. Linnaus directs two drachms, or half an ounce of the dried stipites, to be infused half an hour in boiling water, and then to be boiled ten minutes; and of this decoction he gives two tea-cups full morning and evening. For the formula of this plant according to the London Pharm. see Decoctum dulcamarie.

Dung, devil's. See Assafatido.

Duo. (Δυω, two.) Some compositions consisting of two ingredients, are distinguished by this term, as pilulæ ex duobus.

DUODENUM. (From duodenus, consisting of twelve: so called because it was supposed not to exceed the breadth of twelve fingers; but as the ancients dissected only animals, this does not hold good in the human subject.) The first portion of the small intestines. See Intestines.

DUPLICANA. (From duplex, double.) A

name of the double tertian fever.

DURA MATER. (From durus, hard, and mater, a mother; called dura, from its comparative hardness with the pia mater, and mater, from its being supposed to be the source of all the other membranes.) Dura meninx. Dermatodes. A thick and somewhat opaque and insensible membrane, formed of two layers, that surrounds and defends the brain, and adheres strongly to the internal surface of the cranium. It has three considerable processes, the falciform, the tentorium, and the septum cerebelli; and several sinusses, of which the longitudinal, lateral, and inferior longitudinal, are the principal. Upon the external surface of the dura mater, there are little holes, from which emerge fleshy-coloured papillæ, and which, upon examining the skull-cap will be found to have corresponding fover. These are the external glandulæ Pacchioni. They are in number from ten to fifteen on each side, and are chiefly lateral to the course of the lon-gitudinal sinus. The arteries which supply this membrane with vessels for its own nourishment, for that of the contiguous bone, and for the perpetual exudation of the fluid, or halitus rather, which moistens or bedews its internal surface, may be divided into anterior, middle, and postcrior. The first proceeds from the opthalmic and ethinoidal branches; the second from the internal maxillary and superior pharyngeal; the posterior from the occipital and vertebral arteries.

The principal artery of the dura mater, named by way of dictinction, the great artery of the dura mater, is derived from the internal maxillary artery, a branch of the external carotid. It is called the spinalis, or spheno-spinalis, from its passing into the head through the spinons hole of the spheno.d bone, or meniagea media, from its relative situation, as it rises in the great middle fossa of the skull. This artery, though it sometimes enters the skull in two branches, usually enters in one considerable branch, and divides, soon after it reaches the dura mater, into three or four branches, of which the anterior is the largest; and these spread their ramifications beautifully upon the dura mater, over all that part which is opposite to the anterior, middle, and posterior lobes of the

brain. Its larger trunks run upon the internal surface of the parietal bone, and are sometimes for a considerable space buried in its substance. The extreme branches of this artery extend so as to inosculate with the anterior and posterior arteries of the dura mater, and through the bones, (chiefly parietal and temporal bones.) They inosculate with the temporal and occipital arteries. The meningeal artery has been known to become aneurismal, and dis-tended at intervals; it has formed an aneurism, destroying the bones and causing epilepsy.

DURA MENINX. Before the time of Galen, the term meninx was common to ail the membranes of the body; afterwards it was appropriated to those of the brain. See

Dura mater.

Dwale. See Belladonna. Dwarf elder. See Ebulus.

DYOTA. (From Sue, two, and es, wlos, an ear.) A chymical instrument with two ears, or handles.

DYSÆSTHESIA. (From Sug, difficulty, and air baroual, to feel or perceive. Impair-

DYSANAGOGUS. (From Sus, with difficulty, and avaya, to subduc.) Viscid expec-

DYSCATAPOTIA. (From Sus, and nalativa, to drink.) A difficulty of swallowing liquids, which Dr. Mead thinks a more proper term than that used for canine madness. viz. hydrophobia; as it is more particularly descriptive of the affection under which the unhappy patients labour; for in reality, they dread water from the difficulty of swallowing it.

DYSCINESIA. (From Sue, bad, and MINEW, to move.) Bad or imperfect motion.
DYSCINESIÆ. An order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology; cmbracing discase in which the motion is impeded, or depraved, from an imperfection of the

Dyscophosis. (From due, with difficulty, and xwoow, to be deaf.) A defect in the sense of hearing.

DYSCRASIA. (From Sus, with difficulty, and negativous, to mix. A bad habit of body.

DYSECOEA. (From Sue, difficult, and anon, hearing.) Cophosis. Deafness. Hearing diminished, or destroyed. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order dysesthesiæ of Cullen, containing two species: Dysecoëa organica, which arises from wax in the meatus, injuries of the membrane, or inflammation and obtruction of the tube; Dysecoea atonica, when without any discernible injury of the organ.

DYSELCIA. (From Pos, with difficulty, and DYSEMETUS. (From Sus, with difficulty,

and euter, to vomit.) A person not easily made to vomit.

DYSENTERY. (From Jus, difficulty, and alexa, the bowels.) Dysenteria. solutus morbus. Diarrhea carnosa. finx. A genus of desease in the class pyrexia, and order profluvia of Cullen's noselogy. It is known by contagious pyrexia; frequent griping stools; tenesmus: stools, chiefly mucous, sometimes mixed with blood, the natural faces being retained or voided in small, compact, hard substances, known by the name of scybala; loss of appetite, and nausea. It occurs chiefly in summer and autumn, and is often occasioned by much moisture succeeding quickly intense heat, or great drought; whereby the perspiration is suddenly checked, and a determination made to the intestines. It is likewise occasioned by a use of unwholsome and putrid food, and by noxious exhalations and vapours; hence it appears often in armies encamped in the neighbourhood of low marshy grounds, and proves highly destructive; but the cause which most usually gives rise to it, is a specific contagion; and when it once makes its appearance, where numbers of people are collected together, it not unfrequently, spreads with great rapidity. A peculiar disposition in the atmosphere seems often to predispose, or give rise to the dysentery, in which case it prevails epidemically.

It frequently occurs about the same time with autumnal intermittent and remittent evers, and with these it is often complicated.

The disease, however, is much more prevalent in warm climates than in cold ones; and in the months of August, September, and October, which is the rainy season of the year in the East Indies, it is very apt to break out and to become very general among the negroes on the different plantations in the colonies. The body having been rendered irritable by the great heat of the summer, and being exposed suddenly to much moisture with open pores, the blood is thereby thrown from the exterior vessels upon the interior, so as to give rise to dysenteries.

An attack of dysentery is sometimes preceded by loss of appetite, costiveness, flatulency, sickness at the stomach, and a slight vomiting, and comes on with slight chills, succeeded by heat in the skin, and frequency of the pulse. These symptoms are in general the forerunners of the griping and increased evacuation which afterwards

occur.

When the inflammation begins to occupy the lower part of the intestinal tube, the stools become more frequent, and less abundant; and, in passing through the inflamed parts, they occasion great pain, so that every evacuation is preceded by a severe griping, as also a rumbling noise.

The motions vary both in colour and consistence, being sometimes composed of

frothy mucus streaked with blood, and at other times of an acrid watery humour, like the washings of meat, and with a very fetid smell. Sometimes pure blood is voided; now and then lumps of coagulated mucus, resembling bits of cheese, are to be observed in the evacuations, and in some instances a quantity of purulent matter is passed.

Sometimes what is voided consists merely of a mucous matter, without any appearance of blood, exhibiting that disease which is known by the name of dysenteria alba, or

morbus mucosus.

Whilst the stools consist of these various matters, and are voided frequently, it is seldom that we can perceive any natural faces among them, and when we do, they appear in small hard balls, called scybala, which being passed, the patient is sure to experience some temporary relief from the

griping and tenesmus.

It frequently happens, from the violent efforts which are made to discharge the irritating matters, that a portion of the gut is forced beyond the verge of the anus, which, in the progress of the disease, proves a troublesome and distressing symptom; as does likewise the tenesmus, there being a constant inclination to go to stool, without the ability of voiding any thing, except perhaps a little mucus.

More or less pyrexia usually attends with the symptoms which have been described, throughout the whole of the disease, where it is inclined to terminate fatally, and is either of an inflammatory or putrid tendency. In the other case, the febrile state wholly disappears after a time, while the proper dysenteric symptoms probably will be of

long continuance.

When the symptoms run high, produce great loss of strength, and are accompanied with a putrid tendency and a fetid and involuntary discharge, the disease often terminates fatally in the course of a few days; but when they are more moderate, it is often protracted to a considerable length of time, and so goes off at last by a gentle perspiration, diffused equally over the whole body; the fever, thirst, and griping then ceasing, and the stools becoming of a natural colour and consistence. When the disease is of long standing, and has become habitual, it seldom admits of an easy cure; and when it attacks a person labouring under an advanced stage of scurvy, or pulmonary consumption, or whose constitution has been much impaired by any other disorder, it is sure to prove fatal. sometimes appears at the same time with autumnal intermittent and remittent fevers, as has been observed, and is then more complicated and difficult to remove.

Upon opening the bodies of those who die of dysentery, the internal coat of the intestines (but more particularly of the colon and rectum) appears to be affected larity attendant on it is, that it may, and with inflammation and its consequences, such as ulceration, gangrene, and contractions. The peritonæum and other coverings of the abdomen, seem likewise, in many instances, to be affected by inflammation.

DYSEPULOTICUS. (From No, with difficulty, and erunow, to cicatrize.) Dysepulotus. An inveterate ulcer difficult to be healed.

DYSESTHESIÆ. The name of an order of diseases in the class locales of Cullen's nosological arrangement; embracing those diseases in which the senses are injured or destroyed by the imperfections of the organs.

DYSHEMORRHOIS. (From As, with difficulty, and appression, the piles.) Suppression of bleeding piles

DYSLOCHIA. (From Sus, difficulty, and λοχια, the lochia.) A suppression of the

lochia.

DYSMENORRHÆA. (From Jus, with difficulty, and unvoggora, the menses.) difficult or painful menstruation, accompanied with severe pains in the back, loins, and bottom of the belly.

Dysones. (From Sus, bad, and of, to smell.) A bad smell. Fætid. Hippocrates applies it to a fætid disorder of the small intestines. Also the name of a malagma and acopon in Galen and Paulus Ægineta.

DYSOPIA. (From Sus, bad, and wy, an eye.) Parorasis. Difficult sight. Sight depraved, requiring one certain quantity of light, one particular distance, or one position. A genus of discase in the class locales, and order dysæsthesiæ of Cullen, containing the five following species: 1. Dysopia tenebrarum, called also amblylopia crepuscularis, requiring objects to be placed in a strong light. 2 Dysopia luminis, likewise termed amblyopia meridiana, objects only discernible in a weak light. 3. Dysopia dissitorum, in which distant objects are not perceived. 4. Dysopia proximorum, or dysopia amblyopia, in which objects too near are not perceived. 5. Dysopia luteralis, called also amblyopia luscorum, in which objects are not seen, unless placed in an oblique position.

DYSOREXIA. (From Sus, bad, and A bad or depraved apegific, appetite)

DYSOREXIÆ. The name of an order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology, which he divides into two sections, appetitus er-

roner and deficientes

DYSPEPSIA. (From Suc, bad, and worther, to concoct.) Aprepsia. Indigestion. Dr. Cullen arranges this genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order adynamia. It chiefly arises in persons between thirty and forty years of age, and is principally to be met with in those who devote much time to study, or who lead either a very sedentary or irregular life. A great singu-

often does, continue a great length of time, without any aggravation or remission of the

symptoms.

Great grief and uneasiness of mind, intense study, profuse evacuations, excess in venery, hard drinking, particularly of spirituous liquors, and of tea, tobacco, opium, and other narcotics, immoderate repletion, and over distention of the stomach, a deficiency in the secretion of the bile or gastric juice, and the being much exposed to moist and cold air, when without exercise, are the causes which usually occasion dyspepsia.

A long train of nervous symptoms generally attend on this disease, such as a loss of appetite, nausea, heart-burn, flatulency, acid cructations, a gnawing in the stomach when empty, a sense of constriction and uneasiness in the throat, with pain in the side, or sternum, so that the patient at times can only lay on his right side; great costiveness, habitual chilliness, paleness of the countenance, languor, unwillingness to move about, lowness of spirits, palpitations, and disturbed sleep.

The number of these symptoms varies in different cases, with some being felt only in part; in others being accompanied even with additional ones, equally unpleasant, such as severe transient pains in the head and breast, and various affections of the sight, as blindness, double vision, &c.

Dyspepsia never proves fatal, unless when, by a very long continuance it produces great general debility and weakness; and so passes into some other disease, such as dropsy; but it is at all times very difficult to remove, but more particularly so in

warm climates.

The morbid appearances to be observed on dissections of this disease, are principally confined to that part of the stomach which is called the pylorus; which is often found either in a contracted, scirrhous, or ulcerated state. In every instance the stomach is perceived to be considerably distended with air.

DYSPERMATISMUS. (From Suc, bad, and σπερμα, seed.) Agenesia. Slow, or impeded emission of semen during coition, insufficient for the purpose of generation. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order epischeses of Cullen. The species are: 1. Dyspermatismus urethralis, when the obstruction is in the urethra. 2. Dyspermatismus nodosus, when a tumour is formed in either corpus cavernosum penis. 3. Dyspermatismus proputialis, when the impediment is from a straightness of the orifice of the prapuce. 4. Dyspermatismus mucosus, when the urethra is obstructed by a viscid mucus. 5. Dyspermatismus hypertonicus, when there is an excess of erection of the penis. 6. Dyspermatismus epilepticus, from epileptic fits coming on during

coition. 7. Dyspermatismus ephractodes, from a want of vigour in the genitals. 8. Dyspermatismus refluus, in which the semen is thrown back into the urinary bladder.

DYSPHAGIA. (From δυς, with difficulty, and φαγω, to eat.) A difficulty of

deglutition.

DYSPHONIA. (From  $\delta u_s$ , bad, and  $\varphi \omega v_n$ , the voice.) A difficulty of speaking.

DYSPNŒA. (From Suc, difficult, тина, to breathe.) Dyspnoon. Difficult respiration, without sense of stricture, and accompanied with cough through the whole course of the disease. A genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi of Cullen. He distinguishes eight species. 1. Dyspnea catarrhalis, when with a cough there are copious discharges of viscid mucus, called also asthma catarrhale, pneumodes, pneumonicum, and pituitosum. 2. Dyspnæa sicca, when there is a cough without any considerable discharge. 3. Dyspnæa aerea, when the disease is much increased by slight changes of the weather. 4. Dyspnza terrea, when carthy or calculous matters are spit up. 5. Dyspnæu aquosa, when there is a scarcity of urinc and œdematous feet, without any symptoms of a dropsy in the chest. 6. Dyspnæa pinguedinosa, from corpulency. 7. Dyspnea thoracica, when parts surrounding the chest are injured or deformed. 8. Dyspnæa extrinseca, from manifest external causes.

Dyspnoon. See Dyspnea.

DYSRACHITIS. The name of a plaster in Galen.

DYSTHYMIA. (From Sus, bad, and Bupos,

mind.) Insanity.

Drsrochia. (From Sus, with difficulty, and rula, to bring forth.) Difficult labour or childbirth.

DYSTECHIASIS. (From dus, bad, and souxes, order.) An irregular disposition of

the hairs in the eyelids.

DYSURIA. (From Jus, difficult, and sgev, urine.) Stillicidium. Ardor urine. Culbicio. A suppression or difficulty in discharging the urine. A total suppression is called ischuria; a partial suppression, dysuria; and this may be with or without heat. When there are frequent, painful, or uneasy urgings to discharge the urine, and it passes off only by drops, or in very small quantities, the discharge is called strangury. When a sense of pain, or heat, attends the discharge, it

passes with difficulty, and is styled heat of the urine. The dysuria is acute, or chronic. Dr. Cullen places this disease in the class locales, and order epischeses, containing six species: 1. Dysuria ardens, a sense of heat, without any manifest disorder of the bladder. 2. Dysuria spasmodica, from 3. Dysuria compressionis, from a compression of the neighbouring parts. 4. Dysuria phlogistica, from violent inflammation. 5. Dysuria calculosa, from stone in the bladder. 6. Dysuria mucosa, from an abundant secretion of mucus. The causes which give rise to these diseases are, an inflammation of the urethra, occasioned either by venereal sores, or by a use of acrid injections, tumour, ulcer of the prostate gland, inflammation of the kidneys, or bladder, considerable enlargements of the hemorrhoidal veins, a lodgment of indurated faces in the rectum, spasm at the neck of the bladder, the absorption of cantharides, applied externally or taken internally, and excess in drinking either spirituous or vinous liquors; but particles of gravel, sticking at the neck of the bladder, or lodging in the urethra, and thereby producing irritation, prove the most frequent cause. Gouty matter falling on the neck of the bladder, will sometimes occasion these complaints.

In dysury, there is a frequent inclination to make water, with a smarting pain, licat, and difficulty in voiding it, together with a sense of fulness in the region of the blad-The symptoms often vary, however, according to the cause which has given rise to it. If it proceeds from a calculus in the kidney or ureter, besides the affections mentioned, it will be accompanied with nausea, vomiting, and acute pains in the loins and region of the ureter and kidney of the side affected. When a stone in the bladder, or gravel in the urethra, is the cause, an acute pain will be felt at the end of the penis, particularly on voiding the last drops of urine, and the stream of water will either be divided into two, or be discharged in a twisted manner, not unlike a cork-screw. If a scirrlius of the prostate gland has occasioned the suppression or difficulty of urine, a hard indolent tumour, unattended with any acute pain, may readily be felt in the perinæum, or by intro-

ducing the finger in ano.

## E.

FAR. Auris. The organ of hearing is situated at the side of the head, and is divided into external and internal ear. The auricula, commonly called the ear, constitutes the external, and contains several eminences and depressions, as the helix, an-

tihelix, tragus, antitragus, concha auricule, scapha, and lobulus. The external auditory passage, containing the wax, proceeds from its middle down to the membrane of the tympanum, which divides the external from the internal parts of this organ. Behind

the membrana tympani is an irregular cavity, the cavity of the tympanum, in which are four little bones, the malleus, incus, stapes, and os orbiculare; and four openings one of the Eustachian tube, mastoid sinus, fenestra ovalis, and fenestra rotunda. The tympanum is terminated by the labarynth. The labyrinth is terminated by the labarying. The labyrinth is the remaining part of the internal earth, consisting of the cochlea vestibulum, and semicircular canals. The arteries of the ear are the external and internal auditory. The veins empty themselves into the external jugulars. The muscles of the ear are divided into three laberary, the common proper and internal series. classes: the common, proper, and inter-The common muscles are, the attollens aurem, anterior auris and retrahentes auris, which move the whole ear. The proper are, helicis major, helicis minor, tragicus, antitragicus, and transversus auris; these affect the parts only to which they are connected. The muscles of the internal ear are, laxator tympani, tensor tympani, and stapedius, which belong to the ossicula auditus. The nerves of the external ear are branches of the nervus auditorius durus, and those of the internal ear, are branches of the nervus auditorius mollis.

EARTH. Terra. Though there seems to be an almost infinite variety of earthy substances scattered on the surface of this globe, yet when we examine them with a chymical eye, we find, not without surprise, that all the earth and stones which we tread under our feet, and which compose the largest rocks, as well as the numerous different specimens which adorn the cabinets of the curious, are composed of a very few simple or elementary earths, in number no more than seven: viz.-Silex, alumine, glucine, zircon, agustine, yttria, and magnesia.

These are all the simple earths hitherto known: none of them have yet been decomposed, nor has the smallest proof been brought that they are compound; we must therefore consider them as simple bodies, which nature presents to us completely formed, though one or more of them enters into the composition of a great many bodies. They have a variety of properties which are common to all:-they are dry, incombustible bodies. They are insoluble in water and alcohol, or nearly so. They have little or no taste. Their specific gra-vity does not exceed 4.9. When perfectly pure, they assume the form of a white powder, harsh to the touch. They are infusible. They are capable of combining with are likewise disposed to unite with the alkalis, with sulphur, and phosphorus; with metallic oxyds, and with each other, either by fusion or solution in water.

Every one of these characters is not perhaps rigorously applicable to each of these bodies; but they all possess a sufficient number of them to render it useful to arrange them under one class.

Stones differ from earths principally in cohesion and hardness, and therefore are included under the same general name.

Earth, absorbent. See Absorbents.

Earth, aluminous. Earth which contains alu:nina. See Alumene.

Earth, animal calcareous. This term is applied to crab's claws, &c. which are calcareous earth, and obtained from the animal kingdom.

Earth, argillaceous. See Alumine.

EARTH-BATH. A remedy recommended by some writers on the continent, as a specific in consumption. In this country it produced to the patients very distressing sensations of cold; in some it seemed to be productive of bad effects; and it does not appear that, in any consumptive cases, good effects were ever derived from its use

Earth, bolar. See Bole.

EARTH, FULLERS'. Cimolia purpurescens. A compact bolar earth, commonly of a greyish colour. It is sometimes applied by the common people to inflamed breasts, legs, &c. with a view of cooling them.

zs, &c. with a rice.
Earth, heavy. See Barytes.
Earth, Japan. See Catechu,
Careal calcareous. Those calcareous earths which are obtained from the mineral kingdom. The term is applied in opposition to those obtained from animals.

Earth-nut. See Pig-nut.

EARTH, SEALED. Terra sigillata. cakes of bolar earths, which are stamped with impressions. They were formerly in high estimation as absorbents, but now fallen into disuse.

Lambricus terrestris. EARTH-WORM. Vermis terrestris. These insects are supposed to possess a diuretic and antispasmodic virtue, with which views they are occasionally employed in foreign countries.

EAR-WAY. Cerumen aurium. A waxy secretion found in the meatus auditorius externus, into which it is separated by the glands around that canal.

EATON'S STYPTIC. French brandy highly impregnated with calcined green vitriol. A remedy for checking hamorrhages.

EAU-DE-LUCE. See Spiritus ammoniæ succinatus.

This is composed of EAU-DE-RABEL. one part of sulphureous acid to three of rectified spirit of wine. It is much used in France, when diluted, in the cure of gonorrhœas, leuconhœa, &c.

EBEL. The seeds of sage, or of juniper. EBENUM. Indian ebony. It is supposed to be opthalmic.

A name in I angius for EBESMECH. quicksilver.

EBISCUS. The hibiscus, or marsh mal-

EBRIECATUM. (From ebrio, to be drunk.) By this term Paracelsus expresses loss of sense by drunkenness.

EBRIECATUR CELESTE. By this term Paracelsus means that kind of enthusiasm which is affected by many heathen priests.

EBSEMECH. A name in Languis for quick-

EBULLITION. (From ebullio, to bubble up.) Ebullitio. Boiling. This con-Boiling. This consists in the change which a fluid undergoes from a state of liquidity to that of an aëriform fluid, or gas, in consequence of the application of heat, which dilates and con-

verts it into vapour.

EBULUS. (From ebullio, to make boil; so called because of its supposed use in purifying the humours of the body.) Cha-Sambucus humilis. Sambucus herbacea. Dwarf elder, or dane-wort. The root, interior bark, leaves, flowers, berries, and seeds of this herbaceous plant, Sambucus ebulus; cyniestrifidis, stipulis foliaceis, caule herbaceo, of Linnæus, have all been administered medicinally, in moderate doses, as resolvents and deobstruents, and, in larger doses, as hydragogues. The plant is chiefly employed by the poor of this country, amongst whom it is in common use as a purgative, but Dr. Cullen speaks of it as a violent remedy.

ECBOLICA. (From excande, to cast out.) Medicines which were formerly said to

cause abortion.

(From eneadaw, to cast out.) ECBOLIOS.

Miscarriage.

ECBRASMATA. (From exceaça, to be very hot.) Ecchymata. Painful fiery pimples in the face, or surface of the body.

ECHRASMUS. (From enterator, to become

hot.) Fermentation.

ECHYRSOMATA. (From ex, and Bugoa, the skin.) Protuberances of the bones at the joints, which appear through the skin-

ECCATHARTICA. (From εκκαθαιζω, to purge outwards.) According to Gorræus, eccathartics are medicines which open the pores of the skin; but in general they are understood to be deobstruents. Sometimes expectorants are thus called, and also purgatives.

ECCHYLOMA. (From ex, and yuxos, juice.)

An extract.

ECCHYMATA. (From sixva, to pour out.)

See Ecbrasmata.

ECCHYMOMA. (Εκχυμωμα; from εκχυω, to pour out.) Ecchymosis. Sometimes called crustula and sugillatio. travasation. A black and blue swelling, either from a bruise or extravasation of blood. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order tumores of Cullen.

ECCHYMOMA ARTERIOSUM.

aneurism.

Ecchymosis. See Ecchymoma.

Ecclisis. (From sundiva, to turn aside.) A luxation or dislocation.

Eccore. (From sknowlw, to cut off.) The cutting off any part.

Eccopeus. (From exxorta, to cut off.) An ancient instrument, the raspatory, used in trepanning.

Eccoprotica. (From sx, and xompos, dung.) Opening medicines, whose operation is very

gentle; such as manna, senna, &c.

Eccrinocritica. (From execute, to secrete, and newa, to judge.) Judgments formed from the secretions.

ECCRINOLOGIA. Eccrinologica. (From experve, to secrete, and hopes, a discourse.)

The doctrine of secretions.

Eccrisis. (From exagno, to secrete.) A secretion of any kind.

Eccymosis. See Ecchymoma.

(From exdegw, to excoriate.) Ecdora. An excoriation; and particularly used for an excoriation of the urethra.

ECDORIA. (From sudego, to excoriate.) Medicines which excoriate and burn through

the skin.

ECHECOLLON. (From εχω, to have, and κολλα, glue.) Echecollum. Any topical glutinous remedy.

Echernosis. So Hippocrates calls the

white briony.

ECHINIDES. In Hippocrates it is mentioned as what he used for purging the womb with.

ECHINOPHTHALMIA. (From nxivos, a hedge-hog, and opanuia, an inflammation of the eye.) An inflammation of the hairy part of the eyelids, where the hairs bristle out like the quills of an echinus, or hedge-

ECHINOPODIUM. (From exivos, a hedgehog, and mes, a foot; so named because its flowers resemble the foot of an urchin.)

A species of broom, or genista.

Echinopus. (Fom exivos, as beset with prickles.) Crocodilion. Acanthalruca. Scabiosa cardiafolia. Sphærocephula elatior. Globe thistle. Echinops spherocephalus of Linuxus. It is raised in our gardens. The root and seeds are moderately diuretic, but

ECHIUM. (From εχις, a viper; so called because it was said to heal the stings of vipers.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Viper's bugloss. tepileptic.

ECHIUM ÆGYPTIACUM. Wall bugloss;

vulnerary, sudorific.

Есноs. (Εχος, sound.) In Hippocrates it signifies the same as the tinnitus aurium, or noise in the ears.

Echysis. (From εχυω, to pour out.) A fainting, or swooning.

Eclampsia. (From εκλαμπω, to shine.) See Eclampsis.

ECLAMPSIS. (From επλαμπω, to shine.) Eclampsia. It signifies a splendour, brightness, effulgence, flashing of light, scintilla-It is a flashing light, or those sparklings which strike the eyes of epileptic patients. Colius Aurelianus calls them circuli ignei, scintillations, or fiery circles. Though only a symptom of the epilepsy Hippocrates puts it for epilepsy itself.

ECLECTICA. (From waya, to elect.) Archigenus and some others selected from all other sects what appeared to them to be the best and most rational; hence they were called Eclectics, and their medicine

Eclectic medicine.

ECLECTOS. (From εκλειχω, to lick np.) A linetus, or soft medicine to be licked

ECLEGNA. (From exauxa, to lick.) Is a form of medicine made by the incorporation of oils and syrups, and which is to be taken upon a liquorice stick; the same as Linctus.

Eclysis. (From εκλύω, to dissolve.) Ec-

lectos. An universal famitness.

ECNAGNA. (From εκμασσω, to form together.) A mass of substances kneaded together.

ECPEPIESMENOS. (From example, to press out.) An epithet for ulcers with protube-

rating lips.

Econnactic. (From expenses, to remove obstructions.) Are such medicines as incide and render more thin tough humours, so as to promote their discharge

ECPHRACTICA. (From εκφεασσω, to remove obstructions.) Deobstruent medi-

Ecrimanis. (From εκφεασσω, to remove obstruction.) A diaphoresis; an openiog of the pores.

ECPHYAS. (From &, and oue, to produce.) An appendix, or excrescince. Some call the appendicula vermiformis thus.

Flatus from the bladder ECPRYSE.

through the urethra, and from

Ecpaysesis. (From εκφυσαω, to breathe through.) A quick expulsion of the air from the lungs.

ECPHYSIS, (From exqua, to produce.)

Ap apophysis, or appendix. A process. Есргеяма. (From ватиза, to press out.) A fracture of the skull, in which the bones

press inwardly.

Ecrissmos. (From extelo, to press out.) A disorder of the eye, in which the globe is almost pressed out of the socket by an afflux of humours.

ECPLEROMA. (From ENTANPOW, to fill) In Hippocrates they are hard balls of leather, or other substances, adapted to fill the arm-pits, while by the help of the heels, placed against the balls, and repressing the same, the luxated os humeri is reduced into its place.

ECPLEXIS. (From extanosa, to terrify or astonish.) A stupor, or astonishment,

from sudden external accidents.

ECPNOE. (From encover, to breathe.) Expiration; that part of respiration in which the air is expelled from the lungs.

Есртома. (From εκπιπθω, to fall out.)

1. A luxation of a bone.

2. The exclusion of the secundines.

3. Speaking of corrupt parts, it signifies falling off.

4. An hernia in the scrotum.

5. A falling down of the womb.

ECPYCTICA. (From εκπυκαζω, to condense.) Incrassants. Medicines that render the fluids more solid.

ECPYEMA. (From ex, and muce, pus.) A copious collection of pus or matter, from the suppuration of a tumour.

ECREGMA. (From exenyrums, to break.) A

rupture.

Ecrexis. (From εηγυμι, to break.) A rupture. Hippocrates expresses by it a rupture or laceration of the womb.

ECRHYTHMOS. (From εκ, and gυθμος, harmony.) A term applied to the pulse, and

signifies that it is disorderly or irregular.
Ε Ε του Ε. (From εικερω, to flow out.) An efflux, or the course by which any humour which requires purging is evacuated.

Ecnuelles. The French name for scro-

phula.

ECRUSIS. (From execu, to flow out.) In Hippocrates it is an efflux of the semen before it receives the conformation of a fœtus. and therefore is called an efflux, to distinguish it from abortion.

Ecsarcoma. (From ex, and oaet, flesh.)

A fleshy excrescence.

ECSTASIS. (Εκςασις: from ιξισημαι, to he out of one's senses.) An exstacy, or trance. In Hippocrates it signifies a delirium. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a kind of apoplexy. Sec Exstacis.

ECTHELYNSIS. (From subnduva, to render effeminate.) Sofiness. It is applied to the skin and flesh, when lax and soft, and to bandages, when not sufficiently tight.

ECTHLIMMA. (From εκθλίω, to press out against.) An ulceration caused by

pressure of the skin.

ECTHLIFSIS. (From εκθλιβω, to press out against.) Elision, or expression. It is spoken of swelled eyes, when they dart forth sparks of light.

ECTHYMA. (From εκθυω, to break out.)

A pustule, or cutaneous eruption.

ECTHYMATA. (From extue, to break out.) Pimples, pustules, or cutaneous eruptions.

(From Minne, to pull ECTILIOTICA. out.) Medicines which eradicate tubercles, or corns, or destroy superfluous

ECTOPIA. (From exlores, out of place.) Displaced.

ECTOPLE. Parts displaced. An order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology.

ECTRAPELOGASTROS. (From selectional, 0 0 \*

to degenerate, and passes, a belly.) One who has a monstrous belly, or whose appe-

tite is voraciously large.

ECTRIMA. (From salgica, to rub off.) An attrition, or galling. In Hippocrates it is an exulceration of the skin about the os sacrum.

ECTROFE. (From ω/ζετα, to divert, pervert, or invert.) It is any duct by which the humours are diverted and drawn off. In P. Ægineta it is the same as Ectropium.

ECTROPHIUS. (From εκεχεφω, to invert.)
An epithet for any medicine that makes

the blind piles appear outwardly.

ECTROPIUM. (From ωλίζετα, to evert ) An eversion of the eyelids so that their in-

ternal surface is outermost.

There are two species of this disease; one produced by an unnatural swelling of the lining of the eyelids, which not only pushes their edges from the eyeball, but also presses them so forcibly, that they become everted; the other arising from a contraction of the skin, covering the eyelid, or of that in the vicinity, by which means the edge of the eyelid is first removed for some distance from the eye, and afterwards turned completely outward, together with the whole of the affected eyelid.

The morbid swelling of the lining of the eyelids, which causes the first species of ectropium, arises mostly from a congenial laxity of this membrane, afterwards increased by obstinate chronic ophthalmies, particularly of a scrophulous nature, in relaxed, unhealthy subjects; or else the disease originates from the small-pox affecting

the eyes.

While the disease is confined to the lower eye-lid, as it most commonly is, the liping of this part may be observed rising in the form of a semilunar fold, of a pale red colour, like the fungous granulations of wounds and intervening between the eye and eyelid, which latter it in some measure everts. When the swelling is afterwards occasioned by the lining of both the eyelids, the disease assumes an annular shape, in the centre of which the eyeball seems sunk, while the circumference of the ring presses and everts the edges of the two eye-lids, so as to cause both great uneasiness and deformity. In each of the above cases, on pressing the skin of the eye-lids with the point of the finger, it becomes manifest that they are very capable of being elongated, and would readily yield, so as entirely to cover the eye-ball, were they not prevented by the intervening swelling of their membranous lining.

Besides the very considerable deformity which the disease produces, it occasions a continual discharge of tears over the check, and what is worse, a dryness of the eye-ball,

frequent exasperated attacks of chronic ophthalmy, incapacity to bear the light, and lastly, opacity and ulceration of the cornea.

The second species of ectropium, or that arising from a contraction of the integnments of the eyelids, or neighbouring parts, is not unfrequently a consequence of puckered scars, produced by the confluent small-pox, deep burns, or the excision of cancerous or encysted tumours, without saving a sufficient quantity of the skin; or lastly, the disorder is the effect of malignant carbuncles, or any kind of wound attended with much loss of substance. Each of these causes is quite enough to bring on such a contraction of the skin of the eyelids as to draw the parts towards the arches of the orbits, so as to remove them from the eye-ball and turn their edges outward. No sooner has this circumstance happened, than it is often followed by another one equally unpleasant, namely a swelling of the internal membrane of the affected eyelids, which afterwards has a great share in completing the eversion. The lining of the eye-lids, though trivially everted, being continually exposed to the air, and irritation of extraneous substances, scou swells, and rises up like fungus. One side of this fungus-like tumour, covers a part of the eye-ball, the other pushes the eye-lid so considerably outward, that its edge is not unfrequently in contact with the margin of the orbit. The complaints induced by this second species of ectropium are the same as those brought on by the first; it being noticed, however, that in both cases, whenever the disease is very inveterate, the fungous swelling of the inside of the eye-lids becomes hard, coriaceous, and as it were

Although, in both species of ectropium, the lining of the eye-lids, seems equally swollen, yet the surgeon can easily distinguish to which of the two species the disease belongs. For, in the first, the skin of the eyelids, and adjoining parts, is not deformed with scars; and by pressing the everted eyelid with the point of the finger, the part would with ease cover the eye, were it not for the intervening fungous swelling. But in the second species of ectropium, besides the obvious cicatrix and contraction of the skin of the eye-lids, or adjacent parts, when an effort is made to cover the eye with the everted eyelid, by pressing upon the latter part with the point of the finger, it does not give way so as completely to cover the globe, or only yields, as it ought to do, for a certain extent; or it does not move in the least from its unnatural position, by reason of the integuments of the eye-lids having been so extensively destroyed, that their margin has become adherent to the arch of the orbit.

Ecrnosis. (Exteuris: from extile worke, to A miscarriage. miscarry.)

Ectrosis. (From exillewine, to miscarry.)

An abortion.

ECTROTICA. (From extilearna, to miscarry.) Ectyrotica. Medicines which cause abortion.

ECTYLOTICA. See Ecullotica.

ECTYROTICA. See Ectrotica. Eczema. (From εκζεω, to boil out.) Eczesma A hot painful eruption, or pus-

Mr. Pearson calls the erythema mercuriale, eczema mercuriale.

EDELPHUS. Prognosis from the nature of elements.

EDENA THIFOLIA. The poison-tree of America.

Edes. A name for amber.

EDESSENUM. Pelarium. An eye-water of tragacanth, arabic, acacia, opium, &c.

EDETZ. Amber.

Edic. Edich. Edir. An old name for

EDRA. A fracture; also the lower part of the rectum.

EDULCORANTIA. (From edulco, to make sweet. Edulcorants. Sweeteners. Me-dicines which absorb the vicious humours of the body, sweeten the fluids, and deprive

them of their acrimony.

EFFERVESCENCE. (From effervesco, to grow hot.) Effervescentia. That agitation which is produced by mixing an acid and an alkali together. A small degree

of ebullition.

Effices. An old name for ceruss. Effica. Freckles.

EFFLORESCENCE. (From effloresco, to blow as a flower.) Efforescentia. 1. A preternatural redness of the skin.

2. In chymistry it means that phenomenon which takes place upon crystals, producing a white powder when exposed to air.

EFFLUVIUM. (From effluo, to spread abroad.) See Contagion.

Effractura. (From effringo, to break down. Ecpiesma. A species of fracture, in which the bone is much depressed by the

EFFUSION. (From effundo, to pour out.) Effusio. In surgery it means the escape of any fluid out of the vessel, or viscus, naturally containing it, and its lodgment in another cavity, in the cellular substance, or in the substance of parts. Effusion also sometimes signifies the natural secretion of fluids from the vessels; thus surgeons frequently speak of the coagulable lymph being effused on different surfaces.

Egenies. (From egero, to carry out.) Egestio. An excretion, or evacuation.

EGG. Ovum. The eggs of poultry are chiefly used as food: the different parts are likewise employed in pharmacy and in medicine. The calcined shell is esteemed as an absorbent. The oil of the egg is softening, and is used externally to burns

and chaps. The yolk of the egg renders oil misciple with water, and is triturated with the same view with resinous and other substances. Raw eggs have been much recommended as a popular remedy for jaundice.

EGREGORSIS. (From eyznyogew, to watch.)
A watchfulness. A morbid want of sleep.

EJACULANTIA. (From ejaculo, to cast out.) Ejaculatoria. The vessels which convey the seminal matter secreted in the testicles to the penis. These are the epididymis, and the vasa deferentia; the vesiculæ seminales are the receptacles of the semen.

EJECTIO. (From ejicio, to cast out.) Excretio. The discharging of humours or excrements.

EILAMIS. (From EIREW, to involve.) A

membrane involving the brain.

EILEMA. (From sidew, to form convolutions.) In Hippocrates it signifies painful convolutions of the intestines from flatu-lence. Sometimes it signifies a covering. Vogel says it is a fixed pain in the bowels, as if a nail was driven in.

EILEON. (From einew, to wind.) Gorraus says it is a name of the intestinum

EILEOS. (From eldew, to form convolu-

tions.) The iliac passion.

EISBOLE. (From us, into, and βαλλω, to cast) It signifies strictly an injection, but is used to express the access of a distemper, or of a particular paroxysm.

EISPNOE. (From es, into, and week, to breathe) Inspiration of air.

ELA CALLI. An Indian cathartic shrub, the Euphorbia neriifolia of Linnaus.

ELEAGNON. (From shator, oil, and apros, chaste.) The agnus castus was formerly so called.

ELEOSACCHARUM. (From examor, oil, and σακχαριον, sugar.) Λ mixture of essential oil with sugar.

ELEOSELINUM. (From ελος, a lake, and σελιγον, parsley.) Water parsley.

ELAIS GUINEENSIS. A species of palm which grows spontaneously on the coast of Guinea, but is much cultivated in the West Indies. From this tree is obtained the palm oil which is considered as an emollient and strengthener of all kinds of weakne-s of the limbs. It also is recommended against bruises, strains, cramps, pains, swellings, &c.

ELAMBICATIO. A method of analyzing

mineral waters.

ELANULA. An old name for alum.

ELAPHOBOSCUM. (From ελαφος, a stag, and βοσκω, to eat; so called, because deer eat them greedily.) The wild parsnip. See Pastinaca.

ELAPHOSCORODON. (From ELAPOS, the stag, and σκοροδον garlic.) Stag's or viper's garlic.

ELAQUIR. Red vitriol.

ELAS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELASMA. (From ELAUVO, a lamina or plate of any kind.) A term used to express a clyster-pipe.

Elastic fluid. See Gas.
Elastic gum. See Indian-rubber.
ELASTICITY. A force in bodies, by which they endeavour to restore themselves to the posture from whence they were displaced by any external force. solve this property, many have recourse to the universal law of nature, attraction, by which the parts of solid and firm bodies are caused to cohere together: whereby, when hard bodies are struck or bent, so that the component parts are a little moved from one another, but not quite disjoined or broken off, nor separated so far as to be out of the power of attracting force, by which they cohere together, they certainly must, on the cessation of the external violence, spring back with a very great velocity to their former state; but in this circumstance the atmospherical pressure will account for it as well; because such a violence, if it be not great enough to separate the constituent particles of a body far enough to let in any foreign matter, must occasion many va-cuola between the separated surfaces, so that upon the removal they will close again by the pressure of the aërial fluid upon the external parts, i. e. the body will come again into its natural posture. The included air, likewise, in most bodies, gives that power of resilition upon their percussion.

If two bodies perfectly elastic strike one against another, there will be or remain in each the same relative velocity as before, i. e. they will recede with the same velocity as they met together with. For the compressive force, or the magnitude of the stroke in any given bodies, arises from the relative velocity of those bodies, and is proportional to it: and bodies perfectly elastic will restore themselves completely to the figure they had before the shock; or, in other words, the restitutive force is equal to the compressive, and therefore must be equal to the force with which they came together, and consequently they must by elasticity recede again from each other with the same velocity. Hence, taking equal times before and after the shock, the distances between the bodies will be equal: and therefore the distances of times from the common centre of gravity will, in the same times, be equal. And hence the laws of percussion of bodies perfectly elastic are easily deduced.

ELATERIUM. (From Exaura, to stimulate or agitate: so named from its great purgative qualities.) See Cucumis agrestis.

ELATHERIA. A name for the cascarilla

bark.

ELATINE. (From shaltar, smaller, being

the smaller species.) Fluellen, or female speedwell. Antirrhinum elatine of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have a roughish bitter taste, but no smell. It was formerly much used against scurvy and old ulcerations, but now wholly forgotten.

ELATITES. Bloodstone.

ELCOSIS. (From samos, an ulcer.) disease attended with fetid, carious, and chronic ulcers. The term is seldom used.

Elder. See Sambucus.

Elder dwarf. See Ebulus. Elecampane. See Enula campana.

ELECTRICITY. (Electricitas, electrum, exentpov, from exentag, the sun. because of its bright shining colour; or from enew, to draw, because of its magnetic power.) A property which certain bodies possess when rubbed, heated, or excited, whereby they attract remote bodies, and frequently emit sparks or streams of light. The ancients first observed this property in amber, which they called electrum, and hence arose the word electricity. The efficacy of electricity in the cure of several diseases has been supported by many very respectable authorities, especially in paralytic diseases. It considerably augments the circulation of the blood, and excites the action of the absorbents.

ELECTRODES. (From naulgov, amber.) An epithet for stools which shine like amber

ELECTRUM MINERALE. The tincture of. metals. It is made of tin and copper, to which some add gold, and double its quantity of martial regulus of antimony, melted together; from these there results a metallic mass, to which some chymists have given the name of electrum minerale. This mass is powdered and detonated with nitre and charcoal to a kind of scoria; it is powdered again whilst hot, and then digested in spirit of wine, whence a tincture is obtained of a fine red colour.

ELECTUARIUM. An electuary. The London Pharmacopæia refers those articles which were formerly called electuaries to

confections and conserves.

ELECTUARIUM ANTIMONII. B. Electuarii sennæ, one ounce ; guaiaci gummi, hydrargyri cum sulphure antimonii ppti. sing. half an ounce; syrupi simplicis q. s. misce. Of this electuary from a dram to about two drams is given twice a day, in those cutaneous diseases which go under the general name of scorbutic. It is usually accompanied with the decoctions of elm, bark, or sarsaparilla.

ELECTUARIUM CASSIE. See Confectio

cassia.

ELECTUARIUM CATECHU. Confectio Japonica. Electuary of catechu, commonly called Japonic confection. Take of mi-mosa catechu, four ounces; kino, three ounces; cinnamon, nutmeg, each, one ounce; opium diffused in a sufficient quantity of Spanish white wine one drachm and a

half; syrup of dried roses boiled to the consistence of honey, two pounds and a quarter. Reduce the solids to powder, and liaving mixed them with the opium and syrup, make them into an electuary. A very useful astringent, and perhaps the most efficacious way of giving the catechu to advantage. Ten scruples of this electuary contain one grain of opium.

ELECTUARIUM CINCHONAL CUM NATRO. y natri ppti zjj; pulveris cinchonæ unc; mucilagini gummi arabaci q. s. misce. this composition mucilage is preferred to syrup, on account of its covering the taste of the bark much more advantageously. It should, for this purpose, however, be made thin, otherwise it will increase the

bulk of the electuary too much.

This remedy will be found an excellent substitute for the burnt sponge, whose powers as a remedy in scrophula, are known solely to depend on the proportion of natron contained in it. The dose is two drachms, twice or thrice a day.

ELECTUARIUM OPIATUM. See Confectio

ELELISPHACOS. (From ελελιζω, to distort, and opaxos, sage; so named from the spiral coiling of its leaves and branches.) A species of sage.

ELEMBRAT. An obsolete term for alka-

line salts.

ELEMENTS. Radicals. First principles. The minutest particles of any substance, which can no further be divided or decomposed by chymical analysis. Many substances cannot be farther decomposed by the chymist into constituent parts, but this does not entitle the ranking them among the elements. Though they are as yet decomposed, it does not follow that they are undecomposable; as, perhaps, neither our senses nor our instruments will ever reach those substances which by their nature admit of no sort of decomposition. The bodies which are known to us at present, however, as simple substances, amount to forty-one; some of these may be sensibly exhibited in their simple state, uncombined with other matters: these are termed ostensible, producible, simple substances, to distinguish them from those whose existence or presence is only inferred from facts, and are called unustensible, unproducible, simple substances. The following is a list of simple substances at present known.

Unproducible, simple Substances. Phlogiston, or 10. Boracce, Phlogiston, or 11. Rad. of gold. 10. Boracic, radical. 12. —— platina. 13. —— silver. 2. Oxygen. 3. Hydrogen. 4. Azotic. 14. — mercury. 5. Carbonic. 15. — lead. 16. --- copper. 6. Sulphur.

7. Phosphor. 17. \_\_\_\_ iron. 8. Muriatic. 18. —— tin.

9. Fluoric. 19. -- zinc.

20.	Rad. of bismuth.	26. Rad. of molybd.
21.	antim.	27. — wolfranc.
22.	nickel.	28. —— uranium.
23.	cobalt.	
24.	arsenic.	30. ——tellurium.
25.	mangan.	31. ——— chronic.
Producible, ostensible, simple Substances.		
32.	Caloric.	37. Strontian 38. Argillac. 39. Glucine.
33.	Siliceous. 7 .	38. Argillac. > \frac{1}{2}
34.	Calcar. Magnesia. Ponder.	39. Glucine.
	Magnesia.	40. Vegetab.
36.	Ponder.	41. Mineral. \$\frac{1}{2}

The alkalis have lately been decomposed.

See Potassa and Soda.

ELEMI. (It is said this is the Ethiopian name.) Gum elemi. The parent plant of this resin is supposed to be the Amyris elemifera of Linnæus :- foliis ternis quinatopinnatisque subtus tomentosis. Elemi is brought here from the Spanish West Indies: it is most esteemed when sofush, somewhat transparent, of a pale whitish colour, inclining a little to green, and of a strong, though not unpleasant smell. It is only used in ointments and plasters, and is a powerful digestive.

ELEMI UNGUENTUM. See Unguentum

elemi compositum.

ELEMNIFERA CURASSAVICA ARBOR. The gum elemi-tree.

ELENGI. A tree of Malabar. Cardiac. ELEOCHRYSUM. (From naioc, the sun, and χευσος, gold; so called from their shining yellow appearance) Eliochrysum. Goldilocks. See Eliochrysum.

ELEOSILINUM. (From exos, a lake, and

σελινον, parsley.) See Apium.

ELEPHANTIA. (From ελεφας, an elephant; so called from the great enlargement of the body in "this disorder.) A species of anasarca.

ELEPHANTIA ARABUM. In Dr. Cullen's nosologyit is synonymous with elephantiasis. The term is, however, occasionally confined to this disease when it affects the feet.

ELEPHANTIASIS. (From exeque, an elephant; so named from the legs of people affected with this disorder growing scaly, rough, and wonderfully large, at an advanced period, like the legs of an ele-Elephas. Elephantia. morbus vel malum. Phaniceus morbus. A disease that attacks the whole body, but mostly affects the feet, which appear somewhat like those of the elephant. It is known by the skin being thick, rough, wrinkly, unctuous, and void of hair, and mostly without the sense of feeling. It is said to be contagious. Cullen makes it a genus of disease in the class cachexia, and order impetigines.

Elephantiasis has generally been supposed to arise in consequence of some slight attack of fever, on the cessation of which the morbid matter falls on the leg, and occasions a distention and tumefaction of the limb, which is afterwards overspread

with uneven lumps, and deep fissures. By some authors it has been considered as a species of leprosy; but it often subsists for many years without being accompanied with any of the symptoms which characterize that disease.

It sometimes comes on gradually, without much previous indisposition; but more generally, the person is seized with a coldness and shivering, pains in the head, back, and loins, and some degree of nausea. A slight fever then ensues, and a severe pain is felt in one of the inguinal glands, which, after a short time, becomes hard, swelled, and inflamed. No suppuration, however, ensues; but a red streak may be observed running down the thigh from the swelled gland to the leg. As the inflammation increases in all the parts, the fever gradually abates, and perhaps, after two or three days continuance, goes off. It however, returns again at uncertain periods, leaving the leg greatly swelled with varicose turgid veins, the skin rough and rugged, and a thickened membrana cellulosa. Scales appear also on the surface, which do not fall off, but are enlarged by the increasing thickness of the membranes; uneven lumps, with deep fissures, are formed, and the leg and foot become at last of an enormous

A person may labour under this disease many years, without finding much alteration in the general health, except during the continuance of the attacks; and perhaps the chief inconvenience he will experience is the enormous bulky leg which he drags about with him. The incumbrance has, indeed, induced many who have laboured under this disease to submit to an amputation; but the operation seldom proves a radical cure, as the other leg frequently becomes affected.

Hillary observes, that he never saw both legs swelled at the same time. Instances where they have alike acquired a frightful and produgious size, have, however, frequently fallen under the observation of other

physicians.

ELEPHANTINUM EMPLASTRUM. A plaster described by Oribasius. Celsus describes one of the same name, but very different in

qualities.

ELEPHAS. (Ελεφας, the elephant.) The disease called elephantiasis; also aqua fortis.

ELEESNA. An obsolete term for black

lead

ELESMATIS. An old term for burnt lead.

ELETTARI PRIMUM. See Amomum ve-

ELEUTHERIA BARK. See Cascarilla. ELEUTHERIE CORTEX. See Cascarilla.

ELEVATIO. (From elevo, to lift up.) Elevation. Sublimation.

ELEVATOR. (From elevo, to lift up) A muscle is so called whose office is to lift

up the part to which it is attached. Also a chirurgical instrument elevatorium, with which surgeons raise any depressed portion of bone, but chiefly those of the cranium.

ELEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS PROPRIUS.

See Levator labii inferioris.

ELEVATOR LABII SUPERIORIS PROPRIUS. See Levator labii superioris alæque nasi.

ELEVATOR LABIORUM. See Levator anguli oris.

ELEVATOR MASI ALARUM. Muscles of the alæ of the nose.

ELEVATOR PALPEBRE SUPERIORIS.

Levator palpebra superioris.

ELEVATOR SCAPULE. See Levator sca-

pulæ.

ELEVATORIUM. (From elevo, to lift up.)

An instrument to raise a depression in the skull.

ELIBANUM. See Olibanum.
ELICHRYSUM. (From 61.00, the sun, and Xguros, gold; so called from their shining yellow appearance.) Stechas citrina. Goldilocks. This small downy plant is the Gnaphalium stechas of Linnæus. The flowers are warm, pungent, and bitter, and said to possess aperient and corroborant virtues.

ELIDRION. Mastich; a mixture of

brass.

ELIGMA. An old name for a linctus.

ELIGMALI. (From ελαιον, and μελι, honey.) A sweet purging oil like honey.

ELIOSELINUM. See Eleoselinum.
ELITHROIDES. The vaginal coat of the

testicle.

ELIXATIO. (From elixo, to boil.) The

act of seething, or boiling.

ELIXIR. (From elekser, an Arabic word signifying quintessence.) A term fermerly applied to many preparations similar to compound tinctures. It is now very little employed.

ELIXIR OF HEALTH. Elixir salutis A term formerly applied to what is now called compound tincture of senna. See *Tinctura* 

senne composita.

ELIXIR PAREGORICUM. Paregoric elixir. See Pinctura opii camphorata.

ELIXIR PROPRIETATIS. A preparation of

ELIXIR SACRUM. See Tinctura rhæi cum

eloe.

ELIXIR SALUTIS. See Tinct. sennæ comp.

ELIXIR STOMACHICUM. Stomachic elixir. See Tinctura gentianæ composita.

ELIXIVATIO. (From elixo, to boil, or from lixivium, lye.) The extraction of a fixed salt from vegetables, by an affusion of water.

ELLEBORUM. See Helleborus albus.

Elm. See Ulmus.

FLMINTHES. (From with, to involve, from its contortions.) Worms.

Elm-leaved sumach. See Sumach.

ELODES. (From shoe, a swamp.) A

EMB term given to a sweating fever, from its ponis sing, 3j. M. For bruises with inflamgreat moisture.

ELONGATIO. (From elongo, to lengthen out.) An imperfect luxation, where the li-

gament is only lengthened, and the bone not put out of its socket.

ELUTRIATION. (From elutriatio, to

cleanse.) Washing over. It is the pouring a liquor out of one vessel into another, in order to separate the subsiding matter from the clear and fluid part.

ELUVIES (From eluo, to cleanse.) The effluvium from a swampy place. Also the

humour discharged in fluor albus. ELUXATIO. (From eluxo, to put out of in the Pharmacopæia Chirurgica.

joint.) A luxation, or dislocation.

ELYMAGROSTIS. (From ελαμος, the herb panic, and αγξαικ, wild.) Wild panic.

ELYMUS. (Ελαμος.) The herb panic.

ELYTROCELE (From ελυπξον, the va-

gina, and RALA, a tumour.) A hernia in the

vagma.

ELYTROIDES. (Elytroides; from EAU-Tgov, a sheath, and edos, form.) Like a sheath. The tunica vaginalis is so called by some writers, because it includes the testes like a sheath.

ELYTHON. (From ελυω, to involve.)
The vagina. A sheath. The membranes which involve the spinal marrow are called clytra, exulga.

EMARGINATIO. (From emargino, cleanse the edges.) The cleansing of the edges of wounds from scurf and filth.

EMASCULATUS. (From emasculo, to render impotent.) Having the testicles in the belly, and not fallen into the scrotum.

EMBAMMA. (From EMGAMOw, to immerge in.) A medicated pickle to dip the food

EMBOLE. (From EMERANA, to put in.) The reduction or setting of a dislocated

Embolum. (From εμβαλλώ, to cast out; so named because it ejects the semen.) The penis.

EMBREGNA. (From εμεζεχω, to make wet.) A fluid application to any part of the body.

EMBROCATIO ALUMINIS. & Aluminis 3jj. Aceti spiritus vinosi tenuioris, sing. lbss. For chilblains and diseased joints.

EMBROCATIO AMMONIM. B embrocationis ammonim acetata cum sapone 3jj. Aquæ ammoniæ puræ 3jj. For sprains and bruises.

EMBROCATIO AMMONIE ACETATE CAM-PHORATE. 'R, solutionis saponis cum camphora, aquae ammoniae acetatæ sing. 5j.
Aquæ ammoniæ puræ 5ss. For sprains and bruises. It is also frequently applied to disperse chilblains which have not suppurated. It is said to be the same as steers' opodeldoc.

EMRROCATIO AMMONIÆ ACETATE. Be.

EMBROCATIO CANTHARIDIS CUM CAM-PHORA. & cantharidis. Spiritus camphoræ sing,  $\tilde{z}_j$ . M. This may be used in any case in which the object is to stimulate the skin. The absorption of cantharides, however, may bring on a strangury.

EMBROCATION. (From sulesta, to moisten, or soak in.) Embroche. Embrocatio. A fluid application to rub any part of the body with. Many use the term, however, as synonymous with liniment. The following embrocations are noticed

EMBROCHE. See Embrocation.
EMBRYO. (From embegue, to bud forth.)
The fatus in utero is so called before the fifth month of pregnancy, because its growth resembles that of the budding of a

EMBRYOTHLASTES. (From Embevar, the fœtus, and θλαω, to break.) Embryorectes. A chrochet, or instrument for breaking the bones of a dead fœtus to promote its de-

EMBRYOTOMY. (From Euceucy, a fætus, and τεμνα, to cut.) Embryotomia. The separating of any part of the fœtus whilst in utero, to extract it.

EMBRYULCUS. (From εμεξυων, a foctus, and ελκω, to draw.) A blunt hook, or forceps, for drawing the child from the womb.

EMERUS. Scorpion senna. A laxative. EMESIA. (From εμενε, to vomit.) Emesma. Emesis. The act of vomiting. Medicines which cause vomiting.

EMETICS. (Emetica, sc. medicamenta; from euece, to vomit.) Substances capable of exciting vomiting, independent of any effect arising from the mere quantity of matter introduced into the stomach, or of any nauscous taste or flavour.

The susceptibility of vomiting is very different in different individuals, and is often considerably varied by disease.

Emetics are employed in many diseases. When any morbid affection depends upon, or is connected with, over distention of the stomach, or the presence of acrid, indigestible matters, vomiting gives speedy re-lief. Hence its utility in impaired appetite, acidity in the stomach, in intoxication,

and where poisons have been swallowed.

From the pressure of the abdominal viscera in vomiting, emetics have been considered as serviceable in jaundice, arising from biliary calculi obstructing the ducts.

The expectorant power of emetics, and their utility in catarrh and phthisis, have been ascribed to a similar pressure ex-

tended to the thoracic viscera.

In the different varieties of febrile affections, much advantage is derived from exciting vomiting, especially in the very comaque animonie acetata. Solutionis sa- mencement of the disease. In high inflammatory fever it is considered as dangerous, and in the advanced stage of typhus it is prejudicial.

Emetics, given in such doses as only to excite mausea, have been found useful in

restraining hamorrhage.

Different species of dropsy have been cured by vomiting, from its having excited absorption. To the same effect, perhaps, is owing the dispersion of swelled testicle, bubo, and other swellings, which have occasionally resulted from this operation.

The operation of vomiting is dangerous, or hurtful, in the following cases: where there is determination of the blood to the head, especially in plethoric habits; in visceral inflammation; in the advanced stage of pregnancy; in hernia and prolapsus uteri; and wherever there exsists extreme general debility. The frequent use of emetics weakens the tone of the stomach. An emetic should always be administered in the fluid form. Its operation may be promoted by drinking any tepid diulent, or bitter infusion.

The individual emetics may be arranged under those derived from the vegetable, and those from the mineral kingdom. From the vegetable kingdom are numbered ipecacuana, scilla maritima, anthemis nobilis, sinapis alba, asarum Europæum, nicotiana tabacum. From the mineral kingdom, antimony, sulphat of zinc and copper, and the subacetat of copper. To these may be added ammonia and its hydrothese may be added

sulphuret.

EMETOCATHARTICUS. (From εμεω, to vomit, and καθαιζω, to purge.) Purging both by vomit and stool.

EMINENTIÆ QUADRIGEMINÆ. See Tu-

bercula quadrigemina.

EMMENAGOGUES. (Emmenagoga, sc. medicamenta, εμμηναγωγα: from ομμενια, the menses, and αγω, to move.) Those medicines that possess a power of promoting that monthly discharge of blood by the uterus, which, from a law of the animal economy, should take place in certain conditions of the female system. The articles belonging to this class may be referred to four orders:

 Stimulating emmenagoguee, as hydrargyrite and antimonial preparations, which are principally adapted for the young, and those with peculiar insensibility of the

iterus

2. Irritating emmenagogues, as aloes, savine, and Spanish flues: these are to be preferred in torpid and chlorotic habits.

3. Tonic emmenagogues, as ferruginous preparations, cold bath, and exercise, which are advantageously selected for the lax and phlegmatic.

4. Antispasmodic emmenagogues, as assafoetida, castor, and pediluvia: the constitutions to which these are more especially suited are the delicate, the weak, and the irritable.

EMMENIA. (From ev, in, and unv, a month.)

The menstrual flux.

EMOLLIENTS. (Emollientia, sc. medicamenta; from emollio, to soften.) Those substances which possess a power of relaxing the living and animal fibre, without producing that effect from any mechanical action. The different articles belonging to this class of medicines may be comprehended under the following orders:

1. Humectant emollients, as warm water and tepid vapours, which are fitted for the robust and these in the prime of life.

2. Relaxing emollients, as althea, malva, &c. These may be employed in all constitutions, while, at the same time, they do not claim a preference to others from any particular habit of body.

3. Lubricating emollients, as blund oils, fat, and lard. The same observation will hold of this order as was made of the last

mentioned.

4. Atonic emollients, as opium and pedij luvia: these are applicable to any constitution, but are to be preferred in liabits where the effects of this class are required over the system in general.

EMPEIRIA. (From ev, and wuge, to endeavour.) Professional experience.

EMPHEROMENUS. (From εμφεςα, to bear.) Urine, or other substance, which has a sediment.

EMPHRACTICA. (From εμφgατία, to obstruct.) Medicines which applied to the

skin, shut up the pores.

EMPHYSEMA. (From εμφυσαω, to inflate.) Pneumatosis. Air in the cellular membrane. In general it is confined to one place; but in a few lases it spreads universally over the whole body, and occasions a considerable degree of swelling: It sometimes arises spontaneously, which is, however, a very rare occurrence, or comes on immediately after delivery, without any evident cause; but it is most generally induced by some wound or injury done to the thorax, and which affects the lungs; in which case, the air passes from these, through the wound, into the surrounding cellular membrane, and from thence spreads over the whole body.

Emphysema is attended with an evident crackling noise, and elasticity upon pressure; and sometimes with much difficulty of breathing, oppression, and anxiety.

We are to consider it as a disease by no means unattended with danger; but more probably from the causes which give rise to it, than any hazard from the complaint itself.

EMPIRIC. (Empiricus, emarqueo: from ev, in, and weiga, experience.) One who practises the healing art upon experience, and not theory. This is the true meaning of the word empiric: but it is now applied, in a very opposite sense, to those who de-

viate from the line of conduct pursued by scientific and regular practitioners, and you! nosterms, or sound their own praise in the public papers.

EMPLASTICA. (From \$\rho \pi \rho 2000, to obstruct.) Medicines which, spread upon

the skin, stop the pores.

EMPLASTRUM. (From εμπλασσω, to spread upon.) A plaster. Plasters are composed of unctuous substances, united either to powders or metallic oxyds, &c. They ought to be of such a consistence as not to stick to the fingers when cold, but to become solt, so as to be spread out, in a moderate degree of heat, and in that of human body, to continue tenacious enough to adhere to the skin. They owe their consistence either to metallic oxyds, especially those of lead, or to wax, resin, &c. They are usually kept in rolls wrapped in paper, and spread, when wanted for use, apon thin leather; if the plaster be not of itself sufficiently adhesive, it is to be surrounded at its margin by a boundary of resin plaster.

EMPLASTRUM AMMONIACI. Take of purified anmoniacum, five ounces; acetic acid half a pint. Dissolve the ammoniacum in the acid, then evaporate the liquor in an iron vessel, by means of a water-bath, constantly stirring it, until it acquires a proper consistence. This plaster is now first introduced in the London Pharmacopena; it adheres well to the skin, without irritating it, and without producing inconvenience

by its smell.

EMPLASTRUM AMMONIACI CUM HYDRAR-OVRO. "Take of purified ammoniacum, a pound; purified mercury, three ounces; sulphurated oil, a drachm." Rub the mercury with the sulphurated oil until the globules disappear; then add by degrees the ammoniacum, previously melted, and mix the whole together. This mixture of ammoniacum hydrargyrus and sulphur, is said to possess resolvent virtues; and the plaster is recommended with this view to be applied to nodes, tophs, indurated glands, and tumours.

EMPLASTRUM ASSECTION. Emplastrum antithystericum. Plaster of assacutida. Take of plaster of semi-vitrified oxyd of lead, asafectida, each two parts; galbanum, vellow wax, each one part. This plaster is said to possess anodyne and antisposmodic virtues. It is, therefore, occasionally directed to be applied to the umbilical re-

gion in Insterical cases.

EMPLASTRUM CANTHARIDIS. See Emplas-

trum lyttle.

EMPLASTRUM CERÆ Wax plaster. Emplastrum attrahens. Take of yellow wax, prepared suct, of each three pounds; yellow resin, a pound. Mix them together and strain. This is a gently drawing preparation, calculated to promote a moderate discharge from the blistered surface,

with which intention it is mostly used. Where the stronger preparations irritate, this will be found in general to agree.

EMPLASTRUM CUMINI. Cumin plaster. "Take of cumin-seeds, carraway-seeds, bay-berries, of each three ounces; dried pitch, three pounds; yellow wax, three ounces." Having melted the dried pitch and wax together, add the remaining articles, previously powdered, and mix. A warm stomachic plaster, which when applied to the stomach, expels flatulency. To indolent scrophulous tumours, where the object is to promote suppuration, this

is an efficacions plaster.

GALBANI COMPOSITUM. EMPLASTRUM Compound Galbanum plaster, formerly call d emplastrum lithargyri compositum and diachylon magnum cum gummi. Take of galbanum gum resin, eight ounces. Lead plaster, three pounds; common turpentine, ten drachms; resin of the spruce fir, three ounces. Having melted the galbanum gum resin with the turpentine, mix in first the powdered resin of the spruce fir, and then the lead plaster, previously melted by a slow fire, and mix the whole. This plaster is used as a warm digestive and suppurative, calculated to promote maturation of indolent or scirrhous tumours, and to allay the pains of sciatica, arthrodynia,

EMPLASTRUM EVERLABOVEL, Mercucial plaster. Emplastrum lithurgyri cum hydrargyro "Take of purified mercury, three ounces; sulphurated oil, a fluid drachm; lead plaster, a pound." Rub themercury with the sulphurated oil, until the globules disappear; then add by degrees the lead plaster, melted, and mix the whole.

EMPLASTRUM LADANI COMPOSITUM. This may be used with the same intentions as the enmin plaster, to which it is in no way superior, though composed of more expensive materials. Formerly it was considered as a very elegant stomach plaster, but is now disused.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI. Diachylon. "Take of semi-vitreous oxyd of lead, in very fine pounder, five pounds; olive oil, a gallon; water, two pints." Boil them with a slow fire, constantly stirring until the oil and litharge unite, so as to form a plaster. Excoriations of the skin, slight burns, and the like may be covered with this plaster: but it is in more genearl use, as a defensitive, where the skin becomes red from lying a long time on the part.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI COMPOSITUM,

See Emplastrum Galbani compositum

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI CUM RISINA,

See Emplastrum resinæ.

EMPLASTRUM LYTTE, Blistering flyplastrum vesicatorium Take of blistering flies, in very fine powder, a pound; was plaster, a pound and a half; prepared fat, a pound. Having melted the plaster and fat together, and removed them from the fire, a little before they become solid sprinkle in the blistering flies, and mix the whole together. See Blister and Cantharides.

EMPLASTRUM OF II. Plaster of opium. Take of opium, powdered, half an ounce; resin of the spruce fir, powdered, three ounces; lead plaster, a pound." Having melted the plaster, mix in the resin of the spruce fir and opium, and mix the whole. Opium is sand to produce somewhat, though in a smaller degree, its specific effect when

applied externally.

EMPLASTRUM PICIS COMPOSITUM. Compound pitch pla-ter. Emplastrum picis Burgundice. "Take of dried pitch, two pounds; resin of spruce fir, a pound; yellow resin, yellow wax, of each four ounces; expressed oil of nutmegs, an ounce." Having melted together the pitch, resin, and wax, add first the resin of the spruce fir, then the oil of nutmegs, and mix the whole together. From the slight degree of redness this stimulating application produces, it is adapted to gently irritate the skin, and thus relieve rheumatic pains. Applied to the temples it is sometimes of use in pains of the head.

EMPLASTRUM PLUMBI. Lead plaster. Emplastrum lithargyri. Emplastrum commune. Diachylon simplex. This plaster is of great importance, as forming the basis, by additions to which many other plasters are prepared. See Emplastrum lithargyri.

EMPLASTIUM RESINÆ. Resin plaster.

Emplastrum lithargyri cum resina. "Take of yellow resin, hair a pound; lead plaster, three pounds. Having melted the lead plaster over a slow fire, add the resin in powder, and mix." The adhesive, or sticking plaster, is chiefly used for keeping on other dressings, and for retaining the edges of recent wounds together.

EMPLASTRUM SAPONIS. Soap plaster. Take of hard soap sliced, half a pound; lead plaster, three pounds. Having melted the plaster, mix in the soap; then boil it down to a proper consistence. Discutient properties are attributed to this elegant plaster, with which view it is applied to lymphatic and other indolent tumours. It forms an admirable defensitive and soft application, spread on linen, to surround a fractured limb.

EMPLASTRUM TRURIS COMPOSITUM, Compound frankincense plaster. Take of trankincense, half a pound; dragon's blood, three ounces; litharge plaster, two pounds. To the melted lead plaster add the rest powdered. This plaster is said to posses strengthening, as well as adhesive powers. By keeping the skin firm, it may give tone to the relaxed muscles it surrounds, but cannot, in any other way, impart more

strength than the common adhestve plas-

wee, to blow.) An inflation of the sto-

(From sv, in, and

EMPNEUMATOSIS.

mach, or any other v scus.

EMPORIUM. (Prom εμπτερα, to negotiate.)

A mar.. The brain is so called, as being the place where all rational and sensitive transactions are collected.

EMPRION. (From e, and erguer, a saw.) Serrated. An epithet of a purse, in which the artery at different times is unequally

distended.

EMPROSTHOTONOS. (From εμπηςεσθεν, before, or forwards, and ταινο, to down.) A chonic spasm of several muscles, so as to keep the body in a fixed position and bent forward. Cullen considers it as a species of tetanus.

EMPTYSIS. (From emplow, to spit out.) A discharge of blood from the mouth and

fauces.

EMPYEMA. (From e), within, and woo, pus.) A collection of pus in the cavity of the thorax. It is one of the terminations of pleuritis. There is reason for believing that matter is contained in the cavity of the chest, when, after a pleurisy, or inflammation in the thorax, the patient has a difficulty of breathing, particularly on lying on the side opposite the affected one; and when an odematous swelling is externally perceptible.

EMPKEMATA. (From sv, and wuov, pus.)

Suppurating medicines.

EMPYREUMA. (From εμπυζευω, to kindle, from πυζ. fire.) The offensive smell that distilled waters and other substances receive from being exposed too much to fire.

EMPYREUMATIC. (Empyreumatica; from εμπυςεωφ, to kindle.) Smelling as it were burn; thus empyreumatic oils are those distilled with a great heat, and im-

pregnated with a smeil of the fire.

EMULGENT. (Emulgenia; from emulgeo, to melt out; applied to the vens and arteries which go from the aorta and vena cava to the kidneys, because the ancients supposed they strained, and, as it were, milked the serum through the kidneys.) The vessels of the kidneys are so termed. The cmulgent artery is a branch of the aorta. The emulgent velo evacuates its blood into the ascending cava.

EMULSIO ANYGOALE COMMUNIS. Almond emulsion. Take of almonds, one onnee; water, two pounds and a half. Beat the blanched almonds in a stone mortar, gradually pouring on them the water; then strain off the liquor. It possesses cooling and demulcent properties.

cooling and demulcent properties.

EMULSIO ARABICA. This is made in the same manner as the almond emulsion, only adding two ounces, white bearing the almonds mucitage, of gum arabic. This cooling and demulcent emulsion, ordered

m the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, may be drank ad libitum to mitigate ardor urinæ, whether from the venereal virus or any other cause. In difficult and paintul micturition, and strangury, it is of inficite service.

EMULSIO CAMPHONATA. "Take of camphor, one scruple; sweet almonds, blanched, two drachms; double refined sugar, one drachm; water, six onnecs." This is to be made in the same manner as the common cumulsion. It is calculated for the stomachs of those who can only bear small quantities of camphire.

EMULSION. (Emulsio; from emulgio, to malk.) A soft and somewhat oily medi-

cine, resembling milk.

Emulsion, almond. See Emulsio amygdale

communis

Emulsion, Arabic. See Emulsio arabica. Emulsion, camphorated. See Emulsio camphorata.

Emulsion of asafatida. See Mistura

asufatide.

Emulsion of gum-ammoniac. See Mistura ammoniaci.

EMUNCTORY. (From enungo, to drain off.) The excretory duets of the body are so termed; thus the exhaling arteries of the skin constitute the great enunctory of the body.

ENEMA. (From 19, and 11/12, blood.)
Enemos So Hipp crates and Galen call
such topical medicines as are appropriated

to bleeding wounds.

Engonema. (From ey, and diagea, to lift up) The pendulous substance which floats in the middle of the urine.

ENAMEL. See Teeth.

ENANTHESIS. (From ey, and arlaw, to meet.) The near approach of ascending

and descend ng vessels.

ENARTHRÖSIS. (From &, in, and aggor, a joint.) The ball and socket-joint. A species of diarthrosis, or moveable connexion of bones, in which the round head of one is received into the deeper eavity of another, so as to admit of inotion in every direction; as the head of the os femoris with the acetabulum of the os innominatum. See Articulation.

ENCANTHIS. (From en, and \*\*xxf0ss, the angle of the eye.) A disease of the carencula lachrymalis, of which there are two species. Encanthis benigna, and Enternal Ent

canthis maligna seu inveterata.

The eneanthis, at its commencement, is nothing more than a small, soft, red, and sometimes rather livid excrescence, which grows from the carimcula lachy malis, and, at the same time, from the neighbouring seminular fold of the conjunctiva. This excrescence, on its first appearance, is commonly granulated, like a mulberry, or sof a ragged and fringed structure. Afterwards, when it has acquired a certain size, one part of it represents a granulated

tumour, while the rest appears like a smooth, whitish, or ash-coloured substance, streaked with varicose vessels, sometimes advancing as far over the conjunctiva, covering the side of the eye next to the nose, as where the cornea and sclerotica unite.

The encanthis keeps up a chronic ophthalmy, impedes the action of the eyelids, and prevents, in particular, the complete closure of the eye. Besides, partly by compressing and partly by displacing the orifices of the puncta lachrymalis, it obstructs the free passage of the tears into the nose. The invetorate encanthis is ordinarily of a very considerable magnitude; its roots extend beyond the caruncula lachrymalis and semilinar fold to the membranous lining of one or both eyelids. The patient experiences very serious inconvenience from its origin and interposition between the commissure of the eye-lids, which it necessarily keeps asunder on the side towards the nose. Sometimes the disease assumes a cancerous malignancy. This character is evinced by the dull red, and, as it were leaden colour of the excrescence; by its exceeding hardness, and the lancinating pains which occur in it, and extend to the foreliead, the whole eye-ball and the temple, especially when the tumour has been slightly touched. It is also shewn, by the propensity of the excrescence to bleed, by the partial ulcerations on its surface, which emit a funguous substance, and a thin and exceedingly acrid discharge.

ENCATALEPSIS. (From ev, and καλαλειτω,

to leave.) A catalepsy.

ENCATHISMA. (From εν, and καθημι, to sit in.) A semicupium. A bath for half the body.

ENCAUMA. (From ey, in, and RAIA, to burn) Encausis. A pustule produced from a burn.

Encausis. (From &, and zzie, to burn.)

A burn, or scald

ENCEPHALOCELE. (From space action, the brain, and and, a tumour.) A rupture of the brain.

ENCEPHALON. (From ε, in, and κεφαλλ, the head.) Encephalum. By some writers the cerebrum only is so called; and others express by this term the contents of the cranium.

Excerts. (From ev, and ungos, wax.) A roll of wax for making plasters.

Encenosis. (From ev, and kingow, to wax.) The covering of a plaster with wax.

ENCHARAXIS. (From er, and ragarow,

to scarify.) A scarification.

ENCHEIRESIS. (From ev., and yee, the hand.) Encheiria Galen uses this word as part of the title to one of his works, which treats of dissection. The word imports the manual treatment of any subject

ENCHEIRIA. See Encheiresis.

ENGRILOYI. See Enchologia.

Exchonbars. (From er, and yorkers, a cartilage.) A cartilage.

ENCHRISTA. (From excese, to anoint.)

Unguents. Ointments.

ENGHYLOMA. (From er, and zuxos, juice.) An inspissated juice. An elixir, according to Lemery.

ENCHYMAS (From ev, and xew, to infuse.) An infusion. A sanguineous plethora.

ENCHYMATA. (From 2)χυω, to infuse.)

Injections for the eyes and ears.

ENCHYMOMA. (From ev, and xue, to pour in.) In the writings of the ancient physicians, it is a word by which they express that sudden effusion of blood into the cutaneous vessels, which arises from joy, anger, or shame; and in the last instance is what we usually call blushing.

Encurnosis. (εγχυμωτις.) Blushing; also an extravasation of blood, which makes the part appear livid. Thus, but improperly, it is synonymous with Ecchymosis.

ENCHYSIS. See Enchyma.

ENCLYSMA. (From ev, and κλυζω, to cleanse

out.) A clyster.

Excellen. (From e, within, and Roller, the belly.) The abdominal viscera.

Encolpismus. (From εγκολπέω, to insinu-

ate.) An uterine injection.

ENGRANIUM. (From &, within, and agartor, the skull.) The corobrum; the whole contents of the skull.

ENCRASICHOLUS. (From er, in, and zegze, the head; and goan, bile; because it is said to have the gall in its head.) The

Exents, Exect. A cake of meal, oil, and

ENCYMON. (From ev, and xua, to conceive.) Pregnancy.

Exersis. (From e, and xue, to bring forth.) Parturition.

ENCYSTED, A term applied to those tumours which consist of a fluid or other matter, enclosed in sac or cyst.

Everstis. (From er, in, and kusis, a bag.)

A wen. A hard tumour.

(Endemicus; from er, in, ENDEMIC. and Squos, people.) A disease is so termed that is peculiar to a certain class of persons, or country; thus struma is endemial to the inhabitants of Derbyshire and the Alps; scurvy to seafaring people; and the plica polonica is met with in Poland.

Evensis. (From er, and dew, to tie up.)

A ligature. A bandage. Endive. See Endivia.

ENDIVIA. (Quasi eundo viá, quia passim nacitur; named from the quickness of its growth.) Endiva. Endive. This plant, Cichorium endivia; floribus solitariis, pedunrulatis; foliis integris, crenatis, of Linnæus, is an extremely wholesome sallad, possessing bitter and anodyne qualities.

Exposis. (From er and Sideme, to give.)

A remission, particularly of febrile disor-

ENEULAGNENUS. (From standarlo, to interchange.) An epithet applied to the union of the joints of the vertebra.

ENEMA. (From staps, to nject.) Clyster. Injection. Lavement. A clyster. A well-known form of conveying both nourishment and medicine to the system, under certain morbid circumstances. The former takes place where obstruction of the passage to the stomach is so great as to render access to that organ impossible, such as occurs in lock jaw, diseased asopliagus, &c. By this means the body can be supported for a few weeks, till an attempt is made at effecting a cure. It is composed, in such cases, of animal broths, gruels made of farinaceous seeds, mucilages, &c. As a form of medicine, clysters are no less useful; and, according to the intention with which they are prescribed, they are either of an emollient, anodyne, or purgative nature. The following forms are in general use.

ENEMA ANODYNUM. Take of starch jelly, half a pint; tincture of opium, forty to sixty drops. Mix The whole to be injected by means of a pewter clyster-syringe, in cases of dysentery or violent purg-

ing, and pain in the bowels.

ENEMA ANTISPASMODICUM. Take tinct. of asafætida, half an ounce; tincture of opium forty drops, Mix. For spasmodic

affections of the bowels.

ENEMA LAXATIVUM. Take of Epsom salt, two ounces; dissolve in three quarters of a pint of warm gruel, or broth, with an ounce of fresh butter, or sweet oil.

ENEMA NICOTIANE. Take of the leaves of tobacco, two drachms; boiling water, one pound. The tobacco to be infused in the water for the space of ten minutes. Employed in cases of strangulated hernia.

ENEMA NUTRIENS. Take of strong beef tea, twelve ounces; thicken with hartshorn

shavings, or arrow-root.

ENEMA TEREBINTHINE. Take of common turpentine, half an ounce; the yolk of one egg, and half a pound of gruel. The turpentine, being first incorporated with the egg, is to be added to the gruel. This clyster is generally used, and with great good effect, in violent fits of the stone.

ENEREISIS. (From evereuder, to adhere to.)

A compression. A tight ligature

ENERGY. (Energia; from everywee, to ct.) Action. The degree of force exercised by any power: thus, nervous energy, muscular energy, &c.
E NEURESIS. See Enuresis.

ENGALACTUM. (From 27, and 22/24, milk; so called because it is eaten by nurses to increase their milk.) The herb saltwort.

ENGASTRIMYTHUS. (From ev, in, pashe, the belly, and  $\mu\nu\theta\omega\mu\mu\mu$ , to discourse.) A

ventri equist; one who appears to speak from his belly.

Engisona. (From 221/20, o approach.) Camarosis. An instrument for making the parts of the broken clavicle meet. Also a fracture of the cranium.

Linglish mercury. See Mercurialis.

Englorro-Gaston. (From &, yherh, the tongue, and yasag, the belly. A ventriloquist.

Engonemosis. (From ε, and γομφος, a not.) That species of articulation which resembles a mail, driven into wood, as a tooth in its socket.

Engonios. (From et, and paceta, an angle) The flexure, or angle made by the Lending of a joint.

ENXUM PURACELSI. The caput mortuum of the spirit of nitre, joined with vitriolic acid.

ENNEAPHARMACUM. (From eyeza, nine, and фадмаков, a medicine. A medicine composed of nine simple ingredients.

ENNEAPHYLLUM. (From εννεχ, nine, and φυλλεν. leaf; because its flower consists of nine leaves.) A name for helleboraster, or hear's foot.

ENUTTIMUS. (From e, priv. and guθμος, number.) An irregular pulse

Exs nature. A name antiently given to the oxyde of iron, which arises in sublimation, with twice its quantity of sal-ammoniac. Medical practice does not at present place this practical preparation in a higher rank of estimation than other oxydes of iron.

ENS PRINUM SOLARR. Antimony.

ENS VENERIS. The ens veneris is in many dispensitories called by this name.

ENSIFORM. (Ensiformis, see cartilago; fram ensis, a sword, and forma, resemblance.) Sword-like A term applied to a cartilage. See Cartilago ensiformis.

Ensurer (From er, and salo, to instit) A liquid medicine, which is applied stillation, or drop by drop.

ENTATICA. (From efferte, to strain.) Provocatives: medicines which excite venereal inclination.

ENTERA. (From erlos, within. The bowels. Hippocrates calls by this name the bags in which were formerly enclosed medicines for fomentations.

ENTERADENES. (From evileger, an intestine, and adma, gland.)
ENTERENCHYTA. (From evileger, the bow-

ENTERENCHITA. (From effega, the bowels, and αγχυω, to infuse into.) An instrument for administering clysters. A clyster-pipe.

INTERITIS. (Establis: from establis, an intestine.) Inflammation of the intestines. It is a genus of disease in the class pyrexic, and order phlegmasic of Cullen, and is known by the presence of pyrexia, fixed pain in the abdomen, costiveness, and vomiting. The causes of enteritis are much

the same as those of gastritis, being occasioned by acrid substances, indurated faces, long continued and obstinate costiveness, spasmodic cholic, and a strangulation of any part of the intestinal canal; but another very general cause is the application of cold to the lower extremities, or to the belly itself. It is a disease which is most apt to occur at an advanced period of life, and is very hable to a relapse.

It comes on with an acute pain, extending in general over the whole of the abdomen; but more especially round the navel, accompanied with eructations, sickness at the stomach, a vomiting of bilious matter, obstinate costiveness, thirst, heat, great anxiety, and a quick and hard small pulse. After a short time, the pain becomes more severe, the bowels seem drawn together by a kind of spasin, the whole region of the abdomen is nightly painful to the touch, and seems drawn together in lumpy contractions; invincible costiveness prevails, and the urine is voided with great difficulty and pain.

The inflammation continuing to proceed with violence, terminates at last in gangrene; or abating gradually, it goes off by resolution.

Enteritis is always attended with considerable danger, as it often terminates in gangrene in the space of a few hours from its commencement; which event is marked by the sudden remission of pain, sinking of the pulse, shrinking of the features, and distention of the belty; and it frequently proves fatal likewise, during the inflammatory stage. If the pains abate gradually, if natural stools be passed, if an universal sweat, attended with a firm equal pulse, comes on, or if a copious discharge of loaded urine, with the same kind of pulse, takes place, a resolution and favourable termination may be expected.

Dissections of this disease shew that the inflammation pervades the intestinal tube to a very considerable extent; that adhesions of the diseased portion to contiguous parts are formed; and that, in some cases, the intestines are in a gangrenous state, or that ulcerations have formed. They likewise shew that, besides obstinate obstructions, intususception, constrictions, and twistings, are often to be met with; and that, in most cases, the peritoneum is more or less affected, and is perceived, at times, to be covered with a layer of coagulable lymph.

ENTEROCELE. (From offer, an intestine, and wath, a tumour.) Hernia intestinalis. Every hernia may be so called that is produced by the protusion of an intestine, whether it is in the groin, navel, or elsewhere.

ENTERO-EPIPLOCELE. (From enegov, an intestine, 27472000, the epiploon, and милл.

RANAN, a tumour.) A rupture formed by the protusion of part of an intestine, with a por-

tion of the epiploon.

ENTERO-HYDROCELE. (From spregor, an intestine, wdwg, water, and mndm, a tumour.) This must mean a common scrotal hernia, with a good deal of water in the hernial sac; or else a hernia congenta, (in which the bowels descend into the tunica vaginalis testis.) attended with a collection of fluid in the cavity of this membrane.

ENTEROMPHALUS. (From εντέξον, an intestine, and ομφαλ@, the navel.) An umbilical hernia, produced by the protusion

of a portion of intestine.

ENTEROPHYTUM. (From evlegov, an intestine, and polov, a plant.) The sea-chitterling; a plant which grows in the form of

a gut.

ENTERORAPHIA. (From εντεξον, an intestine, and gaφη, a suture.) A suture of the intestines, or the sewing together the divided edges of an intestine.

ENTEROSCHEOCELE. (From είλεςον, an intestine, and οσχεον, the scrotum, and κηλη, a rupture.) Hernia scrotalis, or rupture of the intestines into the scrotum.

ENTHEMATA. (From evilonmi, to put in.)

Anti-inflammatory styptics.

ENTHLASIS. A contusion, with the impression of the instrument by which it happened.

ENTROPIUM. (From ε, and τεετω, to turn.) A disease of the eyelids, occasioned by the eyelashes and eyelid being inverted towards the bulb of the eye.

Entryposis. (From ενθυποω, to make an impression) The acetabulum, or concave

bone of the shoulder.

ENULA CAMPANA. (A corruption of henula, or Helenium, from Helene, the island where it grew.) Helenium. Common inula, or elecampane. Inula helenium of Linnæns :- foliis amplexicaulibus ovatis rugosis subtus tomentosis, calycum squamis ovatis. This plant, though a native of Britain, is seldom met with in its wild state, but mostly cultivated. The root, which is the part employed medicinally, in its recent state. has a weaker and less grateful smell than when thoroughly dried; and kept for a length of time, by which it is greatly improved, its odour then approaching to that of Florentine orris. It was formerly in high estimation in dyspepsia, pulmonary affections, and uterine obstructions, but is now fallen into disuse.

ENULON. (From ey, and 8000, the gums.) The internal flesh of the gums, or that part of them which is within the mouth.

ENURESIS. (From eregeo, to make water.) An incontinency or involuntary flow of urine. This disease usually proceeds either from relaxation or a paralytic affection of the sphincter of the bladder,

induced by various debilitating causes, as too free a use of spirituous liquors, manustrupation, and excess in venery; or it arises from compression on the bladder, from a diseased state of the organ, or from some irritating substance contained in its cavity. It is arranged in the class locales, and order apocenoses of Cullen, and contains two species:—1. Enuresis atonica, the sphincter of the bladder having lost its tone from some previous disease: 2. Enuresis ab irratione, vel compressione vesica, from an irritation or compression of the bladder.

EPACMASTICUS. (From επι, and ακμαζω, to incsease.) It is applied to fever which is still increasing in malignity.

EPACME. (From επαμμαζ, to increase.) The increase, or exacerbation of a disease

EPAGOGIUM. (From επαγω, to draw over.)
The præpuce, that part of the penis which is drawn over the glans, according to Dioscorides.

EPANADIDOUTES. (From επαναδίδωμι, to increase.) A term applied to fevers which continue to increase in their degree of heat.

EPANADIPLOSIS. (From επαναδιτλοω, 'o reduplicate.) The reduplication of a fit of a semitertian fever; that is, the return of the cold fit before the hot fit is ended.

EPANASTASIS. (From em, and ausmui, to excite.) A tubercle, or small pustule upon

the skin.

EPANCYLOTUS. (From επι, and αρκυλος, crooked. A sort of crooked bandage in Oribasius.

EPARMA. (From επαιμα, to elevate.) Eparsis. Any kind of tumour, but frequently applied to the parotis.

EPARSIS. See Eparma.

EPASMASTICA FEBRIS. A fever is so called by Bellini, and others, while it is in its increase.

EPENCRANIS. (From επι, εν, in, and κζανιον, the skull.) The name of the cerebellum.

EPHEBEUM. (From en, and Mn, the groin.) The hair upon the pubes.

EPHEDRA. (From εφεζομα, to sit upon.) Ephedrana. The buttocks. Also a species of horse-tail.

EPHEDRANA. See Ephedra.

EPHELCIS. (From emi, upon, and excess, an ulcer.) The crust of an ulcer; hardened purulent expectoration.

EPHELIS. (From ετι, and πλιος, the sun.) A broad, solitary, or aggregated spot, attacking most commonly the face, back of the hand, and breast, from exposure to the sun.

EPHEMERA. (From ent, upon, and nuega. a day.) A fever which hegins, is perfectly formed, and runs through its course, in the space of twelve hours.

EPHEMERIDES. (From equiples, an almanack; so called because, like the moon's age, they may be foretold by the almanack.) Diseases which return at particular times of the moon.

Ephialtes. (From εφαλλομαι, to leap upon; so called because it was thought a damon leaped upon the breast.) Incubus,

or night-mare.

EPHIALTIA. (From ephialtes, the nightmare; so called because it was said to cure the night mare.) The herb pxony.

El'HIDROSIS. (From spulgew, to perspire.) Sudatio. Mador. A violent and morbid perspiration. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order apocenoses of

EPHIPPIUM. (A saddle, which it is

thought to resemble.) See Sella turcica. Ernonos. (From en, and ofos, a way.) In Hippocrates it hath three significations: 1. The ducts, or passages, by which the excrements of the body are evacuated. The periodical attack of a fever, from the common use of it to express the attack of thieves. 3. The access of similar or dissimilar things, which may be useful or hurtful to the body.

EPIALTES. See Ephialtes.

EPIALUS. (From 11710), gently, and αλεαζω, to heat.) Epialos. An ardent fever, in which both heat and cold are felt in the same part at the same time. Galen defines it to be a fever in which the patient labours under a preternatural heat and a coldness at the same time. The ancient Latins call it Quercera.

EPIBOLE. (From επβαλλω, to press upon.)

The night mare, or spinaltes.

EPICANTHIS. (From em, and navbos, the angle of the eye.) The angle of the eye. ΕΓΙCAUPIUM. (From επι, upon, and κας-

πος, the wrist.) A topical medicine applied to the wrist.

EPICAUMA. (From em, and maur, to Encauma. Epicausis. A burn, or burn.)

Ericausis. See Epicauma.

EPICERAS. (From er, and Regat, a horn; so called because its pods are shaped like

a horn.) The herb fænngreek.

EVICERASTICA. (From ent, and REGAVYUMI, to mix.) Medicines which, by mixing with acrimonious juices, temper them and render them less troublesome. Emolli-

Epicherresis. (From eri, and xug, the hand.) A manual operation.

EPICHOLUS. (From eti, and youn, the bile ) Bilious.

EPICHORDIS. (From et, upon, and xogdh, a gut.) The mesentery

Erichorios. (From eri, upon, and xoge, a region.) The same as ep dermis.

EFICULE. (From 171, upon, and ROLLS, the eyelid.) The upper eyelid, Ericolic. (Epicolica; from 171, upon,

and and or the colon.) Upon the colon. That

part of the abdomen which lies over the head of the cocum and sygmoid flexure of the colon, called the epicolic region.

(From emi, and numpos, EPICOPHOSIS.

deaf.) A total deafness.

EHICRANIUM. (From ett, and ngavior, the cranium.) The common integuments, aponeurosis, and muscular expansion which lie upon the cranium.

Epicranius. See Occipito-frontalis. Epicrasis. (From επι, and κεζαννυμι, to temper.) A critical evacuation of bad humours, an attemperation of bad ones. When a cure is performed in the alterative way, it is called per Epicrasin.

EPICRISIS. (From em ngive, to judge from.) A judgment of the termination of

a disease from present symptoms.

EPICTENIUM. (From em, about, and alue, e pubes.) The parts above and about the pubes.) the pubes.

EPICYEMA. (From επι, upon, and κυω, to conceive.) Episyesis. Superfætation. Superimpregnation.

Epicyesis See Epicyema.

EPIDEMIC. (Epidemicus; from emi, upon, and SnuG, the people.) A contagious disease is so termed, that attacks many people at the same season, and in the same place; thus putrid fever, plague, dysentery, &c. are often epidemic.

EPIDENDRUM. (From em, upon, Ser-Seov. a tree; because all this genus of plants grow parasitically on the trunk or branches of other trees.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Gynandria. Order, Monandria.

EPIDENDRUM VANILLA. The systematic name of the vanelloe plant. See Vanilla.

Epineris. (From ent, and Segae, the skin.)

The clitoris.

EPIDERMIS. (From ett, upon, and deg. μα, the true skin.) The scarf-skin.

Epinesis. (From eti, upon, and dew, to bind.) A bandage to stop a discharge of

EPIDESMUS. (From ext, upon, and See, to bind.) A bandage by which splints,

bolsters, &c. are secured.

EPIDIDYMIS. (From er, upon, and Sidupos, a testicle.) A hard, vascular, oblong substance, that lies upon the testicle, formed of a convolution of the vas deferens. It has a thick end, which is convex, and situated posteriorly; and a thin end, which is rather flat, and situated inferiorly. The epididymis adheres to the testicle by its two extremities only, for its middle part is free, forming a bag, to which the tunica vaginalis of the testicle is attached.

EPIDO-IS. (From Eridifaui, to grow upon.) A preternatural enlargement of any part.

EPIDROME. (From επιβερμα, to run upon.)
An afflux of humours.

EPIGASTRIC. (Epigastricus, entraereins: from eri, upon, or above, and vasue.

the stomach.) That part of the abdomen that lies over the stomach, is called the epigastric region; it reaches from the pit of the stomach to an imaginary line above the navel, supposed to be drawn from one extremity of the last of the false ribs to the other. Its sides are called hypochondria, and are covered by the false ribs, between which ties the epigastrium.

EPIGASTRIUM. (From em, upon, or above, and yasne, the belly.) The region or part immediately over the stomach.

EPIGENNEMA (From entrywound, to generate upon.) Epigennesis. The fur on the tongue. An accessory symptom.

EPIGENNESIS. See Epigennema

EPIGINOMENA. (From etc), no may, to succeed or supervene.) Galen says, they are those symptoms which naturally succeed, or may be expected in the progress of a disease; but Fæsius says, they are accessions of some other affection to diseases, which never happen but in stubborn and malignant diseases.

Englossum. (From επι, upon, and γλωσσα, the tongue; so called because a lesser leaf grows above the larger in the shape of a tongue.) The Alexandrian

laurel

(From er, upon, and EPIGLOTTIS. YAWTTE, the tongue.) The cartilage at the root of the tongue that falls upon the glottis or superior opening of the larynx. Its figure is nearly oval; it is concave posteriorly, and convex anteriorly. Its apex or superior extremity is loose, and is always elevated upwards by its own elasticity. While the back of the tongue is drawn backwards in swallowing, the epiglottis is put over the aperture of the larynx, hence it shuts up the passage from the mouth into the larynx. The base of the epiglottis is fixed to the thyroid cartilage, the os hyoides, and the base of the tongue, by a strong ligament.

EFIGLOTTUM. (From way harder, the epiglottis, which it resembles in shape.) An instrument mentioned by Paracelsus for

elevating the eyelids.

EFIGLOUTIS. (From επι, upon, and γλουθος, the buttocks.) The uperior parts of the buttocks.

Epigonatis. (From eti, upon, and you, the knee.) The patella o knee pan.

EPIGONIDES. (From eri, and your, the knee.) The muscles inserted into the knees.

EPIGONUM. (From extrywould, to proceed

upon.) A superfectation.

EPILEMPSIS. See Epilepsia.

EPILENTIA. Corrupte from epilepsia.

EPILEPSY (From ετλαμβανα, to seize upon; so called, from the suddenness of its at ack) I is also called falling sickness, from the patient suddenly falling to the ground on an attack of this disease. By the ancients it was termed, from its affect-

ing the mind, the most noble part of the rational creature, the sacred disease. It consists of convulsions with steep, and usually froth issuing from the mouth. It is a genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi of Cullen, and contains nine species: 1. Epilepsia traumatica, arising from an injury of the head: 2. Epilepsia à dolore, from pain: 3. Epilepsia verminosa, from the irritation of worms: 4. Epilepsia à veneno, from poisons: 5. Epilepsia exanthematica, from the repulsion of cutaneous eruptions: 6. Epilepsia à cruditate ventriculi, from crudities of the stomach: 7. Epilepsia ab inanitione, from debility: 8. Epilepsia uterina, from hysterical affections: 9. Epilehsia ex onanismo, from onanism.

Epilepsy attacks by fits, and after a certain duration goes off, leaving the person most commonly in his usual state; but sometimes a considerable degree of supportant and weakness remain behind, particularly where the disease has frequent recurrences. It is oftener met with among children that grown persons, and boys seem more subject to its attacks than girls. Its returns are periodical, and its paroxysms commence more frequently in the night than in the day, being somewhat connected with sleep. It is a disease sometimes counterfeited, in order to extort charity or excite compas

sion.

Epilepsy is properly distinguished into sympathic and idiopathic, being considered as sympathic, when produced by an affection in some other part of the body, such as acidities in the stomach, worms, teething, &c. an idiopathic when it is a primary disease, neither dependent on, nor proceed-

ing from any other.

The causes which give rise to epilepsy, are blows, wounds, fractures, and other injuries done to the head by external violence, together with lodgments of water in the brain, tumours, concretions and polypi. Violent affections of the nervous system, sudden frights, fits of passion, great emotions of the mind, acute pains in any part, worms in the stomach or intestines, teething, the suppression of long accustomed evacuations, too great emptiness or repletion, and poisons received into the body, are causes which likewise produce epilepsy. Sometimes it is hereditary, and at others it depends on a predisposition arising from a mobility of the sensorium, which is occasioned either by plethora, or a state of debility.

An attack of epilepsy is now and then preceded by a heavy pain in the head, dimness of sight, noise in the ears, paintations, flatulency in the stomach and intestines, wearings, and a small degree of supor, and in some cases, there prevails sense of something like a cold vapour or aura arising up to the head; but it more generally happens that the patient falls

down suddenly without much previous notice; his eyes are distorted or inverted, so as that only the whites of them can be seen; his fingers are closely clenched, and the trunk of his body, particularly on one side, is much agitated; he foams at the mouth, and thrusts out his tongue, which often suffers great injury, from the muscles of the lower jaw being affected; he loses all sense of feeling, and not unfrequently voids both urine and faces involuntarily.

The spasms abating he recovers gradually; but on coming to himself, feels very languid and exhausted, and retains not the smallest recollection of what has passed

during the fit.

When the disease arises from an hereditary disposition, or comes on after the age of puberty, or where the fits recur frequently, and are of long duration, it will be very difficult to effect a cure; but when its attacks are at an early age, and is occasioned by worms, or any accidental cause, it may in general be removed with ease. some cases, it has been entirely carried off by the occurrence of a fever, or by the appearance of a cutaneous eruption. It has been known to terminate in apoplexy, and in some instances to produce a loss of the powers of the mind, and to bring on idiotism.

The appearances usually to be observed on dissection are, serous and sanguineous effusion, a turgid tense state of the vessels of the brain without any effusion, a dilatation of some particular part of the brain, excrescences, polypi, and hydatides adhering to it, and obstructing its functions, and likewise ulcerations.

EPILOBIUM. (From erri holes 100, a violet or beautiful flower, growing on a pod.) The name of a genus of plants in the Lin-Class Octandria. næan system. Order,

Monogynia.

EPILOBIUM ANGUSTIFOLIUM. Rose-baywillow herb. The young tender shoots cut in the spring, and dressed as asparagus, are little inferior.

EPIMEDIUM. The plant barren-wort. EPIMORIUS. (From ett, and mesow, to divide.) A term applied to an unequal pulse

(From ent, and punn, the EPIMYLIS. knee.) The patella or knee bone.

EPINENEUCUS. (From extreum, to nod or

incline.) An unequal pulse. EPINOTIUM. (From ETI, upon, and valles,

the back.) The shoulder blade.

EPINYETIS. (From er, and rug, night.) A pustule, which rises in the night, forming an angry tumour on the skin of the arms, hands, and thighs, of the size of a lupine, of a dusky red, and sometimes of a livid and pale colour, with great inflammation and pain. In a few days breaks, and sloughs away.

EPIPACTIS. (From ereraxlow, to coagulate.) A plant mentioned by Dioscorides; and so named because its juice was said to coagulate milk.

EPIPAROXYSMUS. (From em, upon, and παροξυσμος, a paroxysm.) An unusual fre-

quency of febrile exacerbation.

EPIPASTUM. (From ere, upon, and nowσω, to sprinkle.) Any powdered drug sprinkled on the body.

EPIPECHYS. (From en, above, and πεχυς, the cubit.) That part of the arm

above the cubit.

Epiphlogisma. (From επι, upon, and φλορίζω, to inflame.) Violent inflammation, or burning heat in any part, attended with pain, tumour, and redness: also a name given by Hippocrates to the shingles.

EPIPHORA, (From eribegue, to carry forcibly.) The watery eye. An involuntary flow of tears. A superabundant flowing of a serous or aqueous humour from the eyes. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order apocenoses, of Cullen. humour which flows very copiously from the eye in epiphora appears to be furnished, not only by the lachrymal gland, but from the whole surface of the conjunctive membrane, Meibomius's glands, and the caruncula lachrymalis; which increased and morbid secretion may be induced from any stimulus seated between the globe of the eye and lids, as sand, acrid fumes, and the like; or it may arise from the stimulus of active inflammation; or from the acrimony of scrophula, measles, small-pox; or from general relaxation. The disease may also arise from a more copious secretion of tears than the puncta lachrymalia can absorb, or, as it is most common , from an ob . struction in the lachrymal canal, in consequence of which the tears are prevented from passing freely from the eye into the nose.

(From em, upon, and EPIPHYSIS. Any portion of bone growφυω, to grow.) ing upon another, but separated from it by

a cartilage.

(From em, upon, EPIPLASMA. and πλασσω, to spread.) A poultice; also a name for an application of wheat meal, boiled in hydelæum, to wounds.

EPIPLOCELE. (From erithou, the omentum, and wake, a tumour.) An omental hernia. A rupture produced by the protusion of a portion of the omentum. See Hernia.

EPIPLOCOMISTES. (From enunhous, the omentum, and κομιζω, to carry.) has the omentum morbidly large.

EPIPLOIC APPENDAGES. See Appendi

culæ epiploicæ.

EPIPLOITIS. (From entracov. omentum ) An inflammation of the process of the peritoneum, that forms the epiploon or omentum. See Peritonitis.

EPIPLOOMPHALON. (From emithous, the

omentum, and ompanos, the navel.) omental hernia protruding at the navel.

EPIPLOON. (From επιπλοω, to sail over, because it is mostly found floating, as it were, upon the intestines.) See Omen-

EPIPLOSCHEOCELE. (From emitthoov, the omentum, or xeov, the scrotum, and knew, a tumour or heroia.) A rupture of the omentum into the scrotum, or a scrotal hernia containing omentum.

EPIPOLASIS. (From επιπολαζω, to swim on the top.) A fluctuation of humours.

A species of chymical sublimation.

EPIPOMA. (From επι, upon, and πωμα, a lid.) An instrument to cover the shoulder in a luxation.

Epiponoma, (From επιπωρεω, to harden.) An indurated tumour in the joints; a callous concretion, a tophus, a tophaceous callus molesting the joints

Eripryxis. (From επιπθυσσω, to close up.) A spasmodic closing of the lips.

EPIPYREXIS. (From ent, and nuperla, to be feverish.) A rapid exacerbation in a fever.

EPIRIGESIS. (From ent, and pigew, to become cold.) An unusual degree of cold, or repitition of rigors.

(From er, upon, and pew, EPIRRHOE. to flow.) An influx or afflux of humours

to any part. EPISARCIDIUM. (From em, upon, and

σαρέ, the flesh.) An anasarca, or dropsy spread between the skin and flesh.

EPISCHESES. (From εστισχεω, to restrain.) A suppression of excretions. It is an order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology.

(From επι, upon, and ισχιον, The os pubis. Epischium.

the hip-bone.)

Episcopalis. (From episcopus, a bishop, or mitred dignitary.) Resembling a bishop's mitre. It is applied to a valve at the orifice between the left auricle and ventricle of the heart, called the mitral valve.

Erispasmus. (From επισπαω, to draw together.) A quick inspiration of the

breath.

EPISPASTICS. (Epispastica, sc. medicamenta; from επισπαω, to draw together.) Those substances which are capable, when applied to the surface of the body, of producing a serous or puriform discharge, by exciting a previous state of inflammation. The term, though comprehending likewise issues and setons, is more commonly restricted to blisters-those applications which, exciting inflammation on the skin, occasion a thin serous fluid to be poured from the exhalants, raise the cuticle, and form the appearance of a vesicle. effect arises from their strong stimulating power, and to this stimulant operation and the pain they excite, ar to be ascribed the advantages derived from them in the

treatment of disease. The evacuation they occasion is too inconsiderable to have any

It is a principle sufficiently established with regard to the living system, that where a morbid action exists, it may often be removed by inducing an action of a differ-ent kind in the same or neighbouring part. On this principle is explained the utility of blisters in local inflammation and spasmodic action, and it regulates their application in pneumonia, gastritis, hepatitis, phrenitis, angina, rheumatism, colic, and spasmodic affections of the stomach; diseases in which they are employed with the most marked advantage.

A similar principle exists with respect to pain; exciting one pain often relieves another. Hence blisters often give relief in tooth-ach, and some other painful affec-

tions.

Lastly, blisters, by their operation, communicate a stimulus to the whole system, and raise the vigour of the circulation. Hence, in part, their utility in fevers of the typhoid kind, though in such cases they are used with still more advantage to ohviate or remove local inflammation.

EPISPHERIA. (From en, and opaspa, a sphere; so called from the splizucal shape of the brain.) The windings of the exterior surface of the brain; or the winding vessels upon it.

Epistagmus. (From en, and sazw, to

trickle down.) A catarrh.

EPISTAPHILINUS. (From ent, and sa. φυλινό, a parsnip, from their resemblance to a carrot.) See Uvula.

EPISTAXIS. (From erisaço, to distil from.) Bleeding at the nose, with pain, or fulness of the head. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class pyrexia,

and order hamorrhagia.

Persons of a sanguine and plethoric habit and not yet advanced to manhood, are very liable to be attacked with this complaint: females being much less subject to it than males, particularly after menstrua-

Epistaxis comes on at times without any previous warning; but at others, it is preceded by a pain and heaviness in the head, flushing in the face, heat and itching in the nostrils, a throbbing of the temporal arteries and a quickness of the pulse. In some instances a coldness of the feet, and shivering over the whole body, together with a costive belly, are observed to precede an attack of this hæmorrhage.

This complaint is to be considered as of little consequence; when occurring in young persons, being never attended with any danger; but when it arises in those who are advanced in life, flows profusely and returns frequently, it indicates too great fulness of the vessels of the head, and not

unfrequently precedes apoplexy, palsy, &c. and therefore, in such cases, is to be regarded as a dangerous disease. When this hæmorrhage arises in any putrid disorder, it is to be considered as a fatal symytom.

EPISTHOTONOS. (From exister, for wards, and ruva, to extend.) A spasmodic affection of mu-cles drawing the body for-

wards. See Tetanus.

EPISTOMION. Epistomion. (From επι, upon, and τωμα, a mouth) A stopper for a bottle. Also a vent-hole of a furnace, called the re-

gister.

EPISTROPHALUS. (From er, upon, and τρεφω, to turn about.) It is applied to the first vertebra of the neck, because it turns about upon the second as upon an axis, which therefore was so called by the ancients. Some, though improperly, called the second thus. It is also written Epistrophea and Epistrophis.

EPISTROPHE. (From erispepa, to invert.) An inversion of any part, as when the neck is turned round. Also a return of a disor-

der which has ceased

EPISTROPHEUS. (From επισχοφαιώ, to turn round, because the head is turned upon it.) Epistrophæus The second cervical vertebra. See Dentatus.

EPISTROPHIS. See Epistrophe.

EPITASIS. (From επι, and τεινω, to extend.) The beginning and increase of a paroxysm or disease.

EPITHELIUM. The cuticle on the red

part of the tips.

EPITHEMA. (From επι, upon, and τιθημι, to apply.) A term sometimes applied to a lotion, fomentation, or some external application.

EPITHEMATIUM. The same. A plaster. EPITHESIS. (From επι, and τιθημι, to cover or lay upon.) The rectification of crooked limbs by means of instruments.

EPITHYMUM. (From 171, upon, and θυμος, the herb thyme.) Cuscuta. Dodder of thyme. A parasitical plant, possessing a strong disagreeable smell, and a pungent taste, very durable in the mouth. Two kinds are recommended in melancholia, as cathartics, viz. Cuscuta epirhymum of Linnæus :- foliis sessilibus, quinquifidis, bracteis obvallatis, and cuscuta europea; floribus sessilibus.

EPODE. (From ers, over, and adn, a song.) Epodos. The method of curing

distempers by incantation.

EPOMIS. (From ett, upon, and wuoc, the The acromion, or upper part shoulder.) of the shoulder.

(From er, upon, and EPOMPHALIUM. ομφαλος, the navel.) An application to the

EPSOM SALT. A purging salt, formerly obtained by boiling down the mineral water, found in the vicinity of Epsom in Surrey. It is at present prepared from sea water, which, after being boiled down, deposits an unchrystallized brine, that consists chiefly of muriated magnesia, and is sold in the shops under the name of sal. catharticus amarus, or bitter purging salt.

See Sulphas Magnesiæ.

EPSOM WATER. Aqua Epsomensis. This water evaporated to dryness leaves a residuum, the quantity of which has been estimated from an ounce and a half in the gallon to five drachms and one scruple. Of the total residuum, by far the greater part, about four or five sixths, is sulphate of magnesia mixed with a very few mirrats, such as that of lime, and probably magnesia, which render it very deliquescent, and increase the bitterness of taste, till purified by repeated chrystallizations. There is nothing sulphureous or metallic ever found in this spring. The diseases in which it is employed are similar to those of Sedlitz water. There are many other of the simple saline spring, that might be enumerated, all of which agree with that of Epsom, in containing a notable proportion of some purging salt. This, for the most part, is either Epsom or Glauber's salt, or often a mixture of both, such as Acton, Kilburne, Bagnigge Wells, Dog and Duck, St. George's Fields, &c.

EPULIS. (From επι, and ελα, the gums.) A small tubercle on the gums. It is said

sometimes to become cancerous.

EPULOTICS. (Epulotica, sc. medicamenta; from 6782000, to cicatrize.) A term given by surgeons to those applications which promote the formation of skin.

EQUISETUM. (From equus, a horse, and seta, a bristle; so named from its re-

semblance to a horse's tail.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Or-

der, Filices.
2. The pharmacopæial name of the Canda equina. Horse-tail, mare's-tail. The plant directed for medicinal purposes under this name is the Hippuris vulgaris of Linnæus. It possesses astringent qualities, and is frequently used by the common people as rea in diarrhoas and hamorrhages. The same virtues are also attributed to the Equiscium arvense, fluviatile, limosum, and other species, which are directed indiscriminately by the term Equisetum.

Equiserum ARVENSE. See Equisetum. Equus asinus. The systematic name of

the animal called an ass; the female affords a light and nutritious milk.

ERANTHEMUS. (From pp, the spring, and ανθεμος, a flower; so called because it Howers in the spring )
EREBINTRUS. (Epsarbos ) The vetch.

ERECTOR CLITORIDIS. First muscle of the chtoris of Doughs. Ischiocavernosus of Winslow, and Ischio-clitoridien of Dumas. A muscle of the clitoris

that draws it downwards and backwards, and serves to make the body of the clitoris more tense, by squeezing the blood into it from its crus. It arises from the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted into the cli-

ERECTOR PENIS. Ischio-cavernosus of Winslow, and Ischio-caverneux of Dumas. A muscle of the penis that drives the urine or semen forwards, and, by grasping the bulb of the urethra, pushes the blood towards the corpus cavernosum and the glans, and thus distends them. It arises from the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted into the sides of the cavernous substance of the penis.

ERETHISMUS. (From ερεθιζω, to excite or irritate.) Increased sensibility and irritability. It is variously applied by mo-

dern writers.

Mr. Pearson has described a state of the constitution produced by mercury acting on it as a poison. He calls it the mercurial erethismus, and mentions that it is characterized, by great depression of strength, anxiety about the præcordia, irregular action of the heart, frequent sighing, trembling, a small, quick, sometimes intermitting pulse, occasional vomiting, a pale contracted countenance, a sense of coldness; but the tongue is seldom furred, nor are the vital and natural functions much disturbed. In this state any sudden exertion will sometimes prove fatal.

ERGASTERIUM. (From eppor, work.) A labaratory: that part of the furnace in which is contained the matter to be acted

(From epeina, to break; so ERICA. named from its fragility, or because it is broken into rods to make besoms of.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Octandria. Order, Monogynia. Heath.

ERICERUM. (From speaks, heath.) A me-

dicine in which heath is an ingredient.

ERIGERUM. (From no, the spring, and yepay, old, so called, because in the spring it has a white blossom like the hair of an Groundsei old man.) Erigeron. very common plant, Senecio vulgaris of Linnæus, is frequently applied bruised to inflammations and ulcers, as a refrigerent and antiscorbutic.

EROSION. (From erodo, to guaw off.) This word is very often used in the same sense as ulceration, viz. the formation of a breach or chasm in the substance of parts, by the action of the absor-

bents.

(From space, love, and EROTOMANIA. mana, madness.) That melancholy, or mad-

ness, which is the effect of love.

Enres. (From ερπω, to creep; so named from their gradually increasing in size.) The shingles, or herpes.

ERRATIC. (Erraticus, from erro, to wander.) Wandering, Irregular. A term occasionally applied to pains, or any disease which is not fixed, but moves from one part to another, as gout, rheumatism,

ERRHINE. (Errhina, sc. medicamenta: sppera, from sv, in, and per, the nose.) By errhines are to be understood those medicines, which, when topically applied to the internal membrane of the nose, excite sneezing, and increase the secretion, independent of any mechanical irritation. The articles belonging to this class may be referred to two orders.

1. Sternutatary errhines, as nicotiana, helleborus, euphorbium, which are selected for the torpid, the vigorous, but not plethoric; and those to whom any degree of evacuation would not be hurtful.

2. Evacuating errhines, as asarum, &c. which is calculated for the phlegmatic and

ERROR LOCI. Boerhaave is said to have introduced this term, from the opinion that the vessels were of different sizes, for the circulation of blood, lymph, and serum; and that when the larger sized globules were forced into the lesser vessels by an error of place, they were obstructed. this opinion does not appear to be well grounded.

ERUCA. (From erugo, to make smooth, so named from the smoothness of its leaves; or from uro, to burn, because of its biting quality.) Garden rocket. Roman rocket. Rocket gentle. The seeds of this plant, Brassica eruca; foliis lyartis, caule hirsuto siliquis glabris, of Linnaus, and of the wild rocket, have an acrid taste, and are eaten by the Italians in their pickles, &c. They are said to be good aperients and antiscorbutics, but are esteemed by the above-mentioned people for their supposed aphrodisiac qualities.

The wild rocket, ERUCA SYLVESTRIS. Brassica erucastrum of Linnæus.

ERUTHEMA. (From epeu 9 a, to make red. A fiery red tumour, or pustules on the skin.

ERVUM. (Quasi arvum, a field, because it grows wild in the fields: or from eruo, to pluck out, because it is diligently plucked from corn.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diadelphia. Or-

der, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of tare.

Orobus. The plant ordered by this name is the Ervum ervilia; germinibus undatoplicatis, foliis imparipinnatis, of Linnæus. In times of searcity the seeds have been made into bread, which is not the most salubrious. The meal was formerly amongst the resolvent remedies by way of poultice.

ERVUM ERVILLA. The systematic name of the Orobos. See Ervum

Envum LENS. The systematic name of the lentil. See Lens.

ERYNGIUM. (From egvyyava, to eruc-

tate.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Pentandria. Order, Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order,

Digynia. 2. The pharmacopæial name of the sea eryngo, or holly. Eryngium maritimum; foliis radicalibus subrotundis plicatis spinosis, capituas pedunculatis, paleis tricuspidatis, of Lunaus. The root of this plant is directed for medicinal use. It has no par-

ticular smell, but to the taste it manifests a grateful sweetness; and, on being chewed for some time, it discovers a light aromatic warmth or pungency. It was formerly celebrated for its supposed aphrodisiac powers, but it is now very rarely em-

ployed.

EHYNGIUM CAMPESTRE. The root of this plant, Eryngium campestre; foliis radicalibus, amplexicaulibus, pinnato-lanceolatis, of Linnæus, is used in many places for that of the sea eryngo. See Eryngium.

Erynge. See Eryngium. Eryngo, sea. See Eryngium.

Eryngo leaved lichen. See Lichen islandi-

ERYSIMUM. From equa, to draw, so called from its power of drawing and producing blisters; others derive it and TE eguway, because the leaves are much cut; others from egitimov, precious.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Or-

der, Siliquosa.

8. The pharmacopoial name of the hedge mustard. This plant, Erpsimum officinule; siliquis spica adpressis, foliis runcinatis, of Linnaus, was formerly much used for its expectorant and dinretic qualities, which are now forgotten. The seeds are warm and pungent, and very similar to those of mustard in their sensible effects.

ERISIMUM ALLIARIA. The systematic

name of Jack in the hedge. See Alliaria. ERISMUM BARBANEA. The systematic name of the barbarea of the shops. See

Envsimum officinale. The systematic name of the hedge mustard. See Erysi-

ERYSIPELAS. (From egue, to draw, and wealer, adjoining; named from the neighbouring parts being affected by the eruption) Ignis sacer. The rose, or St. Anthony's fire. A genus of disease in the class pyrexic, and order exanthemata of Cutien. It is known by synocha of two or three days continuance, with drowsiness, and sometimes with delirium; pulse commonly full and hard; then erythema of the face, or some other part, with continuance

of synochia, tending either to abscess or gangrene. There are two species of this disease, according to Cullen: 1. Erysipelas resiculosum, with large blisters; 2. Erysipelas phyctanodes, the shingles, or an erysipelas with phlyctenæ, or small blisters.

This disease is an inflammatory affection, principally of the skin, when it makes its appearance externally, and of the mucous membrane, when it is seated internally; and is more liable to attack women and children, and those of an irritable habit, than those of a plethoric and robust constitution.

It is remarkable that erysepalas sometimes returns periodically, attacking the patient once or twice in the year, or even once every month, and then by its repeated attacks it often gradually exhausts the strength, especially if he be old and of a bad habit.

When the inflammation is principally confined to the skin, and is unattended by any affection of the system, it is then called erythema; but when the system is affected it is named erysipelas.

Every part of the body is equally liable to it, but it more frequently appears on the face, legs, and feet, than any where else, when seated externally; and it occurs oftener in warm climates than phlegmonous inflammation.

It is brought on by all the causes that are apt to excite inflammation, such as injuries of all kinds, the external application of stimulants, exposure to cold, and obstructed perspiration; and it may likewise be occasioned by a certain matter generated within the body, and thrown out on its surface. A particular state of the atmosphere seems sometimes to render it epidemical, as we often find the scarlatina anginosa, which is a species of internal erysipelas, prevail as such.

In slight cases, where it attacks the extremities, it makes its appearance with a roughness, heat, pain, and redness of the skin, which becomes pale when the finger is pressed upon it, and again returns to its former colour, when it is removed. There prevails likewise a small febrile disposition, and the patient is rather hot and thirsty. If the attack is mild, these symptoms will continue only for a few days, the surface of the part affected will become yellow, the cuticle or scarf-skin will fall off in scales, and no further inconvenience will perhaps be experienced; but if the attack has been severe, and the inflammatory symptoms have run high, then there will ensue pains in the head and back, great heat, thirst, and restlessness; the part affected will slightly swell: the pulse will become small and frequent; and about the fourth day, a number of little vesicles, containing a limpid, and, in some cases, a yellowish fluid, will arise. In some instances, the fluid is viscid, and instead of running out, as generally happens when the blister is broken, it adheres to and dries upon the skin.

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In unfavourable cases, these blisters sometimes degenerate into obstinate ulcers, which now and then become gangrenous. This, however, does not happen frequently; for although it is not uncommou for the surface of the skin, and the blistered places to appear livid or even blackish, yet this usually disappears with the other symptoms of the complaint.

The period at which the vesicles shew themselves is very uncertain. The same may be said of the duration of the eruption. In mild cases it often disappears gradually, or is carried off by spontaneous sweating. In some cases it continues without shewing any disposition to decline for twelve or four-

teen days, or longer.

The trunk of the body is sometimes attacked with crysipelatous inflammation, but less frequently so than the extremities. It is not uncommon, however, for infants to be attacked in this manner a few days after birth; and in these it makes its appearance about the genitals. The inflamed skin is hard, and apparently very painful to the touch. The belly often becomes uniformly tense, and sphacelated spots sometimes are to be observed. From dissections made by Dr. Underwood, it appears, that in this form of the disease, the inflammation frequently spreads to the abdominal viscora.

Another species of erysipelatous inflammation, which most usually attacks the trunk of the body, is that vulgarly known by the name of shingles, being a corruption of the French word ceingle, which implies a belt. Instead of appearing an uniform inflamed surface, it consists of a number of little pustules, extending round the body a little above the umbilicus, which have vesicles formed on them in a short time. Little or no danger ever attends this species of

erysipelas.

When erysipelas attacks the face, it comes on with chilliness, succeeded by heat, restlessness, thirst, and other febrile symptoms, with a drowsiness or tendency to coma or delirium, and the pulse is very frequent and At the end of two or three days, a fiery redness appears on some part of the face, and this extends at length to the scalp, and then gradually down the neck, leaving a tumefaction in every part the redness has occupied. The whole face at length becomes turgid, and the eyelids are so much swelled as to deprive the patient of sight. When the redness and swelling have continued for some time, blisters of different sizes, containing a thin colourless

acrid liquor, arise on different parts of the face, and the skin puts on a livid appearance in the blistered places: but in those not affected with blisters, the cuticle, towards the close of the disease, falls off in scales.

No remission of the fever takes place on

No remission of the fever takes place on the appearance of the inflammation on the face; but, on the contrary, it is encreased as the latter extends, and both will continue probably for the space of eight or ten days. In the course of the inflammation, the disposition to coma and delinimate sometimes so increased as to destroy the patient between the seventh and eleventh days of the disease. When the complaint is mild, and not marked by a fatal event, the inflammation and fever generally cease gradually, without any evigence of the contract of the cont

dent crisis. If the disease arises in a bad habit of body, occupies a part possessed of great sensibility, is accompanied with much inflammation, fever, and delirium, and these take place at an early period, we may suppose the patient exposed to imminent danger. Where translations of the morbid matter take place, and the inflammation falls on either the b ain, lungs, or abdomiral viscera, we may entertain the same unfavourable opinion. Erysipelas never terminates in suppuration, unless combined with a considerable degree of phlegmonous inflammation, which is, however, sometimes the case; but in a bad habit, it is ant to terminate in gangrene, in which case there will be also great danger. When the febrile symptoms are mild, and unaccompanied by delirium or coma, and the inflammation does not run high, we need not be apprehensive of danger.

Where the disease has occupied the face, and proves fatal, inflammation of the brain, and its consequences, are to be met with on

discection.

ERYTHEMA. (From spudges, red.) A morbid redness of the skin, as is observed upon the cheeks of heetic patients after eating, and the skin covering bubb, phlegnon, &c. Eryspelas is so called when the is flammation is principally confined to the skin.

Environmental (From egulges, red, so called from the colour of its justice.) See

Rubia.

Entitrofines. (From ερυθρος, red, and εωθος, a likeness, so called from its colour.)

A name given to the tunica vaginalis tests.

ERYTHRONIUM. (From spulpos, red, so called from the red colour of its juice.) A species of satyrion.

ERYTHROXYLUM. (From ερυθέςες, red, and ξυλον, wood, so named from its colour.) Logwood.

ERYTHRUS. (From epubgos, red, so named from the red colour of its juice.) The herb sumach.

Esaphe. (From stapaw, to feel.) The touch; or feeling the mouth of the womb, to know its state.

ESCHAR. (Εσχάξα, from εσχάξοω, to scab over.) Eschara. The portion of flesh that is destroyed by the application

of a caustic.

ESCHAROTICS. (Escharotica, sc. medicamenta, εσχαρωίκα, from εσχαρωίκα, sc. medicamenta, εσχαρωίκα, from εσχαρωίκο. A term given by surgeons to those substances which possess a power of destroying the texture of the various solid parts of the animal body to which they are directly applied. The articles of this class of substances may be arranged under two orders.

1. Eroding escharotics, as blue vitriol,

alumen ustum, &c.

2. Caustic escharotics, as lapis infernalis, argentum nitratum, oleum vitrioli, acidum nitrosum, &c.

ESCULENT. An appellation given to such plants, or any part of them, that may

be eaten for food.

ENOX LUCIUS. The systematic name of fish of the class pisces, and order abdominales, from whose liver an oil spontaneously is separated, which is termed in some pharmacopæias oleum lucii piscis. It is used in some countries by surgeons, to destroy spots of the transparent cornea.

ESSENCE. Several of the volatile or essential oils are so called by the perfumers.

ESSENTIAL OIL. See Oil.

ESSERA. (Arab. A humour.) A species of cutaneous eruption, distinguished by broad, shining, smooth, red spots, mostly without fever, and differing from the nettle rash in not being clevated. It generally attacks the face and hands.

ESULA. (From esus, eating, because

it is eaten by some as a medicine.) Spurge. ESULA MAJOR. The officinal plant ordered by this name in some pharmacopæias is the Euphorbia palustris of Linuaus:—umbella multifida, bifida, involucellis ovatis, folis lanceolatis, ramis sterilibus. The juice is exhibited in Russia as a common purge; and the plant is given, in some places, in the cure of intermittents.

ESULA MINOR. Tithymalis cyparissius. Cypress spurge. This, like most of the spurges, is very acrimonious, inflaming the eyes and esophagus after touching them. It is now fallen into disuse, whatever were its virtues formerly, which, no doubt, amongst some others, was that of opening the bowels, for, amongst rustics, it was

called poor man's rhubarb.

ETHER. See Æther.

ETHER, ACETIC. Acetic naphtha. An etherial fluid, drawn over from an equal admixture of alkohol and acetic acid, distilled with a gentle heat from a glass retort in a sand-bath. It has a grateful

smell, is extremely light, volatile, and inflammable.

ETHER, NUBLATIC. Marine ether. Marine ether is obtained by mixing and distilling alcohol with extremely concentrated muriat of tin. It is stimulant, antiseptic, and diuretic.

ETHER, NITROUS. Nitric naphtha. This is only a stronger preparation than the spiritus atheris nitrosi of the London Pharmacopæia; it is produced by the distillation of two parts of alcohol to one part and an half of fuming nitric acid.

ETHER, SULPHURIC. See Æther sulphu-

ricus.

ETHER, VITRIOLIC. See Æther sulphuricus.

ETHERIAL OIL. Any highly rectified essential oil may be so termed.

Ethiops antimonial. See Sulphuretum hy-

drargyri stibiatum nigrum.

Ethiops mineral. See Hydrargyrus cum sulphure.

Ethiops per se. See Oxydum hydrargyri nigrum

ETHMOIDES. See Ethmoid bone.

ETHMOID BONE. (Os ethmoides; from εθμος, a sieve, and ειδος, form; be-cause it is perforated like a sieve.) Os ethmoideum. Os æthmoides. Cribriform bone. A bone of the head. This is, perhaps, one of the most curious bones of the human body. It appears almost a cube, not of solid bone, but exceedingly light, spongy, and consisting of many convoluted plates, which form a net-work, like honey-comb. It is curiously enclosed in the os frontis, betwixt the orbitary processes of that bone. One horizontal plate receives the olfactory nerves, which perforate that plate with such a number of small holes, that it resembles a seive; whence the bone is named cribriform, or ethmoid bone. Other plates dropping perpendicularly from this one, receive the divided nerves, and gives them an opportunity of expanding into the organ of smelling; and these bones, upon which the olfactory nerves are spread out, are so much convoluted as to extend the surface of this sense very greatly, and are named spongy bones. Another flat plate lies in the orbit of the eye; and being very smooth, by the rolling of the eye, it is named the os planum, or smooth bone. So that the ethmoid bone supports the forepart of the brain, receives the olfactory nerves, forms the organ of smelling, and makes a chief part of the orbit of the eye; and the spongy bones, and the os planum, are neither of them distinct bodies, but parts of this athmoid bone.

The cribriform plate is exceedingly delicate and thin; lies horizontally over the root of the nose; and fills up neatly the space betwirt the two orbitary plates of the frontal bone. The olfactory nerves, like two small flat lobes, lie out upon this plate, and, adhering to it, shoot down like many roots through this bone, so as to perforate it with numerous small holes, as if it had been dotted with the point of a pin, or like a nutmeg-grater. This plate is horizontal; but its processes are perpendicu-

lar, one above, and three below.

1. The first perpendicular process is what is called crista galli; a small perpendicular projection, somewhat like a cock's comb, but exceedingly small, standing directly upwards from the middle of the cribriform plate, and dividing that plate into two; so that one olfactory nerve lies upon each side of the crista galli; and the root of the falx, or septum, betwixt the two hemispheres of the brain, begins from this process. The foramen cacum, or blind hole of the frontal bone, is formed partly by the root of the crista galli, which is very smooth, and sometimes, it is said,

hollow, or cellular. 2. Exactly opposite this, and in the same direction with it, i. e. perpendicular to the athmoid plate, stands out the nasal plate of the athmoid bone. It is sometimes called azygous, or single process of the æthmoid, and forms the beginning of that septum, or partition, which divides the two nostrils. This process is thin but firm, and composed of solid bone; it is commonly inclined a little to one side, so as to make the nostrils of unequal size. azygous process is united with the vomer, which forms the chief part of the partition; so that the septum, or partition of the nose, consists of the azygous process of the æthmoid bone above, of the vomer, below, and of the cartilage in the fore or projecting part of the nose; but the cartilage rots away, so that whatever is seen of this septum in the skull, must be either of the æthmoid bone or vomer.

3. Upon either side of the septum, there hangs down a spongy bone, one hanging in each nostril. They are each rolled up like a scroll of parchment; they are very spongy; are covered with a delicate and sensible membrane; and when the olfactory nerves depart from the cribriform plate of the athmoid bone, they attach themselves to the septum, and to these upper spongy bones, and expend upon them, so that the convolutions of these bones are of material use in expanding the organ of smelling, and detaining the odorous effluvia till the impression be perfect. Their convolutions are more numerous in the lower animals, in proportion as they need a more acute They are named spongy or turbinated bones, from their convolutions resembling the many folds of a turban.

The spongy bones have a great many honeycomb-like cells connected with

them, which belong also to the organ of smell, and which are useful perhaps by detaining the effluvia of odorous bodies, and also by reverberating the voice. Thus, in a common cold, while the voice is hurt by an affection of these cells, the sense of smelling is almost lost.

4. The orbitary plate of the athmoid bone, is a large surface, consisting of a very firm plate of bone, of a regular square form; exceedingly smooth and polished; it forms a great part of the socket for the eye, lying on its inner side. When we see it in the detached bone, we know it to be just the flat side of the athmoid bone; but while it is incased in the socket of the eye, we should believe it to be a small square bone; and from this, and from its smoothness, it has got the distinct name of osplanum.

The cells of the æthmoid bone, which form so important a share of the organ of smell, are arranged in great numbers along the spongy bone. They are small neat cells, much like a honey-comb, and regularly arranged in two rows, parted from each other by a thin partition; so that the os planum seems to have one set of cells attached to it, while another regular set of cells belongs in like manner to the spongy bones. There are thus twelve in number, opening into each other, and into the nose.

These cells are frequently the seat of venereal ulcers; and the spongy bones are the surface where polypi often sprout up. And from the general connections and forms of the bone, we can easily understand how the venereal ulcer, when deep in the nose, having got to these cells, cannot be cured, but undermines all the face; how the venereal disease, having affected the nose, soon spreads to the eye, and how even the brain itself is not safe. We see the danger of a blow upon the nose, which, by a force upon the septum, or middle partition, may depress the delicate cribriform plate, so as to oppress the brain with all the effects of a fractured skull, and without any operation which can give relief. And we also see the danger of pulling away polypi, which are firmly attached to the upper spongy bone.

ETRON. (From &a, to eat, as containing the receptacles of the food.) The hypo-

gastrium.

EUANTHEMUM. (From ευ well, and ανθεμος, a flower; so named from the beauty of its flowers.) The chamomile.

EUAPHIUM. (From ευ, well, and αφη, the touch; so called because its touch was supposed to give ease.) A medicine for the piles.

EUGENIA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Icosandria. Order, Monogynia.

EUDIOMETER. An instrument by

which the quantity of oxygen and nitrogen is formed; the figure of the vessel, and in atmospherical air can be ascertained, many other circumstances are capable of They are all founded upon the principle of occasioning considerable differences in the decomposing common air by means of a body which has a greater affinity with the oxygen. See Eucliometry.

EUDIOMETRY. The method of ascertaining the purity of atmospheric air.

No sooner was the composition of the atmosphere known, than it became an inquiry of importance to find out a method of ascertaining, with facility and precision, the relative quantity of oxygen gas contained in a given bulk of atmospheric air.

The instruments in which the oxygen gas of a determined quantity of air was ascertained, received the name of Eucliometers, because they were considered as measurers of the purity of air. They are, however, more properly called Oximeters.

The cudimeters proposed by different chymists, are the following:

1. Priestley's Endiometer.

The first endiometer was made in consequence of Dr. Priestley's discovery, that when nitrous gas is mixed with atmospheric air over water, the hulk of the mixture diminishes rapidly, in consequence of the combination of the gas with the oxygen of the air, and the absorption of the nitric acid thus formed by the water.

When nitrous gas is mixed with nitrogen gas, no diminution takes place : but when it is mixed with oxygen gas in proper proportions, the absorption is complete. Hence it is evident, that in all cases of a mixture of these two gases, the diminution will be proportional to the quantity of the oxygen. Of course it will indicate the proportion of oxygen in air; and by mixing it with different portions of air, it will indicate the different quantities of oxygen which they contain, provided the component parts of air be susceptible of variation.

Dr. Priestley's method was to mix together equal bulks of air and nitrous gas in a low jar, and then transfer the mixture into a narrow graduated glass tube about three feet long, in order to measure the diminution of bulk. He expressed this diminution by the number of hundredth parts remaining. Thus, suppose he had mixed together equal parts of nitrous gas and air, and that the sum total was 200 (or 2.00:) suppose the residuum when measured in the graduated tube to amount to 104 (or 1.04,) and of course that 96 parts of the whole had disappeared, he denoted the

This method of analyzing air by means of nitrous gas is liable to many errors. For the water over which the experiment is made may contain more or less carbonic acid, atmospheric air, or other heterogeneous substance. The nitrons gas is not always of the same composition, and is partly absorbed by the nitrous acid which

purity of the air thus tried by 104.

results.

Fontana, Cavendish, Ladriani, Magellan, Von Humbolt, and Dr. Falconer, have made series of laborious experiments to bring the test of nitrous gas to a state of complete accuracy; but, notwithstanding the exercions of these philosophers, the methods of analyzing air by means of nitrous gas are hable to so many anomalies, that it is unnecessary to give a particular description of the different instruments invented by them.

2. Scheele's Eucliometer.

This is merely a graduated glass cylinder, containing a given quantity of air, exposed to a mixture of iron filings and sulphur, formed into a paste with water. The substances may be made use of in the following manner:

Make a quantity of sulphur in powder, and iron filings, into a paste with water, and place the mixture in a saucer, or plate, over water, on a stand raised above the fluid; then invert over it a graduated bellglass, and allow this to stand for a day or two. The air contained in the bell-glass will gradually dominish, as will appear from the ascent of the water.

When no further diminution takes place, the vessel containing the sulphuret must be removed, and the remaining air will be found to be nitrogen gas, which was contained in that quantity of atmospheric

In this process the moistened sulphuret of iron has a great affinity to oxygen, it attracts and separates it from the atmospheric air, and the nitrogen gas is left behind; the sulphur, during the experiment, is converted into sulphuric acid, which unites to the

alkali and forms sulphate of potash.

The air which is exposed to moistened iron and sulphur, gradually becomes di-minished, on account of its oxygen combining with a portion of the sulphur which becomes converted into sulphuric acid, and its nitrogen remains behind. The quantity of oxygen contained in the air examined becomes thus obvious, by the diminution of bulk, which the volume of air submitted to examination, has undergone.

The only error to which this method is hable is, that the sulphuric acid which is formed acts on the iron and produces hydrogen gas, which joins to the nitrogen remaining after the absorption, and oc-casions an incorrect result; and hence it is that the absorption amounts in general to 0.27 parts, although the true quantity of oxygen is no more than from 0.21 to 0.22.

3. De Marti's Eudiometer.

De Marti obviated the errors to which the method of Scheele was liable. He

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availed himself for that purpose, of a hydrogenated sulphuret, formed by boiling sulphur and liquid potash, or lime-water, together. These substances, when newly prenared, have the property of absorbing a minute portion of nitrogen gas; but they lose this property when saturated with that gas, which is easily effected by agitating them for a few minutes in contact with a small portion of a mospheric air.

The apparatus is merely a glass tube, ten inches long, and rather less than half an inch in diameter, open at one end, and hermetically sealed at the other. The close end is divided into one hundred equal parts, having an interval of one line between each division. The use of this tube is to measure the portion of air to be employed in the experiment. The tube is filled with water; and by allowing the water to run out gradually, while the tube is inverted, and the open end kept shut with the finger, the graduated part is exactly filled with air. These hundred parts of air are introduced into a glsss bottle, filled with liquid sulphuret of lime previously saturated with nitrogen gas, and capable of holding from two to four times the bulk of the air introduced. The bottle is then to be closed with a ground glass stopper, and agitated for five minutes. After this, the stopper is to be withdrawn, while the mouth of the phial is under water; and for the greater accur v t may be closed and agitated again. Lastly, the air is to be again transfered to the graduated glass tube, in order to ascertain the diminution

4. Humbolt's Eucliometer.

Consists in decomposing a definite quantity of atmospheric air, by means of the combustion of phosphorus, after which, the portion of gas which remains must be measured.

Take a glass cylinder, closed at the top, and whose capacity must be measured into sufficiently small portions by a graduated scale fixed on it. If the instrument be destined solely for examining atmospheric air, it will be sufficient to apply the scale from the orifice of the cylinder down to about half its length, or to sketch that scale on a slip of paper pasted on the outside of the tube, and to varnish it over with a transparent varnish.

'This half of the eudiometrical tube is divided into fifty equidistant parts, which in this case indicate hundredth parts of the whole capacity of the instrument.

Into this vessel, full of atmospheric air, put a piece of dry phosphorus, (one grain to every twelve cubic inches,) close it airtight, and heat it gradually, first the sides near the bottom, and afterwards the bottom itself. The phosphorus will take fire and burn rapidly. After every thing is cold, invert the mouth of the eudiometer

tube into a basin of water, or mercury, and withdraw the cork. The water will ascend in proportion to the loss of oxygen gas the air has sustained, and thus its quantity may be ascertained.

Analogous to this is

5. Seguin's Eudiometer,

Which consists of a glass tube, of about one inch in diameter, and eight or ten inches high, closed at the upper extremity. It is filled with mercury, and kept inverted in this fluid in the mercurial trough. A small bit of phosphorus is introduced into it, which on account of its specific gravity being less than that of mercury, will rise up in it to the top. The phosphorus is then melted by means of a red-hot poker, or burning coal applied to the outside of the tube. When the phosphorus is liquified, small portions of air destined to be examined, and which have been previously measured in a vessel graduated to the cubic inch, or into grains, are introduced into the tube. As soon as the air which is sent up reaches the phosphorus, a combustion will take place and the mercury will rise again. The combustion continues till the end of the operation; but, for the greater exactness, Mr. Seguin directs the residuum to be heated strongly. When cold it is introduced into a small vessel, whose capacity has been ascertained at the same time as that of the preceding. The difference of the two volumes gives the quantity of the oxygen gas contained in the air subjected to examination.

6. Bertholet's Eudiometer.

Instead of the rapid combustion of phosphorus, Bertholet has substituted its spontaneous combustion, which absorbs the oxygen of atmospheric air completely; and, when the quantity of air operated on is small, the process is accomplished in a short time.

Bertholet's apparatus consists of a narrow graduated glass tube, containing the air to be examined, into which is introduced a cylinder, or stick of phosphorus, supported upon a glass rod, while the tube stands inverted in water. The phosphorus should be nearly as long as the tube. Immediately after the introduction of the phosphorus, white vapours are formed which fill the tube; these vapours gradually descend, and become absorbed by the water. When no more white vapours appear, the process is at an end, for all the oxygen gas which was present in the confined quantity of air, has united with the phosphorus: the residuum is the quantity of nitrogen of the air submitted to examination.

This eudiometer, though excellent of the kind, is nevertheless not absolutely to be depended upon; for, as soon as the absorption of oxygen is completed, the nitrogen gas exercises an action upon the phosphorus, and thus its bulk becomes increased. It has been ascertained, that the volume of nitrogen gas is increased to 1.40th part; consequently the bulk of the residuum, dimmished by 1.40, gives us the bulk of the nitrogen gass of the air exanuned; which bulk, subtracted from the original mass of air, gives us the proportion of oxygen gas contained in it. The same allowance must be made in the eudiometer of Segum.

7. Davy's Eudiometer.

Until very lately, the preceding processes were the methods of determining the relative proportions of the two gases which

compose our atmosphere.

Some of these methods though very ingenious, are so extremely slow in their action, that it is difficult to ascertain the precise time at which the operation ceases. Others have frequently involved inaccuracies, not easily removed.

The eudiometer of Mr. Davy is not only free from these objections, but the result it offers is always constant; it requires little address, and is very expeditious; the apparatus is portable, simple and conveni-

Take a small glass tube, graduated into one hundred equi-distant parts; fill this tube with the air to be examined, and plunge it into a bottle, or any other convenient vessel, containing a concentrated solution of green muriate or sulphate of iron, strongly impregnated with nitrous gas. All that is necessary to be done is, to move the tube in the solution a little backwards and forwards; under these circumstances, the oxygen gas contained in the air will be rapidly absorbed, and condensed by the nitrous gas in the solution, in the form of nitrons acid.

N. B. The state of the greatest absorption must be marked, as the mixture afterwards emits a little gas which would alter

the result.

ment.

This circumstance depends upon the slow decomposition of the nitrous acid (formed during the experiment,) by the green oxyd of iron, and the consequent production of a small quantity of aëritorm fluid (chiefly nitrous gas); which, having no affinity with the red muriate, or sulphate of iron, produced by the combination of oxygen, is gradually evolved and mingled with the resi-

dual nitrogen gas. The impregnated solution with green muriate, is more rapid in its operation than the solution with green sulphate. In cases when these salts cannot be obtained in a state of absolute purity, the common sulphate of iron of commerce may be employed. One cubic inch of moderately strong impregnated solution, is capable of absorbing five or six cubic inches of oxygen, in common processes; but the same quantity must never be employed for more than one experi-

In all these different methods of analyzing air, it is necessary to operate on air of a determinate density, and to take care that the residuum be neither more condensed nor dilated than the air was when first operated on. If these things are not attended to, no dependance whatever can be placed upon the result of the experiments, how carefully soever they may have been performed. It is, therefore, necessary to place the air before and after the examination, into water of the same temperature. If this, and several other little circumstances have been attended to, for instance, a change in the height of the barometer, &c. we find that air is composed of 022 of oxygen gas, and 0.78 of nitrogen gas by bulk. But as the weight of these two gases is not exactly the same, the proportion of the component parts by weight will differ a little; for as the specific gravity of oxygen gas is to that of nitrogen gas as 135: 115, it follows that 100 parts of air are composed by weight of about 74 nitrogen gas, and 26 oxygen gas.

The air of this metropolis, examined by means of Davy's endiometer, was found, in all the different seasons of the year to contain 0.21 of oxygen; and the same was the case with air taken at Islington and Highgate; in the solitary cells in Cold-bathfields prison, and on the river Thames. But the quantity of water contained in a given bulk of air from these places, differed con-

siderably.

EUGENIA. (So named by Micheli, in compliment to Prince Eugene of Savoy, who sent him from Germany almost all the plants described by Clusius.) The name of a genus of plants in the Lannaan system. Class,

Icosardria. Order, Monogynia.
Eugenia Jambos The systematic name of the Malabar plum-tree. See Malabar

EUGRUS. (From ev, well, and yv, the earth; so called, because of its fertility.) The uterus.

Eule. (From Eula 20, to putrefy.) A worm

bred in foul and putrid ulcers.

EUNUCHIUM. (From eurs 20s, an eunnich; so called because it was formerly said to render those who eat it impotent, like an eunuch ) The lettuce.

EUPATORIOPHALAURON. (From suralugion, agrimony, and φαλακρος, bald.) A species of

agrimony with baked heads. EUPATORIUM. (Fron (From Eupator, its inventor; or quasi hepatorium, from erag, the liver; because it was said to be useful in diseases of the liver.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqua.

2. The pharmacopeial name of Eupatorium Arabicum. Hemp agrimony. This very bitter and strong-smelling plant, is the Eupatorium cannabinam; fotis digitatis, of Linnans. Its juice proves violently emetic and purgative, if taken in sufficient quantity, and promotes the secretions generally. It is recommended in dropsies, jaundices, agues, &c. and is in common use in Holland, amongst the lower orders, as a purifier of the blood in old ulcers, scurvy, and ana-

EUPATORIUM ARABICUM. Eupato- , sia.

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EUPATORIUM CANNABINUM. The systematic name of the hemp agrimony. See Eupatorium.

EUPATORIUM MESUES. See Ageratum. EUPEPSIA. (From w, well, and memle, to -

concoct.) A good digestion.

EUPEPTIC. (Eupeptica; from w. good, and merlu, to digest.) Substances are so called that are easy to digest.

EUPHORBIA ANTIQUORUM. The Linnæan name of a plant supposed to produce the Euphorbium.

EUPHORBIA CANARIENSIS. In the Canary islands this species of spurge affords the guin euphorbium.

EUPHORBIA CYPARISSIAS. The systematic name of the cypress spurge. See Eusula minor.

EUPHRORBIA LATHYRIS. The systematic name of the plant, which affords the lesser cataputia se. ds. See Cataputia minor.

EUPHORBIA OFFICINARUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the euphorbium in the greatest abundance. See Euphorbium

EUPHORBIA PALUSTRIS. The systematic name of the greater spurge. See Esular

EUPRORBIA PARALIAS. See Tithumalus

EUPHORBIA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dode-

candria. Order, Trigynia. EUPHORBICM. (Fr (From Euphorbus, the physician of king Juba, in honour of whom it was named.) An inodorous gumresin, in yellow tears, which have the appearance of being worm-eaten; said to be obtained from several species of Euphorbia, but principally from the Euphorbia officinarum; aculeata nuda multangularis, aculeis germinatis, of Linnæus; it is imported from Ethiopia, Libya, and Mauritania. contains an active resin, and is very seldown employed internally, but, as an ingredient, it enters into many resolvent and discutient plasters.

EUPHRASIA. (Corrupted from Euphrosyne, superouve, from sugpar, joyful; so called because it exhibarates the spirits.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Didynamia. Order,

Angiospermia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of eyebright. This beautiful little plant, Euphrasia officinalis; foliis ovatis, lineatis, urgute dentatis, of Linnæus, has been greatly es-

teemed by the common people, as a remedy for all diseases of the eyes; yet, notwith-standing this, and the encomiums of some medical writers, is now wholly fallen into disuse. It is an ingredient in the British herb-tobacco.

OFFICINALIS. The syste-EUPHRASIA matic name of the eye-bright. See Euphra-

EUSTACHIAN TUBE. Tuba Eustachia-The tube so called was discovered by the great Eustachius. It begins, one in each ear, from the anterior extremity of the tympanum, and runs forwards and inwards in a bony canal, which terminates with the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It then goes on, partly cartilaginous, and partly membranous, gradually becoming larger, and at length ends behind the soft palate. Through this tube the air passes to the tympanuni.

Eustachian valve. See Valvula Eustachii. EUTHYPORIA. (From ευθυς, straight, and

ποριζω, to pass into.) Euthyporos. An extension made in a straight line, to put in

place a fracture, or dislocation.

EVAPORATION. The volatilization of a fluid, by means of heat, with access of air, in order to diminish its fluidity, to obtain any fixed salts it may hold in solution, or to diminish the quantity of a residuum. In this manner sea water is evaporated, and the salt obtained, and decoctions made into extracts.

EVERRICULUM. (From everro, to sweep away.) A sort of spoon, used to clear the bladder from gravel.

EXACERBATION. (From exacerbesco, to become violent.) An increase of febrile symptoms.

Examesis. (From ¿aieso, to remove.) One of the divisions of surgery, adopted by the old surgeons; the term implies the removal of parts.

EXALMA. (From ¿zanamai, to leap out.) Hippocrates applies it to the starting of the

vertebræ out of their places.

Exambloma. (From εξαμέλισκω, to miscarry.) An abortion.

EXAMBLOSIS. An abortion.

Exanastomosis. (From Exanastomom, to relax or open.) The opening of the mouths of vessels, to discharge their contents; also the meeting of the extremities of the veins and arteries.

EXANTHEMA. (From εξανθω, to spring forth, to bud.) Exanthisma. An eruption of the skin. Cullen makes exanthemata an order in the class pyrexie. It ircludes diseases, beginning with fever, and followed by an eruption on the skin.

EXANTHEMATA (The plural of exanthema.) The name of an order of diseases in Cullen's Nosology, which embraces erup-

tive fevers.

EXAN HISMA. See Exanthema.

EXANTHROPIA. (From & without, and

autewnos, a man, i. e. having lost the faculties of a man.) A species of melancholy, where the patient fancies himself some kind

Exanacina. (From ¿zazarlo, to break.) A fr cture.

Example. (From eguige, to lift up.) A

tumour, a swelling. Exarrena. (From ¿aglaw, to suspend.)

An amulet, or charm, hung bound the neck. out of junt.) Exarthroma. Exarthrosis.

A dislocation, or luxation.

EXARTHROMA. See Exarthrema. Exagendosis. See Exarthrema.

EXARTICULATIO. (Fr. m ex, out of, and articulus, a joint.) A luxation. The dislocation of a bone from its socket.

Excipulty. (From excipio, to receive.)

A chymical receiver.

EXCITABILITY. See Excitement. EXCITEMENT. A term introduced into medicine by Dr. Browne. Animals, differ from themselves in their dead state, or from any other inanimate matter, in this property alone; they can be affected by external agents, as well as by certain functions peculiar to themselves in such a manner, that the phenomena peculiar to the ing state can be produced. This proposition extends to every thing that is vital in nature, and therefore applies to vegetables.

The external agents are reducible to heat, diet, and other substances taken into the stomach, blood, the fluids secreted

from the body and air.

The functions of the system itself, producing the same effect, are muscular contraction, sense, or perception, and the energy of the brain in thinking, and in ex-citing passion and emotion. These affect the system in the same manner as the other agents; and they arise both from the other and from themselves.

If the property which distinguishes living from dead matter, or the operation of cither of the two sets of powers be withdrawn, lile ceases. Nothing else than the

presence of these is necessary to life.

The property on which both sets of powers act Dr. Browne names Excitability, and the powers themselves exciting powers. The word body, means both the body simply so called, and also as endued with an intellectual part, a part appropriated to passion and emotion, or a soul: the usual appellation in medical writings is system.

The effects common to all the exciting powers, are sense, motion, mental exer-tion, and passion. Their effects being the same, it must be granted, that the operation

of all their powers is the same.

The effects of the exciting powers acting upon the excitability, Dr. Browne, denominates excitement.

EXCITING CAUSE. Occasional cause.

Procatarctic cause. Remote cause. That which when applied to the body, excites a disease. The exciting, or remote causes of diseases, are either external or internal.

EXCORIATION. (From excorio, to take off the skin.) Exceriatio. An abrasion of the skin.

EXCREMENT. (From excerno, to se-

parate from ) The alvine faces.

EXCRESCENCE. (From excresco, to Εχαιστικώνα (From εξαρθέοω, to put grow from.) Excrescentia. Any protesnatural formation of flesh, on any part of the body, as wens, warts, &c.

EXCRETION. (From excerno, to se-parate from.) Excretio. This term is applied to the separation or secretion of those fluids from the blood of an animal, that are supposed to be useless, as the urine, perspiration, and alvine fæx.

EXFOLIATION (From exfolio, to cast the leat.) Exfoliatio The separation of a dead piece of bone from the living.

EXPOLIATIVUM (From exfolio, to shed the leaf.) A raspatory or instrument for scraping exfoliating portions of bone.

Exischios. (From 3, out of, and 10x107, the ischium.) A luxation of the thigh-bone. (From exes, to come from.) EXITURA.

A running abscess.

Exitus. (From exeo, to come out.) prolapsus, or falling down of the wonib or

EXOCHAS. (From & without, and exa, to have.) Exoche. A tubercle on the outside of the anus.

Exocur. See Exochas.

EXOCYSTE. See Exocystis.

Exocustis. (From efa, without, and xuois, the bladder.) Exocyste. A prolapsus of the inner membrane of the bladder.

EXOMPHALUS. (From εξ, out, and εμφαλος, the navel.) Exomphalos. An umbilical hernia. See Hernia.

Exonchoma. (From et, and oygos, a tumour.) A large prominent tumour.

EXOPHTHALMIA. (From εξ, out, and οφθαλμος, the eye.) A swelling or protrusion of the bulb of the eye, to such a degree that the eyelids cannot cover it. It may be caused by inflammation, when it is termed exophthalmia inflammatoria; from a collection of pus in the globe of the eye, when it is termed the exophthalmia purulenta; or from a congestion of blood within the globe of the eye, exophthalmia sanguinea.

EXOSTOSIS. (From &, and offsor, a bone.) Hyperostosis. A morbid enlarge-ment, or hard tumour of a bone. A genus of disease arranged by Collen in the class locales, and order tumores. The bones most frequently affected with exostosis, are those of the cranium, the lower jaw, sternum, humerus, radius, ulno, bones of the carpus, the femur, and tibia. There is, however, no bone of the body which may

not become the seat of this disease. It is not uncommon to find the bones of the cranium affected with exostosis, in their whole extent. The ossa parietalla sometimes become an inch thick.

The exostosis, however, mostly rises from the surface of the bone, in the form of a hard round tumour, and venerial exostoses, or nodes, are observed to arise chiefly on compact bones; such of these as are only superficially covered with soft parts, as, for instance, the bones of the cranium, and the front surface of the tibia.

EXPECTORANTS. (Expectorantia, sc. medicamenta, from expectoro, to discharge from the breast.) Those medicines which increase the discharge of mucus from the lungs. The different articles referred to this class may be divided into the following orders: 1. Nauseating expectorants, as squills ammoniacum, and garlic, which are to be preferred for the aged and phlegmatic. Stimulating expectorants, as marrubium, which is adapted to the young and irritable, and those easily affected by expectorants. 3. Antispasmodic expectorants, as vesicatories, pediluvium, and watery vapours; these are best calculated for the plethoric and irritable, and those liable to spasmodic affections. 4. Irritating expectorants, as fumes of tobacco and acid vapours. The constitutions to which these are chiefly adapted, are those past the period of youth, and those in whom there are evident marks of torpor, either in the system generally, or in the lungs in particular.

EXPIRATION. (From expire, to breathe.) Expiratio. That part of respiration in which the air is thrust out from

the lungs. Sec Respiration.

EXPRESSED OILS. Such oils as are obtained by pressing the substance containing them, as olives, which give out olive oil, almonds, &c.

EXSUCCATIO. (From ex, out of, and succus, humour.) An ecchymosis, or extravasation of humours, under the integra-

ments.

extensor. (From extendo, to stretch out.) A term given to those muscles whose office it is to extend any part; the

term is in opposition to flexor.

EXTENSOR BREVIS DIGITORUM PEDIS. Extensor brevis of Douglas, Calcano phalangiaien commune of Dumas. A muscle of the toes situated on the foot. It arises fleshy and tendinous from the fore and upper part of the os calcis, and soon forms a fleshy belly, divisible into four portions, which send off an equal number of tendons that pass over the upper part of the foot under the tendons of the extensor longus digitorum pedis, to be inserted into its tendinous expansion. Its office is to extend the toes.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS BRE-

VIOR. Radialis externus brewer of Aminus. Radialis secundus of Winslow. An extensor muscle of the wrist, situated on the fore-arm. It arises tendinous from the external condyle of the humerus, and from the hyament that connects the radius to it, and ruus along the outside of the radius. It is inserted by a long tendon into the upper and back part of the metacarpal bone of the middle finger. It assists in extending and bringing the hand backward.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS LON-GIOR. Radialis externus longior of Albinus. Radialis externus primus of Winslow. An extensor muscle of the carpus, situated on the fore-arm, that acts in conjunction with the former. It arises thin, broad, and fleshy, from the lower part of the external ridge of the os humeri, above its external condyle, and is inserted by a round tendon into the posterior and upper part of the metacarpal bone that sustains the fore-fingers.

EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS. Ulnaris externus of Albinus and Winslow. It arises from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and then receives an origin from the edge of the ulna: its tendon passes in a groove between the styloid process of the ulna factor worted into the inside of the basis of the metacarpal bone of the

little finger.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS. Cum extensore proprio auvicularis of Albinus. Extensor digitorum communis manus of Douglas and Winslow. Extensor digitorum communis, seu digitorum tensor of Cowper, and Epichondylo-eusphalangettien commune of Dunas. A muscle situated on the fore-arm, that extends all the joints of the fingers. It arises from the external protuberance of the humerus: and at the wrist it divides into three flat tendous, which pass under the annular ligament, to be inserted into all the bones of the fore, middle, and ring fingers.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM LONGUS.

See Extensor longus digitorum pedis.

Extensor indicis. See Indicator.

EXTENSOR LONGUS DIGITORUM PEDIS. Extensor longus peroneo tibisus phalangittien commune of Dumas. A nuscle situated on the leg, that extends all the joints of the four small toes. It arises from the upper part of the tibia and fibula, and the interosseous ligament; its tendon passes under the annular ligament, and then divides into five, four of which are inserted into the second and third phalanges of the toes, and the fifth goes to the basis of the metatarsal bone. This last Winslow reckons a distinct muscle, and calls it Peronaus brevis.

EXTENSOR LONGUS POLLICIS PEDIS. See

Extensor proprius pollicis pedis.

EXTENSOR MAGNUS. See Gastroenemius internus.

EXTENSOR MAJOR POLLICIS MANUS. See Extensor secundi internodii.

EXTENSOR MINOR POLLICIS MANUS.

Extensor primi internodii.

EXTENSOR OSSIS METACARPI POL-LICIS MANUS. Abductor longus pollicis manus of Albinus. Extensor primi unternochi of Douglas. Extensor primus pollicis of Winslow. Extensor primi internodii pollicis of Cowper. Cubito-radisus metacarpien du pouce of Dumas. It arises fle by from the middle and posterior part of the ulna, from the posterior part of the middle of the radius, and from the interosseous ligament, and is inserted into the os trapezium, and upper part of the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS PRIMUS. See Exten-

sor primi internodii.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS SECUNDUS. See Ex-

tensor secundi internodii.

EXTENSOR PRIMI INTERNODII. Extensor minor pollicis manus of Albanus. This muscle, and the Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis manus, are called Extensor pollicis primus by Winslow. Extensor secundi internodii by Douglas. Extensor secundi internodii ossis pollicis of Cowper. Cubitosusphalungien du pouce of Dumas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, that extends the first bone of the thamb obliquely outwards. It arises fleshy from the posterior part of the ulnar, and from the interosseous ligament, and is inserted tendinous into the posterior part of the first bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR PROPRIUS POLLICIS PEDIS. Extensor longus of Douglas. Extensor pollicis longus of Winslow and Cowper. Peroneo susphalangien du pouce of Dumas. An exterior muscle of the great toe, struum. It also includes those substances situated on the foot. It arises by an acute, tendinous and fleshy beginning, some way below the head and anterior part of the fibula, along which it runs to near its lower extremity, connected to it by a number of fleshy fibres, which descend obliquely, and form a tendon, which is inserted into the

the great toe.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODH, Extensor majus pollicis manus of Albinus. Extensor pollicis secundus of Winslow. Extensor tertii internodii of Douglas. Extensor internodii ossis pollicis of Cowper. Cubito-susphalangettien du ponce of Dumas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, that extends the last joint of the thumb obliquely backwards. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle part of the ulna, and the interosseous ligament; it then forms a tendon, which runs through a small groove at the inner and back part of the radius, to be inserted into the last bone of combination with oxygen from the armosthe thumb. Its use is to extend the last phere. It is soluble in alkohol, but insoplealanx of the thumb obliquely back- luble in ether. It unites with alumine, and wards.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODII INDICIS PROPULUS Set Indicator.

EXTENSOR TARSI MINOR. See Planta-

EXTENSOR TARSI SURALIS. See Gastroc. nemius internus.

EXTENSOR TERTII INTERNODII MI DIGITI See Abductor minimi mannes.

EXTENSOR TERTH INTERNODII INDICIS. See Prior indicis.

EXTERNUS MALLEI. See Laxator tym-

EXTIRPATION. (From extirpo, to eradicate.) Extirpatio. The complete removal or destruction of any part, either by cutting instruments, or the action of

EXTRACTION. (From extraho, to draw out.) Extractio. The taking extraneous substances out of the body. Thus bullets and splinters are said to be extracted from wounds; stones from the urethra, or bladder.

Surgeons also sometimes apply the term extraction to the removal of tumours out of cavities, as, for instance, to the taking of cartilaginous tumours out of the joints. They seldom speak of extracting any diseased original part of the body; though they do so in one example, viz. the cata-

EXTRACT. (Extractum; from extraho, to draw out.) The generic term extract is used pharmaceutically, in an extensive sense, and includes all those preparations from vegetables which are separable by the agency of various liquids, and afterwards obtained from such solutions, in a solid state, by evaporation of the menwhich are held in solution by the natural juices of fresh plants, as well as those to which some menstruum is added at the time of preparation. Now, such soluble mutters are various, and mostly complicated; so that chymical accuracy is not to be looked for in the application of the posterior part of the first and last joint of term. Chymists, however, have affixed this name to one peculiar modification of vegetable matter, which has been called extractive, or extract, or extractive principle; and, as this forms one constituent part of common extracts, and possesses certain characters, it will be proper to mention such of them as may influence its pharmaceutical relations. The extractive principle has a strong taste, differing in different plants: it is soluble in water, and its solution speedily runs into a state of putrefaction, by which it is destroyed. Repeated evaporations and solutions render it at last insoluble, in consequence of its rif boiled with neutral salts thereof, precipitates them. It precipitates with strong acids, and with the oxyds from solutions of most metallic salts, especially muriate of tim. It readily unites with alkalies, and forms compounds with them, which are soluble in water. No part, however, of this subject has been hitherto sufficiently examined.

In the preparation of all the extracts, the London Pharmacopæis requires that the water be evaporated as speedily as possible, in a broad, shallow dish, by means of a water-bath, until they have acquired a consistence proper for making pills; and, towards the end of the inspissation, that they should be constantly stirred with a wooden rod. These general ruies require minute and accurate attention, more particularly in the immediate evaporation of the solution, whether prcpared by expression or decoction, in the manner as well as the degree of heat by which it is performed, and the promotion of it by changing the surface by constant stirring, when the liquor begins to thicken, and even by directing a strong current of air over its surface, if it can conveniently be done. It is impossible to regulate the temperature over a naked fire, or if it be used, to prevent the extract from burning; the use of a water-bath is, therefore, absolutely necessary, and not to be di-pensed with, and the beauty and precision of extracts so prepared, will demonstrate their superiority.

EXTRACTIVE. See Extract.

EXTRACTUM ACONTIL Extract of aconite. "Take of aconite leaves, fresh, a pound; bruise them in a stone mortar, sprinkling on a little water; then press out the juice, and, without any separation of the sediment, evaporate it to a proper consistence." The dose is from one grain to five grains. For its virtues, see Aconitum.

EXTRACTUM ALOES. Extract of aloes. "Take of extract of spike aloe, powdered, half a pound; boiling water, four pinis." Macerate for three days in a gentle heat, then strain the solution, and set it by, that the dregs may subside. Pour off the clear solution, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. The dose, from v to xv grs. See Aloes.

EXTRACTUM ANTHEMEDIS. Extract of chamomile, formerly called extractum chamoenel. "Take of chamomile flowers, dried, a pound. Water, a gallon." Boil down to four pints, and strain the solution while it is not, then evaporate it to a proper consistence. The dose is x grs. to a scruple. For its virtues, see Chama melum.

EXTRACTUM BELLADONNE. Extract of belladonna. "Trke of deadly night-shade leaves, fresh, a pound." Bruise them in a stone mortar, sprinkling on a little water: then press out the juice, and without any previous separation of the sediment, evapo-

rate it to a proper consistence. The dose is from one to tive grains. For its virtues, see Bella tonna.

EXTRACTUM CINCHONE RESINOSUM. Resinous extract of bark. "Take of lance-leaved cinchona bark, a pound; rectification pints." Macerate for four days, and strain. Distil the tincture in the heat of a water-bath, until the extract has acquired a proper consistence. This is considered by many as much more grateful to the stomach, and, at the same time, producing all the effects of bark in substance, and, by the distillation of it, is intended that the spirit which passes over shall be collected and pre-served. The dose is from ten grains to half a drachin. See Cinchona.

EXTRACTUM COLOCYNTHEDIS. Extract of colocynth. "Take of colocynth pulp, a pound; water, a gallon." Boil down to four pints, and strain the solution while it is hot, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. The dose is from five to thirty grains. For

its virtues, see Colocynthis.

EXTRACTUM COLOCNTHIBUS COMPOSITUM.
Compound extract of colocynth. "Take of colocynth pulp, sliced, six drachms; extract of spike aloe, powdered, an ounce and haif; scammony gum-resin powdered, half an ounce; cardamom-seeds powdered, half an ounce; cardamom-seeds powdered, a drachm; hard soap, three drachms; boiling water, two pints." Macerate the colocynth pulp in the water, for four days, in a gentle heat; strain the solution, and add to it the aloc, scammony, and soap; then, by means of a water-bath, evaporate it to a proper consistence, constantly stirring, and about the end of the inspissation, mix in the cardamom-seeds. The dose, from five to thirty grains.

EXTRACTUM CONTI. Extract of hemlock, formerly called succus cicutæ spissatus. "Take of fresh hemlock, a pound." Bruisc it in a stone mortar, sprinkling on a little water; then press out the juice, and, without any separation of the sediment, evaporate it to a proper consistence. The dose

from five grains to a scruple.

EXTRACTUM ELATERII. Extract of elaterium. "Cut the ripe, wild cucumbers into slices, and pass the juice, very gently expressed, through a very fine hair sieve, into a glass vessel; then set it by for some hours, until the thicker part has subsided. Pour off, and throw away the thinner part, which swims at the top. Dry the thicker part which remains in a gentle heat." The dose from half a grain to three grains. For its virtues, see Cucumis agrestis.

EXTRACTUM GENTIANE, Extract of gentian. "Take of gentian root, sliced, a pound; boiling water, a gallon." Macerate for twenty-four hours, then boil down to four pints: strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a propir consistence. Dose, from ten to thirty grains. See Gentiana.

EXTRACTUM GLYCYRRHIZE. Extract of

liquorice. "Take of liquorice-root, sliced, a pound; water, boiling, a gallon." Macerate for twenty-four hours, then boil down to four pints; strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. Dose, from one drachm to half an ounce. See Glycyrrhiza.

EXTRACTUM HEMATOXYLI. Extract of logwood, formerly called extractum ligni campechensis. "Take of logwood, powdered, a pound; water, boiling, a gallon." Macerate for twenty-four hours, then boil down to four pints; strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. Dose, from ten grains to half a drachm. For its virtues, see Lignum campechense.

EXTRACTUM RUMULI. Extract of hops. "Take of hops, half a pound; water, boiling, a gallon." Boil down to four pints; strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. This extract is said to produce a tonic and sedative power combined. The dose is from five grains to one

scruple. See Lupulus.

EXTRACTUM WYOSCYAMI. Extract of henbane. "Take of tresh henbane leaves, a pound." Bruise them in a stone mortar, sprinkling on a little water; then press out the juice, and, without separating the fæculencies, evaporate it to a proper consistence. Dose, from five to thirty grains. For its virtues, see Hyosciamus.

Extract of ja-EXTRACTUM JALAPÆ. lap. "Take of jalap-root, powdered, a pound; rectified spirit, four pints; water, ten pints." Macerate the jalap-root in the spirit for four days, and pour off the tincture; boil the remaining powder in water, until it be reduced to two pints; then strain the tincture and decoction separately, and let the former be distilled and the latter evaporated, until each begins to grow thick. Lastly, mix the extract with the resin, and reduce it to a proper consistence. Let this extract be kept in a soft state, fit for forming pills, and in a hard one, so that it may be reduced to powder. The dose, from ten to twenty grains. For its virtues, see Jalapium

EXTRACTEM OPIL. Extract of opium, formerly called extractum thebaicum. Opium colatum. "Take of opium, sliced, half a pound; water, three pints." Pour a small quantity of the water upon the opium, and maccrate it for twelve hours, that it nmy become soft; then, adding the remaining water gradually, rob them together until the mixture be complete. Set it by, that the fieculencies may subside; then strain the liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. Dose, from half a grain to five grains.

Extract of PAPAVERIS. EXTRACTUM white poppy. " Take of white poppy capsules, bruised, a pound; water, boiling, a gallon" Macerate for twenty-four hours, rating the light above.

then beil down to four pints; strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. Six grains are about equivalent to one of opium. Dose, from half a grain to five grains. For its virtues, see Papaver album.

EXTRACTUM RHEI. Extract of rhubarb. "Take of rhubarb root, powdered, a pound; proof spirit, a pint; water, seven pints.' Macerate for four days in a gentle heat, then strain, and set it by, that the fæculencies may subside. Pour off the clear liquor, and evaporate to a proper consistence. This extract possesses the purgative properties of the root, and the fibrous and earthy parts are separated; it is, therefore a useful basis for pills, as well as given separately. Dose, from ten to thirty grains. See Rhabarbarum.

EXTRACTUM SARSAPARILLE. Extract of sarsaparilla. "Take of sarsaparilla-root, sliced, a pound; water, boiling, a gallon." Macerate for twenty-four hours, then boil down to four pints; strain the hot liquor, and evaporate it to a proper consistence. In practice this is much used, to render the common decoction of the same root stronger and more efficacious. Dose, from ten grains to a drachm. For its virtues, see Sarsaparilla.

EXTRACTUM SATURNI. See Liquor accetatis plumbi.

EXTRACTUM TARAXACI. Take of dandelion root, tresh and bruised, a pound; water, boiling, a gallon. Macerate for twenty-four hours; boil down to four pints, and strain the hot liquor through a woollen cloth; then evaporate it to a proper consistence. Dose, from ten grams to a drachm. For its virtues, see Taraxacum.

EXTRAVASATION. (From extra, without, and vas, a vessel ) Extravasatio. A term applied by surgeons to fluids, which are out of their proper vessels or receptacles. Thus, when blood is effused on the surface, or in the ventricles of the brain, it is said that there is an extravasation. When blood is poured from the vessels into the cavity of the perstoneum, in wounds of the abdomen, surgeons call this accident extravasation. The urine is also said to be extravasated, when, in consequence of a wound, or of sloughing, or ulceration, it makes its way into the cellular substance, or among the abdominal viscera. When the bile spreads among the convolutions of the bowels, in wounds of the gall bladder, it is also a species of extravasation.

EYE. Ocubes. The parts which constitute the eye are divided into external and internal. The external parts are-1. The eyebrows, or supercilia, which form arches of hair above the orbit, at the lower part of the forehead. Their use is to prevent the sweat falling into the eves, and for mode-

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2. The eyelashes, or cilia, are the short hairs that grow on the margin of the eyelids; they keep external bodies out of the

eyes, and moderate the influx of light.
3. The eyelids, or palpebræ, of which, one is superior or upper, and the other inferior or under; where they join outwardly, it is called the external canthus; inwardly, towards the nose, the internal canthus; they cover and defend the eyes.

The margin of the eyelids, which is car-

tilaginous, is called tarsus.

In the tarsus, and internal surface of the evelids, small glands are situated, called glandulæ Meibomianæ, because Meibomius discovered them; they secrete the oily mucilaginous fluid, which prevents the attrition of the eyes and eyelids, and facilitates their motions.

4. The lachrymal glands, or glandulæ lachrymales, which are placed in the external canthus, or corner of the eyes, in a little

fovea of the os frontis.

From these glands six or more canals issue, which are called lachrymal ducts, or ductus lachrymales, and they open in the internal superficies of the upper eyelids.

5. The lachrymal caruncie, or caruncula lachrymalis, which is situated in the internal

angle, or canthus of the eyelids.

6. Puncta lachrymalia, are two callous orifices or openings, which open in the internal angle of the tarsus of the eyelids; the one in the superior, the other in the infemor eyelid.

7. The lachrymal ducts, or canales lachrymales, are two small canals, which proceed from the lachrymal points into the

lachrymal sac.

8. The lachrymal sac, or saccus lachrymalis, is a membranous sac, which is situated

in the internal canthus of the eye.

9. The nasal duct, or ductus nasalis, is a membranous canal, which goes from the inferior part of the lachrymal sac through the bony canal below, and a little behind, into the cavity of the nose, and opens under the inferior spongy bone into the nostrils.

10. The conjunctive membrane, or membrana conjunctiva, which, from its white colour, is called albuginea, or white of the eye, is a membrane which lines the internal superficies of the eyelids, and covers the whole fore-part of the globe of the eye; it is very vascular, as may be seen in inflam-· mations.

The bulb or globe of the eye is composed of eight membranes, or coverings, chambers, or camera, and three humours,

improperly so called.

The membranes of the globe of the eye are, four in the hinder or posterior part of the bulb, or globe, viz. sclerotica, choroidea, retina, and hyaloidea, or arachnoidea; four in the fore or anterior part of the bulb, viz.

cornea transparens, iris, uvea, and capsule of

the crystalline lens.

The membrana sclerotica, or the sclerotic or horny membrane, which is the outermost, begins from the optic nerve, forms the spherical or globular cavity, and terminates in the circular margin of the transparent cornea.

The membrana choroidea, or choroides, is the middle tunic of the bulb, of a black colour, beginning from the optic nerve, and covering the internal superficies of the sclerotica, to the margin of the transparent cornea. In this place it secedes from the tornea, and deflects transversely and inwardly, and in the middle forms a round perforated foramen. This circular membrane of the choroidea in the anterior surface is called iris, in the posterior superficies, uvea.

The round opening in the centre is called the pupil, or pupilla. This foramen, or round opening, can be dilated, or contracted, by the moving powers of almost invisi-

ble muscular fibres.

The membrana retina, is the innermost tunic, of a white colour, and similar to mucus, being an expansion of the optic nerve, chiefly composed of its medullary part. It covers the inward superficies of the choroides, to the margin of the chrystalline lens, and there terminates,

The chambers, or cameræ, of the eyes

1. Camera anterior, or fore-chamber: is an open space, which is formed anteriorly, by the hollow superficies of the cornea transpirens, and posteriorly, by the superficies

2. Camera posterior, is that small space which remains anteriorly from the tunica uvea, and prpilla, or pupil; posteriorly from the anterior superficies of the chrystalline lens.

Both these chambers are filled with aqueous humour. The humours of the eye, as they are called, are in number three:

1. The aqueous humour, which fills both

chambers.

2. The chrystalline lens, or humour, is a pellucid body, about the size of a lentil, which is included in an exceeding fine membrane, or capsula, and lodged in a concave fovea of the vitreous humour.

3. The vitreous humour is a pellucid, beautifully transparent substance, which fills the whole bulb of the eye behind, the chrystalline lens. Its external superficies is surrounded with a most peilucid membrane, which is called membrana hyaloidea, or arachnoidea. In the anterior part is a fovea, or bed, for the chrystalline lens, in which the lens is seated.

The connection of the bulb is made anteriorly, by means of the conjunctive membrane, with the inner surface of the eyelids, or palpebræ; posteriorly, by the

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adhesion of six muscles of the bulb and op-

tic nerve, with the orbit.

The optic nerve, or nervus opticus, perforates the sclerotica and choroides, and then consitutes the retina, by spreading itself on the whole posterior superficies of

the internal globe of the eye.

The muscles by which the eye is moved in the orbit, are six; much adeps surrounds them, and fills up the cavities in which the eyes are scated. The arteries are the internal orbital, the central, and the ciliary arteries. The veins emp'y themselves into the external jugulars. The nerves are the optic, and branches from the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth pair.

The use of the eye is to form the organ

of vision.

Externally, the globe of the eye and the transparent cornea, are moistened with a most limpid fluid, called lachrymie, or tears; the same pellucid sub-ile fluid exactly fills all the pores of the transparent cornea; for, deprived of this fluid, and being exposed to the air, that coat of the eye becomes dry, shrivelled, and cloudy, impeding the rays of light.

Eye bright. See Euphrasia. Eye brow. Supercilium A laver of short hair, which lies thick upon the low part of the frontal bone, or the superior prominent part of the orbit.

EYE-1.10. Palpebra. The semi-lunar moveable production of the skin which covers the eye when shut. It is distinguished

into upper and under eye-lid.

## F.

F. or ft. In a prescription these letters are abbreviations of fiat, or fiant, let it or them be made; thus f. bolus, let the substance or substances prescribed be made into a bolus.

FABA. See Bean. FABA CRASSA. Telephinm. Fabaria crassula. Anacampseros. The plant which bears these names in various pharmacopæias, is the orphine, Sedum telephium of Linnaus: -foliis planiusculis serraiis, corymbo foliose, caule erecto. It was formerly ranked as an antiphlogistic, but now forgotten.

FABA ÆGYPTIACA. Cyamos Ægyptiacus. Nymphaa Indica. The pontic, or Egyptian bean. The fruit of the nym-phea nelumbo of Linnans, which grows on marshy grounds in Egypt, and some of the neighbouring countries. It is eaten either raw or boiled, and is a tonic and astrin-

gent

FARA FEBRIFUGA. See Faba Indica.

FABA INDICA. Faba sancti iguatii. ba febrifuga. The seeds of a gourd-like fruit, the produce of the Ignatia amara of Linuxus. They are of a roundish figure, very irregular and inneven, about the size of a middling nutmeg, semi-transparent, and of a hard, horny texture. They have a very bitter taste, and no considerable smell. They are said to be used in the Philippine islands in all diseases, acting as a vomit and purgative. Infusions are given in the cure of intermittents, &c.

FABA MAJON. The Turkey or garden

bean. See Bean.

FARA MINOR. Equina frasa. The horsebean. It differs no otherwise from the garden bean than in being less.

FARA PECHIRIM. Faba pichurim. Faba pechuris. An oblong oval, brown, and ponderous seed supposed to be the produce of a Laurus, brought from the Brazils. Their smell is like that of musk, between it and the scent of sassafras. They are exhibited as carminatives in flatulent colics, diarrhœas, and dysenteries.

FANA PURGATRIX. See Ricinus.

FABA SANCTI IGNATII. See Faba indica. FABA SUILIA. See Hyosciamus.

FABARIA. (From faba, a bean, which it sembles.) Orphine. See Faba crassa. resembles.) Orphine. See Fuba crassa. FACE. The lower and anterior part of

the cranium, or skull.

FACIAL. Belonging to the face; as

facial nerve, &c.

Nervus facialis. FACIAL NERVE. Portio dura of the auditory nerve. These nerves are two in number, and are properly the eighth pair: but are commonly called the seventh, being reckoned with the auditory, which is the portio mollis of the seventh pair. They arise from the fourth ventricle of the brain, pass through the petrous portion of the temporal bone to the face, where they form the pes anserious, which supplies the integuments of the face and forehead.

FACIES HIPPOCRATICA. That partic dar disposition of the features which immediately precedes the stroke of death is so called, because it has been so admirably described by Hippocrates.

FACIES RUBRA. See Gutta resacea. FACTITIOUS. A term applied to any thing which is made by art, in opposition to that which is native, or found already made in nature.

Fincultas. The power or FACULTY. ability by which any action is performed.

FÆCES. The plural of fiex. The alvine excretions.

FÆCULA. (Diminutive of fæx.) A substance obtained by brinsing or grinding certain vegetables in water. It is that part which, after a little, falls to the bottom. The fæcula of plants appears to be only a slight alteration of micriage, for it differs from mucilage in no other respect than being insoluble in cold water, in which it falls with wonderful quickness. There are few plants which do not contain fæcula; but the seeds of gramineous and leguminous vegetables, and all tuberose roots contain it most plentifully.

FAX. The alvine excretions are called

1 a ce

FAGARA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzen system. Class,

Tetrandria. Order, Monogynia.

FAGARA MAJOR. (From fagns, the beech, which it resembles) Castana Luzonis. Cubebis. Fagara plevota of Linnaus. A plant found in the Philippine islands. The berries are aromatic, and, according to Avicenna, heating, drying, good for cold, weak stomachs, and astringent to the bowels.

FAGARA OCTANDRA. The systematic

ca. See Tacamahaca.

FAGORYRUM. (From payes, the beech, and ruges, wheat; because its seeds Were supposed to resemble the mast, i. e. fruit of beech.) See Polygonum fagopyrum.

FAGOTRITICUM. See Polygonum fagopy-

rum.

FAGUS. (From φαγω, to eat; its nut being one of the first fruits used by man.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monæcia. Order,

Polyandric.

2. The pharmacopécial name of what is also called Oxya, Balanda, Valanida. The beech-tree. The fruit and interior bark of this tree, Fagus sylvatica; foliis ovatis, obsolete serratis, of Linnaus, are occasionally used medicinally, the former in ob-tinate head-achs, and the latter in the cure of hectic lever. The oil expressed from beechnats is supposed to destroy worms; a child may take two drachms of it right and morning; an adult, an onnee. The poor people in Silesia use this oil instead of butter.

FAGUS CASTANEA. The systematic name of the chesnut-tree. See Castanea,

FAGUS SYLVATICA. The systematic name of the beech-tree. See Fagus.

Fainting. See Syncope.

FAIRBURN WATER. A sulphureous water in the county of Ross, in the north of England.

FALCIFORM PROCESS. (Falciformis; from falx, a scythe, and forma, resemblance.) The falx. A process of the dura mater, that arises from the grista galli, separates the hemispheres of the brain, and

terminates in the tentorium.

FALUELLA. Contorted lint, used for compresses.

Falling sickness. See Epilepsia. Fallopian tube. See Tuba Fallopiana. Fallopian ligament. See Poupart's liga-

FALX. See Falciform process. FAMES CANINA. See Bulimia.

Famigeratissimum emplastrum. (From famigeratus, renowned; from fama, tane, and gero, to bear; so named from its excellence.) A plaster used in intermittent fevers, made of aromatic, irritating substances, and applied to the wrists.

FARFARA. (From farfarus, the white poplar; so called because its leaves resemble those of the white poplar.) See Tussi-

lago.

FARINA. (From far, corn, of which it is made.) Meal, or flour. A term given to the pulverulent and glutinous part of wheat, and other seeds, which is obtained by grinding and sifting. It is highly nutritious, and consists of gluten, starch, and mucilage. See Wheat.

FARINACEA. (From furina, flour.) This term includes all those substances employed as aliment, called cerealia, legu-

mina, and nuces oleosæ.

FARINACEOUS. A term given to all articles of food which contain farina. See Furina.

FARINARIUM. See Alica.

FARREUS. (From far, corn.) Scurfy. An epithet of urine, where it deposits a

branny sediment.

FASCIA. (From fascis, a bundle; because, by means of a band, materials are collected into a bundle.) Ligatio. Ligativa. Alligatura. A bandage, fillet, or roller.

2. The aponeurotic expansions of muscles, which bind parts together, are termed

fascia.

FASCIA LATA. A thick and strong tendinous expansion, sent off from the back, and from the tendons of the glutei and adjacent muscles, to surround the muscles of the thigh. It is the thickest on the outside of the thigh and leg, but towards the inside of both becomes gradually thinner. A little below the trochanter major, it is firmly fixed to the linea aspera; and, farther down, to that part of the head of the tibia that is next the fibula, where it sends off the tendinous expansion along the outside of the leg. It serves to strengthen the action of the muscles, by keeping them firm in their proper places when in action, particularly the tendons that pass over the joints where this membrane is thickest.

FASCIALIS. (Fascialis, sc. musculus.)

See Tensor vaginæ femoris.

Fasciatio. (From fascia, a fillet.) The binding up any diseased or wounded park with bandages.

FASCICULUS. (From fuscis, a bundle.)
A handful.

FAT. Adeps. A concrete oily matter contained in the cellular membrane of animals, of a white or yellowish colour, with little or no smell, nor taste. It differs in all animals in solidity, colour taste, &c. and likewise in the same animal at different ages. In infancy it is white, insipid, and not very solid; in the adult it is firm and yellowish, and in animals of an advanced age, its colour is deeper, its consistence various, and its taste in general stronger. Fat meat is nourishing to those that have strong digestive powers. It is used externally, as a softening remedy, and enters into the composition of ointments and plasters.

FATUITAS. (From fatuus, silly.) Fool-

ishness. A synonim of Amentia.

FAUCES. (Faux, pl. fauces.) Isthmion. Amphibranchia. A cavity behind the tongue, palatine arch, uvula, and tonsils: from which the pharynx and larynx proceed.

FAUFEL. Terra japonica, or catechu.

FAVAGO AUSTRALIS. (From favus, a honey-comb, from its resemblance to a honey-comb.) A species of bastard sponge.

FAVUS. A honey-comb. A species of

achor, or foul ulcer.

FEBRES. An order in the class pyraxie of Cullen, characterized by the presence of pyrexia, without primary or local affection.

FEBRICULA. (Dim. of febris, a fever.)
A term employed to express a slight degree

of symptomatic fever.

FEBRIFUGA. (From febrem fugure, to drive away a fever.) The plant fever-few;

lesser centaury.

FEBRIFUGE. (Febrifuga, from febris, a fever, and fugo, to drive away.) A medicine that possesses the property of abating the violence of any fever.

FEBRIFUGUM CRÆNII. Regulus of anti-

mony.

FERRIFUGUM OLEUM. Febribuge oil. The flowers of antimony, made with salammoniac and antimony sublimed together, and exposed to the air, when they de-

liquesce.

FERRIFUGUS PULVIS. Febrifuge powders. The Germans give this name to the pulvis stypticus Helvetii. In England, a mixture of oculi cancrorum and emetic tartar, in the proportions of half a drachm and two grains, has obtained the same name; in fevers it is given in doses of gr. iii. to iv.

FERRIFUGUS SAL. Regenerated marine salt.

FERRIFUGUS SPIRITUS DOMINI CLUTTON. Mr. Clutton's febrifuge spirit. An imperfect ether, which is sometimes given dituted in water, as a common drink in fevers.

FEBRIS. A fever. A disease characterised by an increase of heat, an accelerated pulse, a foul tongue and an impaired state of the functions of the body.

FEBRIS ALBA. See Chlorosis.

FEBRIS AMPHIMERINA. A quotidian, or remittent fever.

FEBRIS ANGINOSA. The scarlatina angi-

FEBRIS ARBENS. An apthose fever. FEBRIS ARDENS. A burning inflammatory fever.

Februs assones. A tertian fever, with extreme restlessness.

FEBRIS AUTUMNALIS. An antunmal or bilious tever.

FEBRIS BULLOSA. The pemphigus, or vesicular tever,

FEBRIS CACATORIA. An intermittent, with diarrhea.

FEBRIS CATARRHALIS. The catarrhal fe-

ver. FEBRIS CHOLERICA. A fever with diar-

rhœa. FEBRIS CONTINUA. A continued fever. A division of the order febres, in the class pyrexiæ of Cullen. Continued fevers have no intermission, but exacerbations come on twice in one day. The genera of continued fever are: 1. Synocha, or inflammatory fever, known by increased heat; pulse frequent, strong, and hard; urine high coloured; senses not much impaired. See Synocha. 2. Typhus, or putrid-tending fever, which is contagious, and is characterized by moderate heat: quick, weak, and small pulse; senses much impaired, and great prostration of strength. Typhus has four varieties, viz. 1. Typhus petechialis, typhus with petechiæ: 2. Typhus mitior, the nervous fever: 2. Typhus gravior, the putrid fever: 4. Typhus icterodes, the yellow fever. See Tuphus.

FEBRIS ELODES. A fever with continual

and profuse sweating.

FEBRIS EPIALA. A fever with a continual sense of cold.

FEBRIS ENYSIPELATOSA. See Erysipe-las.

FEBRIS EXANTHEMATICA. Fever with cruptions.

FEBRIS FLAVA. The yellow fever.

FEBRIS HECTICA. A genus of disease in the class hyrexia and order febres of Cullen. It is known by exacerbations at noon, but chiefly in the evening, with slight remissions in the morning, after nocturnal sweats; the urine depositing a surfuraceolateritions sediment; appenite good; thirst moderate. Hectic fever is symptomatic of chlorosis, scrophula, phthisis, diseased viscera, &c.

FEBRIS HUNGARICA. A species of ter-

FEBRIS HYDRODES. A fever with profuse sweats. FEBRIS CASTRENSIS. A camp fever, gene-

nerally typhus.

FEBRIS INTERMITTENS. An intermittent fever, or ague. A division of the order febres of Cullen, in the class pyrexie. Intermittent fevers are known by cold, hot, and sweating stages, in succession, attending each paroxysm, and followed by an intermission or remission. There are three genera of intermitting fevers, and several varieties.

- Intermittens quotidiana. A quotidian ague. The paroxysms return in the morning, at an interval of about twenty-four hours.
- 2. Intermittens tertiana. A tertian ague. The paroxysms commonly come on at midday, at an interval of about forty-eight hours.
- 3. Intermittens quartona. A quartan ague. The paroxysms come on in the afternoon, with an interval of about seventy-two hours. The tertian ague is most apt to prevail in the spring, and the quartan in antumn.

Of the quotidian, tertian, and quartan intermittents, there are several varieties and forms; as the double tertian, having a paroxysm every day, with the alternate paroxysms, similar to one another. double tertian, with two paroxysms every other day. The triple tertian, with two paroxysms on one day, and another on the next. The double quartan, with two paroxysms on the first day, none on the secould and third, and two again on the fourth day. The double quartan, with a paroxysm on the first day, another on the second, but none on the third. The triple quartan, with three paroxysms every fourth day. The triple quartan, with a paroxysm every day, every fourth paroxysm being similar.

When these fevers arise in the spring of the year, they are called vernal; and when in the autumn, they are known by the name of autumnal. Intermittents often prove obstinate, and are of long duration, in warm climates: and they not unfrequently resist every mode of cure, so as to become very distressing to the patient; and by the extreme debility which they thereby induce, often give rise to other chronic

complaints.

It seems to be pretty generally acknowledged, that marsh miasma, or the effluvia arising from stagmant water, or marsh ground, when acted upon by heat, is the most frequent exciting cause of this fever. In marshes, the putrefaction of both vegetable and animal matter is always going forward, it is to be presumed; and hence it has been generally conjectured, that vegetable and animal putrefaction imparted a peculiar quality to the watery particles of the effluvia arising from thence.

We are not yet acquainted with all the circumstances, which are requisite to render marsh miasma productive of intermittents; but it may be presumed that a moist atmosphere has a considerable influence in promoting its action. A watery poor diet, great fatigue, long watching, grief, much anxiety, exposure to cold, lying in damp rooms or beds, wearing damp linen, the suppression of some long-accustomed evacuation, or the recession of eruptions, have been ranked among the exciting causes of intermittents; but it is more reasonable to suppose that these circumstances act only by inducing that state of the body, which predisposes to these complaints. By some, it has been imagined that an intermittent fever may be communicated by contagion; but this supposition is by no means consistent with general observa-

One peculiarity of this fever is, its great susceptibility of a renewal from very slight causes, as from the prevalence of an easterly wind, or from the repetition of the original exciting cause. It would appear likewise, that a predisposition is left in the habit, which favours the recurrence of the complaint. In this circumstance, intermittents differ from most other fevers, as it is well known that, after a continued fever has once occurred, and been removed, the person affected is by no means so liable to a fresh attack of the disorder, as one in whom it had never taken place.

We have not yet attained a certain knowledge of the proximate cause of an intermittent fever, but a deranged state of the stomach and prime viæ is that which is

most generally ascribed.

Each paroxysm of an intermittent fever is divided into three different stages, which are called the *cold*, the *hot*, and the *sweating* 

stages or fits.

The cold stage commonces with languor, a sense of debility and sluggishness in motion, frequent yawning and stretching, and an aversion to food. The face and extremities become pale, the features shrink, the bulk of erery external part is diminish. ed, and the skin over the whole body appears constricted, as if cold had been applied to it. At length the patient feels very cold, and universal rigours come on, with pains in the head, back, loins and joints, nausea, and vomiting of bilious matter; the respiration is small, frequent and anxious; the urine is almost colourless; sensibility is greatly impaired; the thoughts are somewhat confused; and the pulse is small, frequent, and often irregular. few instances, drowsiness and stupor have prevailed in so high degree as to resemble coma or apoplexy; but this is by no means

These symptoms abating after a short time, the second stage commences with

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an increase of heat over the whole body, redness of the face, dryness of the skin, thirst, pain in the head, throbbing in the temples, anxiety and restlessness; the respiration is fuller and more free, but still frequent; the tongue is furred, and the pulse has become regular, hard and full. If the attack has been very severe, then perhaps defirium will arise.

When these symptoms have continued for some time, a moisture breaks out on the forehead, and by degrees becomes a sweat, and this, at length, extends over the whole body. As this sweat continues to flow, the heat of the body abates, the thirst ceases, and most of the functions are restored to their ordinary state. This con-

stitutes the third stage.

It must, however, be observed, that in different cases these phenomena, and their mode of succession, may prevail in different degrees, that the series of them may be more or less complete, and that the several stages, in the time they occupy, may be in different proportions to one another.

Such a depression of strength has been known to take place on the attack of an intermittent, as to cut off the patient at once; but an occurrence of this kind is

very incommon.

l'atients are seldom destroyed in intermittents from general inflammation, or from a fulness of the vessels either of the brain or of the thoracic viscera, as happens sometimes in a continued fever; but when they continue for any length of time, they pox fever. are apt to induce other complaints, such as a loss of appetite, flatulency, scirrlus of rash, the liver, dropsical swellings, and general FE debility, which in the end now and then prove fatal. In warm climates, particularly, intermittents are very apt to terminate in this manner, if not speedily removed; and, in some cases, they degenerate into continued fevers. When the paroxysms are of short duration, and leave the intervals quite free, we may expect a speedy recovery; but when they are long, violent, and attended with much anxiety and delirium, the event may be doubtful. Relapses are very common to this fever at the distance even of five or six months, or even a year; autumnal intermittents are more difficult to remove than vernal ones, and quartans more so than the other

Dissections of those who have died of an intermittent, shew a morbid state of many of the viscera of the thorax and abdomen; but the liver, and organs concerned in the formation of bile, as likewise the mysentery, are those which are usually most af-

fected.

FEBRIS LACTEA. Milk fever. FEBRIS LENTA. A slow fever.

FEBRIS LENTICULARIS. A species of petechial fever.

FEBRIS MALIGNA. The malignant fever. FEBRIS MILIARIS. The miliary fever.

FEM

FEBRIS NERVOSA. The measles. FEBRIS NERVOSA. Febris lenta nervosa. The nervous fever. A variety of typhus mittor of Cullen, but by many considered as a distinct disease. It mostly begins with loss of appetite, increased heat and vertigo; to which succeed nausea, vomiting, great languor, and pain in the head, which is variously described, by some like cold water pouring over the top, by others a sense of weight. The pulse, before little increased, now becomes quick, feeble, and tremulous; the tongue is covered with a white crust, and there is great anxiety about the pracordia. Towards the seventh or eighth day, the vertigo is increased, and tinnitus arium, cophosis, delirium, and a dry and tremulous tongue, take place. The disease mostly terminates about the fourteenth or twentieth

FEBRIS NOSOCOMICORUM. The fever of

hospitals.

FEBRIS PALUSTRIS. The marsh fever. FEBRIS PESTILENS. The plague.

FEBRIS PETECHIALIS. Fever with purple spots.

FEBRIS PUTRIDA. See Typhus gravior. FEBRIS SUBATORIA. Scarlet fever. FEBRIS SUBATORIA. Sweating fever.

FEBRIS STNOCHA. See Synocha.

FEBRIS TYPHODES. See Typhus.

Fenris VarioLosa. A variolous or small-

FENRIS URTICARIA. Fever with nettle-

FEBRIS VESICULOSA. See Erysipelas.

FECULA. See Facula. FEL. See Bite.

FEL NATURE. See Aloes.

Fel-wort. So called from its bitter taste like bile. See Gentiana.

FELLICULUS. The gall-bladder.

FELLIFLUA PASSIO. A name given to cholera morbus.

Felon. See Paronychia.

FEMEN. (Quasi ferimen; from fero, to bear; so called because it is the chief support of the body.) The thigh.

FEMORALIS AUTERIA. A continuation of the external iliac along the thigh, from Poupart's ligament to the ham.

FEMORIS OS. See Femur.

FEMUR. Os femoris. The thigh-bone. A long cylindrical bone, situated between the pelvis and tibia. Its upper extremity affords three considerable processes; these are, the head, the trochanter major, and trochanter minor. The head, which forms about two thirds of a sphere, is turned inwards, and is received into the acetabulum of the os innominatum, with which it is articulated by enarthrosis. It is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin at its edges, but which is wanting in its lower internal part, where a round spongy fossa is observable, to which the strong ligament, usually, though improperly, called the round one, is attached. This ligament is about an inch in length, flattish, and of a triangular shape, having its narrow extremity attached to the fossa just described, while its broader end is fixed obliquely to the rough surface near the inner and anterior edge of the acetabulum of the os innominatum, so that it appears shorter internally and anteriorly than it does externally and posteriorly.

The head of the os femoris is supported obliquely, with respect to the rest of the bone, by a smaller part, called the cervex, or neck, which, in the generality of subjects, is about an inch in length. At its basis we observe two oblique ridges, which extend from the trochanter major to the trochanter minor. Of these ridges, the posterior one is the most prominent. Around this neck is attached the capsular ligament of the joint, which likewise adheres to the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and is strengthened anteriorly by many strong ligamentous fibres, which begin from the lower and anterior part of the ilium, and, spreading broader as they descend, adhere to the capsular ligament, and are attached to the anterior oblique ridge at the bottom of the neck of the femur. Posteriorly and externally, from the basis of the neck of the bone, a large unequal protuberance stands out, which is the trochanter major. The upper edge of this process is sharp and pointed posteriorly, but is more obtuse anteriorly. A part of it is rough and un-· equal, for the insertion of the muscles; the rest is smooth, and covered with a thm cartilaginous crust, between which and the tendon of the glutæus maximus that slides over it, a large bursa mucosa is interposed. Anteriorly, at the root of this process, and immediately below the bottom of the neck, is a small process called trochanter minor. Its basis is nearly triangular, having its two upper angles turned towards the head of the femur and the great trochanter, while its lower angle is placed towards the body of the bone. Its summit is rough and rounded. These two processes have gotten the name of trochunters, from the muscles that are inserted into them being the principal instruments of the rotatory motion of the thigh. Immediately below these two processes the body of the bone may be said to begin. It is smooth and convex before, but is made hollow behind by the action of the muscles. In the middle of this posterior concave surface is observed a rough ridge, called linea aspera, which seems to originate from the trochanters, and extending downwards, divides at length into two branches, which terminate in the tuberosities near the condyles. At the upper part of it, blood-vessels pass to the internal substance of the bone, by a hole that runs obliquely upwards.

The lower extremity of the os femoris is larger than the upper one, and somewhat flattened, so as to form two surfaces, of which the anterior one is broad and convex, and the postcrior one narrower and slightly concave. This end of the bone terminates in two large protuberances. called condules, which are united before, so as to form a pulley, but are separated behind by a considerable cavity, in which the crural vessels and nerves are placed secure from the compression to which they would be otherwise exposed in the action of bending the leg. Of these two condyles, the external one is the largest; and when the bone is separated from the rest of the skeleton, and placed perpendicularly, the internal condyle projects less forwards, and descends a arly three-tenths of an inch lower than the external one: but in its natural situation, the bone is placed obliquely, so that both condyles are then nearly on a level with each other. At the side of each condyle, externally, there is a tuberosity, the situation of which is similar to that of the condyles of the os humeri. The two branches of the linea aspera terminate in these tuberosities, which are rough, and serve for attachment of ligaments and muscles.

Fennel. See Faniculum.

Fennel, hog's. See Peucedanum. FENESTRA OVALIS. An oblong or eliptical foramen, between the cavity of the tympanum and the vestibulum of the ear. It is shut by the stapes.

FENESTRA ROTUNDA. A round foramen, leading from the tympanim to the cochlea of the ear. It is covered by a mem-

brane in the fresh subject.

Fenugreek. See Fanugrecum.

FERINE. (Ferinus, sc. morbus, savage or brutal.) A term occasionally applied to any

malignant or noxious disease.

FERMENTATION. Fermentatio. spontaneous commotion in a vegetable substance, by which its properties are totally changed. There are several circumstances required in order that fermentation may proceed: such are, 1 A certain degree of fluidity: thus, dry substances do not ferment at all. 2. A certain degree of heat. 3. The contract of air. Chymists, after Boerhuave, have distinguished three kinds of fermentation: the spirituous, which affords ardent spirit; the acetous, which affords vinegar, or acid; and the putrid fermentation, or putrefaction, which produces volatile alkali. The conditions necessary for spirituous fermentation are, 1. A saccharine mucilage. 2. A degree of fluidity slightly viscid. 3. A degree of heat between 55 and 65 of Fahrenheit. 4. A large mass, in which a rapid commotion may be excited. When these four conditions are united, the spirituous fermentation takes place, and is known by the following characteristic phenomena: 1. An intestine motion takes place. The bulk of the mixture then becomes augmented. 3. The transparency of the fluid is diminished by opake filaments. 4. Heat is generated. 5. The solid parts mixed with the liquor rise and float in consequence of the disengagement of elastic fluid. 6. A large quantity of carbonic acid gas is disengaged by bubbles. All these phenomena gradually cease in pro-portion as the liquor loses its sweet and mild taste, and it becomes brisk, penetrating, and capable of producing intoxication. In this manner wine, beer, cider, &c. are made. All bodies which have undergone the spirituous fermentation are capable of passing on to the acid fermentation; but although it is probable that the acid fermentation never takes place before the body has gone through the spiritous fermentation, yet the duration of the first is frequently so short and imperceptible, that it cannot be ascertained. Besides the bodies which are proper for spirituous fermentation, this class includes all sorts of fecula boiled in water. 'The conditions required for the acid fermentation are, 1. A licat from 20 to 25 degrees of Fahrenheit. 2. A certain degree of liquidity. 3. The presence of atmospheric air. 4. A moderate quantity of fermentable matter. The phenomena which accompany this fermentation, are an intestine motion, and a considerable absorption of air. The transparent liquor becomes turbid, but regains its fimpidity when fermentation is over. fermented liquor now consists, in a great measure, of a peculiar acid, called the acetons acid, or vinegar. Not a vestige of spirit remains, it being entirely decomposed; but the greater the quantity of spirit in the liquor, previous to the fermentation, the greater will be the quantity of true vinegar obtained. See also Putre-

FERMENTUM. (Quasi fervimentum from ferree to work) vest.

Fern, male. See Filix. Fern, female. See Filix femina.

PERRAMENTUM. An instrument made of

FERRIT CARBONAS. Carbonate of iron; formerly called chalybis rubigo preparata and ferri rubigo. " Take of sulphate of iron, eight ounces; subcarbonate of soda, ten ounces; boiling water, a gallon." Dissolve the sulphate of iron and subcarbonate of soda separately, each in four pints of water; then mix the solutions toge her and set it by, that the precipitated powder may subside; then, having poured off the

supernatant liquor, wash the carbonate of iron with hot water, and dry it upon bibulous paper in a gentle heat. It possesses corroborant and stimulating properties, and is exhibited with success in leucorrhaa, ataxia, asthenia, chlorosis, dyspepsia, rachites, &c. &c. Dose from two to ten grains.

FERRI LIMATURA PURIFICATA. Purified steel filings. The-e possess tonic, astringent, and deobstruent virtues, and are calculated to relieve chlorosis and other diseases in which steel is indicated, where crudity in the primæ viæ abounds.

FERRI RUBIGO. See Ferri carbonas.

FERRI SUBCARBONAS. See Ferri carbonas. FERRI SULPHAS. Sulphate of iron; formerly called sal martis, vitriolum martis, vitriolum ferri, and lately ferrum vitriolatum. Green vitriol. "Take of iron, sulphuric acid, of each by weight, eight ounces; water, four pints." Mix together the sulphuric acid and water in a glass vessel, and add thereto the iron; then after the effervescence has ceased, filter the solution through paper, and evaporate it until chrystals form as it cools. Having poured away the water, dry these upon bibulous paper. This is an excellent preparation of iron, and is exhibited, in many diseases, as a styptic, tonic, astringent and anthelmintic. Dose from one grain to five grains.

FERRUM AMMONIATUM. Ammoniated iron; formerly known by the name of flores martiales; flores salis ammoniaci martiales; ens martis; ens veneris Boylei: sal martis muriaticum sublimatum, and lately by the title of ferrum ammoniacale. "Take of carbonate of iron, muriate of ammonia, of each a pound." Mix them intimately, and sublime by immediate exposure to a strong fire: lastly, reduce the sublimed aminoniacal iron to powder. This preparation is astringent and deobstruent, in doses from 3 to 15 grs. or more in the form of bolus or pills, prepared with some gum. It is exhibited in most cases of debility, in chlorosis, asthenia menorrhagia, intermittent fevers, &c. This or some other strong preparation of iron, as the Tinct. ferri muriatis, Mr Cline is wont to recommend in scirrhous affections of the breast.

Tartarized FERRUM TARTARIZATUM. iron. A tartrate of potash and iron; formerly called tartarus chalybeatus; mars solubilis; ferrum potabile. "Take of iron, a pound; supertartrate of potash, powdered, two pounds; water, a pint." Rub them together, and expose them to the air in a broad glass vessel for eight days, then dry the residue in a sand bath, and reduce it to a very fine powder. Add to this powder a pint more water, and expose it for eight days longer, then dry it, and reduce it to a very fine powder. Its virtues are astringent and tonic, and it forms in solution an excellent tonic fomentation to con-

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tusions, lacerations, distortions, &c. Dose from ten grains to half a drachm.

The measles. FERSÆ.

FERULA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxun system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

FERULA AFRICANA GALBANIFERA.

galbanum plant.

FERULA ASSAFETIDA. The systematic name of the assafætida plant. See Assafætida.

FERULA MINOR. Allheal of Esculapius; this plant is said to be detergent.

FERULACCA. The ferula galbanifera.

Fever. See Febris.

See Matricaria. Feverfew

FIBER. (From fiber, extreme, because it resides in the extremities of lakes and rivers.) The beaver. The female beaver. Castor fiber of Linnxus, it has two excretory forncles near the anns, filled with an unctuous substance called castor. Castoreum.

Fibra. An anatomical term FIBRE. for a very simple filament composed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. It is owing to the different arrangements of the fibres that the cellular structure, membranes, muscles, vessels, nerves, and, in short, every part of the body, except the fluids, are fornied.

Fibre muscular. See Muscular fibre. FIBRINE. The coagulable lymph is so

termed by the French.

FIBULA. (Quasi figilala; from figo, to fasten; so named because it joins together the tibia and the muscles.) A long bone of the leg, situated on the outer side of the tibia, and which forms, at its lower end, the outer ankle. Its upper extremity is formed into an irregular head, on the inside of which is a slightly concave articulating surface, which, in the recent subjects, is covered with cartilage, and receives the circular flat surface under the edge of the external cavity of the ubia. This articulation is surrounded by a capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by other strong ligamentous fibres, so as to allow only a small motion backwards and forwards.-Externally, the head of the fibula is rough and protuberant, serving for the attachment of ligaments, and for the insertion of the biceps cruris muscle.-Immediately below it, on its inner side, is a the fig-tree. See Carica, turbercle, from which a part of the gastroc-. nemius internus has its origin. Immediately below this head the body of the bone See Immbricalis. begins. It is of a triangular shape, and appears as if it were slightly twisted at each end, in a different direction. It is likewise a little curved inwards and forwards. This curvature is in part owing to the action of muscles: and in part perhaps to the care-lessness of nurses.—Of the three angles of the bone, that which is turned towards the tibia is the most prominent, and serves for

the attachment of the interosseous ligament, which, in its structure and uses, resembles that of the fore-arm, and, like that, is a little interrupted above and below. The three surfaces of the bone are variously impressed by different muscles. About the middle of the posterior surface is observed a passage for the medullary vessels, slanting downwards. The lower end of the fibula is formed into a spongy, oblong head, externally rough and convex, internally smooth, and covered with a thin cartilage, where it is received by the external triangular depression at the lower end of the tibia. This articulation, which resembles that of its upper extremity, is furnished with a capsular ligament, and farther strengthened by ligamentous fibres, which are stronger and more considerable than those before described. They extend from the tibia to the fibula, in an oblique direction, and are more easily discernible before than behind. Below this the fibula is lengthened out, so as to form a considerable process, called malleolus externus, or the outer ankle. It is smooth, and covered with cartilage on the inside, where it is contiguous to the astragalus, or first bone of the foot. At the lower and inner part of this process there is a spongy cavity, filled with fat; and a little beyond this, posteriorly, is a cartilaginous groove, for the tendons of the peroneus longus and peroneus brevis, which are here bound down by the ligamentous fibres that are extended over them.

The principal uses of this bone seem to be, to afford origin and insertion to muscles, and to contribute to the articulation

of the leg with the foot.

FIGARIA. (From ficus, a fig., so called The herb figwort, or from its likeness.) pile-wort, the ranunculus ficaria of Linnæus.

FIGATIO. (From ficus, a fig.) Tubercles near the anus and pudenda.

FICOIDEA. Ficoides. Resembling fig. A name of the houseleek, which is emollient.

1. A fleshy excrescence about FICUS. the anus, in figure resembling a fig.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polygamia. Order, Dioecia. The fig-tree.

FIGUS CARICA. The systematic name of

Ficus Indica. See Lacca.

FIDICINALES. (Fidicinalis, sc. musculus.)

Figs. See Carica.

Figwort. See Ficaria.

FILAGO. Cud or cotton-weed; an astringent.

FILAMENT. (Filamentum; from filum, a thread.) A term applied in anatomy to a small thread-like portion adhering to any part, and trequently synonymous with fibre. See Fibre.

FILELLUM. (From filum, a thread, because it resembles a string.) The frænum of the penis.

FILETUM. (From filum, a thread; named from its string-like appearance.) The fræ-

num of the tongue.

FILICULA. (Dim. of filix, fern; a small sort of fern; also from filum, a thread, which it resembles.) Common maiden-hair.

See . Idianthum capillus Veneris.

FILIPENDULA. (From filum, a thread, and pendeo, to hang; so named because the numerous bulbs of its roots hang, as it were, by small threads.) Saxifraga rubra. Drop wort. The root of this plant, Spir.ca filipendula; foliis pennatis, foliolis uniformibus serratis, caule herbaceo, floribus corymbosis of Linnæns, possesses adstringent, and it is said lithon riptic virtues. It is seldom used in the practice of the present day.

FILIPENDULA AQUATICA. Water-drop-

FILIUS ANTE PATREM. Any plant whose flower comes out before the leaf, as eolts-

FILIX. (From filum, a thread; so called from its being cut, as it were, in slender portions, like threads.) Pteris. Male po-Blancnon Orrbasii. Lonchitis. lypody, or fern. Polypodium filix mas of Linnæus. The root of this plant has lately been greatly eelebrated for its effects upon the tania osculis superficialibus, or broad tape-worm. Madame Noufer acquired great cclebrity by employing it as a specific. This secret was thought of such importance by some of the principal physicians at Paris, who were deputed to make a complete trial of its efficacy, that it was purchased by the French king, and afterwards pub-lished by his order. The method of cure is the following:-after the patient has been prepared by an emollient glyster, and a supper of panada, with butter and salt, he is directed to take in the morning, while in bed, a dose of two or three draehms of the powdered root of the male fern. The powder must be washed down with a draught of water, and, two hours after, a strong cathartic, composed of calomel and seammony, is to be given, proportioned to the strength of the patient. If this does not operate in due time, it is to be followed by a dose of purging salts, and if the worm be not expelled in a few hours, this process is to be repeated at proper intervals. Of the success of this, or a similar mode of treatment, in cases of tania, there can be no doubt, as many proofs in this country afford sufficient testimony; but whether the fernroot or the strong eathartie is the principal agent in the destruction of the worm, may admit of a question; and the latter opinion, Dr. Woodvile believes, is the more generally adopted by physicians. It appears, however, from some experiments made in respecting fire, but no one as yet is gene-

Germany, that the tænia has, in several instances, been expelled by the repeated exhibition of the root, without the assistance of any purgative.

FILIX ACULEATA. Spear-pointed fern. The

Polypodium aculeatum of Linnaus.

FILIX FÆMINA. The female fern. The plant which is thus called, in the pliarmacopæias, is not the Polypodium filix fæmina, but the Pteris aquilina; frondbins supradecompositis, foliolis pinnatis, pinnis lanceolatis, infimis pinnatifidis, superioribus minoribus of Linnæus. The root is esteemed as an anthefmentic, and is supposed to be as efficacious in the destroying the tapeworm as the root of the male fern.

FILIX FLORIDA. The Osmunda regalis of Linuxus. The flowering fern. Emmena-

gogue.

FILIX MAS. See Filix.

FILTRATION. (Filtratio: from filtrum, a strainer.) A method of rendering fluids clear, by passing them through a porons solid, as the filtering stone, compact elose linen, woollen eloths, or porous paper, which is generally used for this purpose, as a lining to a funnel, or other such vessel. .Filtration is also performed on a principle somewhat different, as by immersing one end of a porous subs ance, as a piece of list, skain of cotton, or slip of thick paper, or other such substance, moistened in its whole length in the fluid, and allowing the other end of it to hang down, over the outside of the vessel. The fluid in this depending part drains out by its own gravity, and is supplied by eapillary attraction from the portion next within the vessel, which is supplied in the same manner from the surface of the fluid, till the whole passes over, unless too deep, the list, &e. appearing to act as syphons.

FILTRUM. A filter, straining or filtring

instrument.

FILUM ARSENICALE. Corrosive sublimate.

FIMBRIÆ. (Quasi finibria; from finis, the extremity.) The extre Fallopian tubes. See Uterus. The extremities of the

Finckle. See Fleniculum

Fine leaved water hemlock. See Faniculum aquaticum.

Finochio. The Italian name of the sweet azorian fennel.

Fir-tree. See Abies.

Fir, balsam of Gilead. See Balsamea.

Fir, Canada. See Balsamum Canadense.

Fir, Norway spruce. See Pinus abies.

Fir, Scotch See Pinus sylvestris.

Fir, silver See Pinus picea.

FIRE. Ignis. A very simple and active element, the principal agent in nature to balance the power and natural effect of attraction. The most useful acceptation of the word fire comprehends heat and light. There have been several theories proposed

rally received. It is therefore, at present, only known by its effects, namely, light, heat, rarefaction. See Caloric and Light.

FIRMISIUM MINERALIUM. Antimony.

Fish-glue. See Ichthyocolla.

FISSURA MAGNA SYLVII The anteterior and middle lobes of the cerebrum on each side are parted by a deep narrow sulcus, which ascends obliquely backwards from the temporal ala of the os sphenoides, to near the middle of the os parietale, and this sulcus is thus called.

FISSURE. Fissura. That species of fracture in which the bone is slit, but not com-

pletely divided.

Fistic nut. See Pistachio nut.

FISTULA. (Quasi fusula; from fundo, to pour out; or from its similarity to a pipe, or reed.) Eligii morbus. A term in surgery, applied to a long and sinuous ulcer that has a narrow opening, and which sometimes leads to a larger cavity; and has no disposition to heal. No technical term has been more misapplied; and no mis-interterpretation of a word has had worse influence in practice than this. Many simple healthy abscesses, with small openings, have too often been called fistulous; and, the treatment pursued has in reality at last rendered them so, and been the only reason of their not having healed.

FISTULARIA. (From fistula, a pipe; so called because its stalk is hollow.) A name

for stavesacre.

Five-leaved grass. See Fentaphyllum.

Fixed air. See Carbonic acid.

FIXED BODIES. Chymists give this name to those substances, which cannot be caused to pass by a strong rarefaction from the liquid state to that of an elastic fluid.

Flag, sweet See Calamus aromaticus. Flag, yellow water. See Iris palustris.

FLAMMULA. (Dim. of flamma, a fire, named from the burning pungency of its taste.) Surrecta alba. Small water crowfoot, or spear-wort. The roots and leaves of this common plant, Ranunculus flammula; foliis ovatis lanceolatis, petiolatis, caule declinate of Linnaus; taste very acrid and hot, and, when taken in a small quantity, produce vomiting, spasms of the stomach, and delirium. Applied externally, they vesicate the skin. The best antidote, after clearing the stomach, is cold water acidulated with lemon-juice, and then mucilaginous drinks.

FLAMMULA JOVIS. Flammula jovis, so called from the burning pungency of its taste.) Upright virgin's bower. Clematis recta; foliis pinnatis, foliolis ovato lunceola. tis integerrimis, caule erecto, floribus pentapetalis tetrapetalisque of Linnæus. praises have been bestowed upon the virtue which the leaves of this plant are said to possess, when exhibited internally, as an antivenereal, by foreign physicians, than its trials in this country can justify. The

powdered leaves are sometimes applied ex" ternally to ulcers, as an escharotic.

FLATULENT. Windy.

Flax-leaved daphne. See Thymclea. Flax, purging. See Linun Catharticum. Flax, spurge. See Thymetea.

Flea wort. See Psyllium.
FLEMEN. (From flecto, to incline downwards.) Flegmen. A tumour about the ancles.

FLEXOR. The name of several muscles. whose office it is to bend parts into which they are inserted.

Flexor accessorius digitorum fiedis. See

Flexor longus digitorum pedts.

FLEXOR BREVIS DIGITORUM PE-DIS, PERFORATUS, SUBLIMIS. Flexor brevis digitorum pedis perforatus of Albinus. Flexor brevis of Douglas. Flexor digitorum brevis, sive perforatus pedis of Winslow. Perforatus seu flexor secundi internodii digitorum pedis of Cowper, and calcano sus phalangettien commun. of Dumas. A flexor muscle of the toes, situated on the foot. It arises by a narrow, tendinous, and fleshy beginning, from the inferior pro-tuberance of the os calcis. It likewise derives many of its fleshy fibres from the adjacent aponeurosis, and soon forms a thick belly, which divides into four portions. Each of these portions terminates in a flat tendon, the fibres of which decussate, to afford a passage to a tendon of the long flexor, and afterwards re-aniting, are inserted into the second phalanx of each of the four lesser toes. This muscle serves to bend the second joint of the toes.

FLEXOR BREVIS MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. Parathenar minor of Winslow. This little muscle is situated along the inferior surface and outer edge of the metatarsal bone of the little toe. It arises tendinous from the basis of that bone, and from the ligaments that connect it to the os cuboides. It soon becomes fleshy, and adheres almost the whole length of the metatarsal bone, at the anterior extremity of which it forms a small tendon, that is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe. Its use is to bend the little toe.

FLEXOR BREVIS POLLICIS MANUS. Flexor secundi internodii of Douglas. Thenar of Winslow. Flexor primi et secundi ossis pollicis of Cowper, and Carpophalungi-uin du pouce of Dumas. This muscle is divided into two portions by the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. The outermost portion arises tendinous from the anterior part of the os trapezoides and internal annular ligament. The second, or innermost, and thickest portion, arises from the same bone, and likewise from the os magnum, and os cuneiforme. Both these portions are inserted tendinous into the sesamoid bones of the thumb. The use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the thumb.

FLEXOR BREVIS POLLICIS

DIS. Flexor brevis of Douglas. Flexor brevis pollicis of Cowper, and Tarso phalangien du pouce of Dumas. A muscle of the great toe, that bends the first joint of the great toe. It is situated upon the metatarsal bone of the great toe, arises tendinous from the under and anterior part of the os calcis, and from the under part of the os cuneiforme externum. It soon becomes fleshy, and divisible into two portions, which do not separate from each other till they have reached the anterior extremity of the metatarsal bone of the great toe, where they become tendinous, and then the innermost portion unites with the tendon of the abductor, and the outermost with that of the abductor pollicis. They adhere to the external os sesamoideum, and are finally inserted into the root of the first joint of the great toe. These two portions, by their separation, form a groove, in which passes the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis.

FLEXOR CARPI RADIALIS. Radiahis internus of Albinus and Winslow, and Epitrochlo-metacarpien of Dumas. This is a long thin muscle, situated obliquely at the inner and anterior part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the prona-It arises tendinous from the intor teres. ner condyle of the os humeri, and, by many fleshy fibres, from the adjacent tendinous fascia. It descends along the inferior edge of the pronator teres, and terminates in a long, flat, and thin tendon, which afterwards becomes narrower and thicker, and, after passing under the internal annular ligament, in a groove distinct from the other tendons of the wrist, it spreads wider again, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the metacarpal bone that sustains the fore-finger. It serves to bend the hand, and its oblique direction may likewise enable it to assist in its pronation.

FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS. ris internus of Winslow and Albinus. trochli cubito-carpien of Dumas. A muscle situated on the cubit or fore-arm, that assists the former in bending the arm. It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the as humeri, and, by a small fleshy origin, from the anterior edge of the olecranon. Between these two portions, we find the ulnar nerve passing to the fore-arm. Some of its fibres arise likewise from the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the fore-arm. In its descent, it soon becomes tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has reached the lower extremity of the ulna, where i's tendon spreads a little, and, after sending off a few fibres to the external and internal and annular ligaments, is inserted into the os pisiforme.

Flexor digitorum longus, sive perforans pedis, and perforans sen flexor tertii internodii digitorum pedis of Cowper, and Tibio phalangettien of Dumas. A flexer muscle of the toes, situated along the posterior part and muer side of the leg. It arises fleshy from the back part of the tibia, and, after running down to the internal ankle, its tendon passes under a kind of annular ligament, and then through a smuosity at the inside of the os calcis. Soon after this it receives a small tendou from the flexor longus pollicis pedis, and about the middle of the foot it divides into four tendons, which pass through the shits of the flexor brevis digitorum pedis, and are inserted into the upper p rt of the last bone of all the lesser toes. About the middle of the foot, this muscle unites with a fleshy portion, which, from the name of its first describer, has been usually called massa carnea Jacobi Sylvii: it is also termed Flexor accessorius digitorum pedis. This appendage arises by a thin fleshy origin, from most part of the sinuosity of the es calcis, and likewise by a thin tendinous beginning from the anterior part of the external tubercle of that bone; it soon becomes all fleshy, and unites to the long flexor just before it divides into its four tendons. The use of this muscle is to bend the last joint of the toes.

FLEXOR LONGUS POLLICIS MANUS. Flexor longus politicis of Albinus, Flexor tertui internodii of Douglas. Flexor tertii internodii sive longissimus pollicis of Cowper, and radio-phalangettien du pouce of Dumas. This muscle is praced at the side of the flexor longus digitorum pedis, profundus, perforans, and is covered by the extensores carpi radiales. It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the radius, immediately below the insertion of the biceps, and is continued down along the oblique ridge, which serves for the insertion of the supinator brevis, as far as the pronator quadratus. Some of its fibres spring likewise from the neighbouring edge of the interosseous ligament. Its tendon passes under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, and after running along the inner surface of the first bone of the thumb, between the two portions of the flexor brevis pollicis, goes to be inserted into the last joint of the thumb, being bound down in its way by the ligamentous expansion that is spread over the second bone. In some subjects we find a tendinous portion arising from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and forming a fleshy slip that commonly terminates near the upper part of the ori-gin of this muscle from the radius. The use of this muscle is to bend the last joint of the thumb.

FLEXOR LONGES POLLICIS PEDIS. FLEXOR LONGUS DIGITORUM PE- This muscle is situated along the pos-DIS, PROFUNDUS, PERFORANS Per- terior part of the leg. It arises tendi-Perforans seu flexor profundus of Douglas, nous and fleshy a little below the head of the fibula, and its fibres continue to adhere to that bone almost to its extremity. little above the heel it terminates in a round tendon, which, af er passing is a groove formed at the posterior edge of the astragalus, a d internal and lateral part of the os calcis, n which it is secured by an annular ligament, goes to be inserted into the last bone of the great toe, which it serves to bend.

FLEXOR OSSIS METACARPI POL-LICIS: Seu opponens pollicis of Innes. Opponens pollicis manus of Albinus. Flexor primi internodii of Douglas. Antithenar sive semi-interesseus pollicis of Winslow, and carpo-phalangien du pouce of Dumas. This muscle is situated under the abductor brevis pollicis, which it resembles in its shape. It arises tendmous and fleshy from the os scaphoides, and from the anterior and inner part of the internal annular ligament. is inserted tendinous and fleshy into the under and anterior part of the first bone of the thumb. It serves to turn the first bone of the thumb upon its axis, and at the same time to bring it inwards, opposite to the other fingers.

FLEXOR PARVUS MINIMI DIGITI. Abductor minimi digiti, Hypothenar Riolant of Douglas. Hypothenar minimi digiti of Winslow. and second-carpo phalangien du petit doigt of Dumas. situation of this muscle is along the inner surface of the metacarpal bone of the little finger. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the hook-like process of the unciform bone, and likewise from the anterior surface of the adjacent part of the annular ligament. It terminates in a flat tendon, which is connected with that of the abductor minimi digiti, and inserted into the inner and anterior part of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger. It serves to bend the little finger, and likewise to assist the abductor.

FLEXOR **PROFUNDUS** PERFO. RANS. Profundus of Albinus. rans of Douglas. Perforans vulgo profundus of Winslow. Flexor tertii internochii digitorum manus, vel perforatus manus of Cowper, and cubito-phalangettien commun. of Dumas. This muscle is situated on the fore-arm, immediately under the perforatus, which it greatly resembles in its shape. It arises fleshy from the external side, and upper part of the ulna, for some way downwards, and from a large portion of the interosseous ligament. It splits into four tendons a little before it passes under the annular ligament of the wrist, and these pass through the slits in the tendons of the flexor sublimis, to be inserted into the fore and upper part of the third or last bone of all the four fingers, the joint of which they bend.

FLEXOR SUBLIMIS PERFORATUS. This muscle, which is the perforatus of fluat of alumin, fluat of ammonia, &c.

Cowper, Douglas, and Winslow, is by Albinus and others named sublimis. has gotten the name of perforatus from its tendons being perforated by those of another flexor muscle of the finger, called the They who give it the appellation of sublimis, consider its situation with respect to the latter, and which, instead of perforans, they name perfundus. It is a long muscle, situated most commonly at the anterior and inner part of the forearm, between the palmaris longus and the flexor carpi ulnaris; but, in some subjects, we find it placed under the former of these muscles, between the flexor carpi ulnaris and the flexor carpi radialis. It arises. tendinous and fleshy, from the inner condyle of the os humeri, from the inner edge of the coronoid process of the ulna, and from the upper and fore part of the radius. down to near the insertion of the pronator teres. A little below the middle of the fore-arm, its fleshy belly divides into four portions, which degenerate into as many round tendons, that pass all together under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, after which they separate from each other. become thinner and flatter, and running along the palm of the hand, under the aponeurosis palmaris, are inserted into the upper part of the second bone of each finger. Previous to this insertion, however, the fibres of each tendon decussate near the extremity of the first bone, so as to afford a passage to a tendon of the perforans. Of these four tendons, that of the middle finger is the largest, that of the fore-finger the next in size, and that of the little-finger the smallest. The use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the fingers.

Flexor tertii internodii. See flexor lon-

gus pollicis manus.

FLORES BENZOES. See Benzoic acid. FLORES MARTIALES. See Ferrum ammoniatum.

FLORES SALIS AMMONIACI. See Carbonas ammoniæ.

FLORES SULPHURIS. See Sulphur.

FLORES SULPHURIS LOTI. limed sulphur is boiled and washed in water, it forms the flores sulphuris loti of the pharmacopæias. Analogous to this preparation is the sulphur pracipitatum; they possess eccoprotic, diaphoretic, and antipsorical virtues, and are administered in obstipation, where there are piles, colica pictonum, worm cases, to diminish salivations,

FLOWERS. A term formerly employed by chymists to the fine parts which are sublimated from certain bodies, as the flowers of benjamin, sulphur, zinc, &c.

Flower-de-luce. See Iris nostras Flowers of Benjamin. See Benzoic acid. FLUAT. A all formed by the fluoric acid, combined with different bases: thus,

FLUCTUATION. A term used by surgeons, to express the undulations of a fluid; thus, when pus is formed in an abscess, or when water accumulates in the abdomen, if the abscess or abdomen be lightly pressed with the fingers, the motion of fluctuation may be distinctly felt.

Fluellin. See Elatine.

FLUID. A fluid is that, the constituent principles of which so little attract cach other, that, when poured out, it drops guttatin, and adapts itself, in every respect, to the form of the vessel contain-

FLUIDS OF THE BODY. This term is often applied to the blood, and other humours of which the body is composed. The drying of any part of the human body demonstratest that by far the greater part consists of fluid. The quantity of fluid in a man of one hundred and sixty pounds weight, is estimated at one hundred and thirty-five pounds. The fluids of the human body are divided into, 1. Crude, or those which have not yet entirely put on the animal nature, as the cliyme and chyle. 2. Sanguineous; to this is referred the blood, or the cruor of the blood. 3. Lymphatic, which are those of the lymphatic vessels, and the nutritious jelly. 4. Secreted; to this head are referred all those separated from the blood, which are very numerous. 5. Excrementitious, which are climinated from the body, as the alvine fæces, urine, cutaneous and pulmonary perspirable matter.

The secreted humours are divided into, 1. Lacteal, which are white; as the milk, juice of the prostate and thymus glands 2. Aqueous, as the aqueous humour of the eye. 3. Mucous, as the mucus of the nostrils and primæ viæ. 4. Albuminous, as the serum of the blood. 5. Oleous, as the oil of the adipose membrane. 6. Bilious, as the bile and wax of the ears.

The fluids of the human body are also divided from their motion into, 1. Circulating, which continually circulate in the vessels. 2. Commorant, which circulate with a slow motion, as the oil of the adipose membrane and male semen. 3. Stagnant, which remain for a certain time in any receptacle, as cystic bile, urine, and the alvine faces.

FLUOR ALBUS. The Leucorrhaa.

FLUOR SPAR. Vitreous spar. Sparry flour. Derbyshire spar A species of salt which abounds in nature, formed by the combination of the fluoric acid with lime. It is called spar, because it has the sparry form and fracture; fluor, because it nelts very readily; and vitreous, because it has the appearance of glass, and may be fused into glass of no contemptible appearance.

FLUORIC ACID. The acidifiable base of fluoric acid is unknown; for no experi-

ments have yet been made by which it can be exhibited. It is merely from general inference, that we may conjecture it to consist of a simple acidifiable basis united to

xygen.

This acid is to be obtained by putting one part of finely pulverized fluate of lime into a leaden or tin retort, and pouring upon it two parts and a half of sulphure acid. Lute the retort to a receiver of the same metal, containing one part of water, and apply a gentle heat. The fluoric acid gas, disengaged, will be absorbed by the water, and form liquid fluoric acid, which must be kept in well closed leaden or tin bottles, or phials, coated within with wax or varnish.

The distinguishing property of fluoric acid is, its power of dissolving and volatilizing silex. Its odour resembles muriatic acid. On being exposed to a moist atmospheric air, it emits white fumes. Its action upon all the inflammable substances is very teeble; it does not afford oxygen to them. It has no action upon most of the metals, but it dissolves many of their oxyds.

Fluoric acid, united to different bases, forms saline compounds called FLUATS.

FLUORIC ACID GAS. The most remarkable property of this gas is, its power of dissolving silex, and keeping it suspended in the gazeous state; it therefore dissolves glass, crystals, and various precious stones. It is heavier than atmospheric air. It does not maintain combustion, nor can animals breathe it. It is absorbed by water, and forms with it liquid fluoric acid. It has a penetrating odour, approaching nearly to that of muriatic acid gas. It corrodes animal and vegetable matters. Light has no effect upon it. It emits white fumes, in contact with moist atmospheric air. It is very sour, and therefore reddens blue vegetable colours. It precipitates lime-water. With ammonia it unites and forms a concrete body. It has no action upon platina, gold, silver mercury, tin, lead, antimony, cobalt, nickel, and bismuth; but it attacks iron, arsenic, and manganese.

Method of obtaining Fluoric Acid Gas.

1. Fluoric acid gas may be obtained by decomposing fluate of lime (Derbyshire spar) by means of sulphuric acid.

For that purpose, put one part of powdered fluate of lime into a leaden or tin retort, and pour over it two or three parts of concentrated sulphuric acid. A violent action takes place instantly, and fluoric acid gas is extricated, which must be colected over mercury, either in a leaden or tin vessel, or in a glass receiver, covered within with a thick coat of varnish and wax. When no more gas is produced spontaneously, the action of the acid must be assisted by a gentle heat.

Fluate of lime consists of fluoric acid, united to lime; on adding suphuric acid, in the above process a decomposition takes place. The sulphuric acid having a greater attraction for the lime than the fluoric acid, unites to it and forms sulphate of lime, disengaging at the same time the fluoric acid, which takes the gazeous state at the instant of its extrication, and appears under the form of fluoric acid gas.

2. Fluoric acid gas may likewise he obtained from liquid fluoric acid, by heat-

Flux. This word is mostly employed

for dusenteria sauguinea.

FLUXION. A term mostly applied by chymists, to signify the change of metals, or other bodies, from the solid into the fluid state, by the application of heat. See *Fusion*.

Fly, Spanish. See Cantharis.

FOCILE MAJUS. The ulna and the radius are occasionally denominated by the barbarous appellations of focile majus and minus; the tibia and fibula in the leg are also so called.

Focus. A lobe of the liver.

FODINA. (From fodho, to dig.) A quarry. The labyrinth of the ear.

FENICULATUM LIGNUM. A name for

sassafras.

FCENICULUM. (Quasi fanum oculorum, the hay or herb good for the sight; so called because it is thought good for the eyes.) Fennel.

Faniculum aquaticum. Water fennel. Fine-leaved water hemlock. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacoposias is the *Phellandrium aquaticum*; foliorum ramificationibus divaricatis of Linnaus. It possesses vertiginous and poisonous qualities, which are best counteracted by acids, after clearing the primavia. The seeds are recommended by some, in conjunction with Peruvian bark, in the cure of pulmonary phthisis.

FENICULUM ALPINUM. The herb spig-

nel.

FENICULUM ANNUUM. Royal cummin. FEENICULUM DULCE. Common fennel. Anethum faniculum, fructibus ovatis of Linnaus. The seeds and roots of this indigenous plant are directed by the colleges of London and Edinburgh. The seeds have an aromatic smell, and a warm sweetish taste, and contain a large proportion of essential oil. They are stomachic and carminative. The root has a sweet taste, but very little aromatic warmth, and is said to be pectoral and diuretic

FENICULUM MARINUM. Samphire.
FENICULUM ORIENTALE. Cuminum.
FENICULUM PORCINUM. See Peuceda-

num.

FENICULUM SINENSE, Aniseed. FENICULUM SYLVESTRE, Bastard spigFENICULIM TORTUOSUM. French hart-

FENICULUM VULGARE, Faniculum germanicum. Marathrum. Common fennel, or fenckel. A veriety of the Anethum faniculum. See Faniculum dulce.

FINUM CAMELORUM. See Juncus odo-

atus.

FENUM GRACUM. (Fanum, hay, and græcus, belonging to Grecce; because, in Greece, it grew in the meadows, like hay.) Buceras. Egoceras. Fenugreek. Trigonella fenum gracum of Linnæus, leguminbus sessilibus strictis erectiusculis subfulcatis acuminatis, caude erecto. A native of Montpelier. The seeds are brought to us from the southern parts of France and Germany; they have a strong disagreeable smell, and an unctuous farmaceous taste, accompanied with a slight bitterness. They are esteemed as assisting the formation of pus, in inflammatory tumours; and the meal, with that intention, is made into a poultice with milk.

FIGHTLE STATES. Wild fenugreek, FIGHTLE LINE. (From fates, to become putrid.) An encysted abscess, or foul ul-

cer.

FŒTUS. (From feo, to bring forth, according to Vossius.) Epicyema. Epigonion. The child enclosed in the uterus of its mother, is called a foctus from the fifth month after pregnancy until the time of its birth. The internal parts peculiar to the fœtus, are the thymus gland, canalis venosus, canalis arteriosus, foramen ovale, and the membrana pupillaris. Besides these pe-culiarities, there are other circumstances in which the fœtus differs from the adult. The lungs are black and collapsed, and sink in water; the liver is very large; all the glands, especially the thymus and suprarenal, and the verm form process of the cæcum, are also considerably larger in proportion. The teeth of the fætus are hid within their sockets; the great intestines contain a substance called meconium; the membrana tympani is covered with a kind of mucous membrane, and the bones in many places are cartilaginous.

FOLIATA TERRA. (From its resemblance to folium, a leaf.) Sulphur, also the acetas

potassæ.

FOLIUM ORIENTALE. See Senna.

FOLLICLE. Folliculus; dim. of folis,

a bag.) See Folliculose gland.

FÖLLICULOSE GLAND. Follicle. One of the most simple species of gland, consisting merely of a hollow vascular membrane or follicle, and an excretory duct; such are the muciparous glands, the sebaceous, &c.

FOLLICULUS FELLIS. The gall-blad-

der.

FOMENTATION. Fomentatio. A sort of partial bathing, by applying hot flannels to any part, dipped in medicated

decoctions, whereby steams are communicated to the diseased parts, their vessels are relaxed, and their morbid action sometimes removed.

FOMES VENTRICULI. Hypochondriacism.

FOMITES. A term mostly applied as synonymous with contagion

FONS PULSATILIS. See Fontanella.

FONTANELLA. (Dim. of fons, a foun-Fons pulsatilis. The parietal bones and the frontal bones do not eoalesce until the third year after birth, so that, before this period, there is an obvious interstice, commonly ealled mould, and scientifically the fontanel, or fons pulsatilis. There is also a lesser space, occasionally, between the occipital and parietal bones, termed the posterior fontancl. These spaces between the bones are filled up by the dura mater and the external integuments, so that during birth, the size of the head may be lessened: for, at that time, the bones of the head, upon the superior part, are not only pressed nearer to each other, but they frequently lap over one another, in order to diminish the size during the passage of the head through the pelvis.

FONTANELLA ANTERIOR. Sce Fonta-

nella.

FINTANELLA POSTERIOR. See Fonta-

FONTICULUS. (Dim. of fons, an issuc.) An artificial ulcer formed in any part, and kept discharging by introducing daily a pea, covered with any digestive ointment

FORAMEN. (From foro, to pierce.) A

little opening.

FORAMEN CÆCUM. A single opeuing in the basis of the cranium between the ethmord and the frontal bone, that gives exit to a small vein.

LACERUM FORAMEN IN BASII

See Foramina lacera.

LACERUM FORAMEN ORBITALE SUPERIUS. A large opening between the greater and lesser wing of the parietal bone through which the third, fourth, first branch of the fifth and the sixth pair of nerves, and the opthalmia artery pass.

FORAMEN OPTICUM. The hole trans-

mitting the optic nerve

FORTMEN OVALE. The opening between the two aurieles of the heart of the feetus. See also Innominatum os.

FORTMEN OF WINSLOW. An opening in

the omentum. See Omentum.

LACERA. FORAMINA A pair of foramina in the basis of the cranium, through which the internal jugular veins and the eighth pair of accessory nerves

FORAMINULUM OS. The ehmoid bone.

FORCEPS. (Quasi ferriceps, as being iron with which we seize any thing ligt, from f rrum, iron, and capio, to take.)

Pincers. A surgical instrument with which extraneous bodies or other substances are extracted. Also an instrument occasionally used by men midwives to bring the head of the fœtus through the pelvis.

Foreskin. See Prapuce.

FORMIAT. Formias. A salt produced by the union of the formie acid with different bases; thus, formiat of alumin, for-

miat of ammonia, &c.

FORMICA. (Quod ferat micas, because of his diligence in collecting small partieles of provision together.) 1. The ant, or pismire. This industrious little insect, Formica rufa of Linnæus, contains an acid juice and gross oil, which were supposed to possess aphrodisiae virtues. The erysalides of this animal are said to be diuretic and earminative, and by some recommended in the cure of dropsy

2. The name of a black wart with a broad base, and eleft superficies, because the pain attending it resembles the biting

of an ant.

3. A varieose tumour on the anus and glans penis.

FORMICA MILIARIS. Any herpetic erup-

FORMIC Acidum formicum. ACID. The acid of ants was known to Tragus, Bauhin, Fisher, Etmuller, Hoffman, and many others. It is obtained chiefly from the red ant, Formica rufu of Linnaus, by distilling them in a retort, and by washing them in boiling water. When rectified, and rather concentrated, it has a penetrating smell, and is corrosive; and its taste is so agreeable, when greatly diluted with water, that it has been proposed to be used instead of vinegar,

The herpes exedens. FORMIX.

(Dim. of forma, a form.) FORMULA. A little form of prescription, such as physicians direct in extemporaneous practice, in distinction from the greater forms in pharmaeopæias, &e.

FORNAX. Furnus. A furnace.

mieal instrument. See Furnace.

FORNIX. (Fornix, an areb or vault.) A part of the corpus callosum in the brain is so ealled, because, if viewed in a particular direction, it has some resemblance to the arch of an ancient vault. It is the medullary body, composed of two anterior and two posterior eritra, situated at the bottom and inside of the lateral ventriele, over the third ventricle, and below the septum lucidum.

A weak nitrous acid. FORTIS AQUA.

FOSSA. (From fodio, to dig.) A little depression or sinus. The pudendum muliebre.

Fossa AMYNTE. A double-headed roller for the face.

Fossa MAGNA. The great groove of the ear, the pudendum muliebre.

Fossa Navicularis. The cavity at the Uv.

U U -

U U -

entrance of the pudendum muliebre: also

the great groove of the ear.

Fossa ovalis. The depression in the right auricle of the human heart, which in the feetus opened into the other auricie, forming the foramen ovale.

The fossa of the FOSSA PITUITARIA. sella turcica of the sphanoid bone.

FOSSIL. (Fossilis, from fodio, to dig.) Any thing dug out of the earth,
Fossilus. The bone of the leg.

FOSTITS. The bone of the R.S. FOVEA. (From fodio, to dig.) A liver procession. The pudendum muliebre, A little depression. partial sweating-bath.

Fox-glove. See Digitalis.

The seeds of FOX-GLOVE, EASTERN. this plant, Sesamum orientale of Linuxus, are in much esteem in South Carolina, where they are called oily grain, they are made into soups and puddings after the manner of rice. Toasted over the fire, they are mixed with other ingredients, and stewed into a delicious food. The fresh seed affords a considerable quantity of a warm pungent oil, otherwise not unpalatable. In a year or two the pungency leaves it, when the oil is used for sallad, &c. The seed of the Sesamum indicum arc used in the same manner

FRACTURE. (Fractura; from frango, break ) Categma. Cassis. Agme. A Fracture is a solution of a bone into two or more fragments. A simple fracture is when the bone only is div ded. A compound fracture is a division of the bone, with a laceration of the integuments, the bone mostly protruding. A fracture is also termed transverse, oblique, &c. accord-

ing to its direction.

FRENULUM. (Dim. of frenum, a bridle.) The cutaneous fold, under the apex of the tongue, that connects the tongue to the infralingual cavity. It is sometimes, in infancy, so short as to prevent the child from sucking, when it is necessary to cut it, in order to give more from for the motion of the tongue.

FRÆNUM. The membranous fold which connects the præpuce to the inferior part

of the glans penis.

FRAGA. (From fragro, to smell sweet. The strav berry. See Fragaria.

FRAGARIA. (From fragro, to smell

sweet.) The strawberry.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Icosandria. Order,

2. The pharmacopæial name of the strawberry. Fraga. The mature fruit of the Fragaria vesca, fragellis reptantibus of Linnzus, was formerly recommended in gouty and calculous affections, in consequence, it would appear, of its efficacy in removing tartar from the teeth, which it is said to do very effectually.

FRAGARIA STERILIS. Barren strawberry.

Astringent.

The systematic name FRAGARIA VESCA. of the strawberry. See Fragaria.

FILAGILITAS OSSIUM. Friabilitas ossium. Brittleness of the bones.

FRAGMEN. Fragmentum. A splinter of a bone.

FRAMBŒSIA. (From framboise, Fr. for a raspberry.) The yaws. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class cachexia, and order impetigines. somewhat similar in its nature to the lues venerea, and is endemial to the Antilla islands. It appears with excrescences, like mulberries, growing out of the skin in various parts of the body, which discharge

an ichorous fluid.

FRANGULA. (From frango, to break, so called because of the brittleness of its branches.) Black alder. This officinal tree is the Rhamnus frangula of Linnaus: -inermis floribus monogynis hermaphroditis, foliis integerrimis. The berries and bark are used medicinally as strong purgatives. The former are often substituted for those of the buckthorn; the latter, which is the internal bark, and of a yellow colour, is mostly employed by the common people in dropsical and other disorders.

Frankincense. See Thus.

FRAXINELLA. (From fraxinus, the ash, so called because its leaves resemble those of the ash.) See Dictamnus albus.

Fraxinella, white. See Dictamnus albus. FRAXINUS. (A fragore, from the noise its seeds make when shaken by the wind; or from φεαξισ, a hedge, because of its use

in forming hedges.) The ash.

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Polygamia. Or-

der, Dioecia. The ash.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the ashtree, called also brumeli and bumelia. The bark of this tree, Fraxinus excelsior of Linnæus :- folis serratis floribus apetalis, when fresh, has a moderately strong bitterish taste. It possesses resolvent and diuretic qualities, and has been successfully exhibited in the cure of intermittents. The seeds are occasionally exhibited medicinally as diuretics, in the dose of a drachim. warm climates, a species of manna exudes from this species of fraxinus.

FRAXINUS EXCELSION The systematic

name of the ash-tree. See Fraxinus.
Fraxinus ornus. The systematic name of the tree from which manna flows. Manna.

FRAXINUS ROTUNDIFOLIA. . The systematic name of a tree which affords manna. See Manna.

FRENA. The sockets of the teeth.

(From frigidus, cold.) The cold bath.

A putrid fever. FRIGIDARIUM.

The part between the eyebrows and the hairy scalp.

Frontal bone. See Os frontis. Frontal sinus. See Os frontis.
FRONTALIS. See Occipitio frontalis.
FRONTALIS VERUS. See Corrugator su-

percilli.

FRONTIS OS. See Os frontis. FRUCTUS ROREI. Sec Fruits, summer.

FRUITS, SUMMER. Fructus horei. Under this term physicians comprehend strawberries, cherries, currants, mulberries, raspberries, and the like. They possess a sweet sub-acid taste, and are exhibited as dietetic auxilliaries, as refrigerants, anti-septies, attenuants, and aperients. For-merly they were exhibited medicinally in the cure of putrid affections, and to promote the alvine and urinary exerctions. Considering them as an article of diet, they afford little nourishment, and are liable to produce flatulencies. To persons of a bilious constitution and rigid fibres, and where the habit is disposed naturally, or from extrinsic causes, to an inflammatory or putrescent state, their moderate, and even plentiful, use is salubrious; by those of a cold inactive disposition, where the vessels are lax, the circulation languid, and the digestion weak, they should be used very sparingly. The juices extracted from these fruits, by expression, contain their active qualities, freed from their grosser indigestable matter. On standing, the juice ferments and changes to a vinous or acetous state. By proper addition of sugar, and by boiling, their fermentive power is suppressed, and their medicinal qualities preserved. The juices of these fruits, when purified from their feculencies by settling and straining, may be made into syrups, with a due proportion of sugar, in the usual way.

FRUMENTACEOUS. A term applied to all such plants as have a conformity with wheat, either with respect to their

fruit, leaves, or ears.
FUCUS. The name of a genus of plants in the Lunnaan system. Class, Cryptogamia.

Order, Alga.

FUCUS DIGITATUS. This fucus grows upon stones and rocks in the sea near the shore. It has several plain, long leaves or sinuses springing from a round stalk, in the manner of fingers when extended. It affords soda.

Fueus esculentus. Edible fucus. Mr. Hudson has made this a distinct species, but Linnaus included it under his saecharinus. It grows plentifully in the sea, near the shores of Scotland, and also those of Cumberland. It has a broad, plain, simple, sword-shaped leaf, springing from a pinnated stalk.

FUCUS HELMINTOCHORTON. See Corrul-

ina corsicuna

FICUS PALMATUS. Handed fucus. This grows in the sea, and consists of a thin lobed leaf like a hand.

Fecus SACCHARINUS. Sea-belts; so called from the supposed resemblance of its leaves to a belt or girdle. It grows upon rocks and stones by the sea shore The leaves are very sweet, and when washed and hanged up to dry will exude a substance like that of sugar, from whence it was named.

The systematic Fucus vesiculosus. name of the sea oak. See Quercus marina. FULIGO (Quasi fumiligo from fumus,

wood soot, fultgo ligm, or the condensed smoke from burning wood, has a pungent, bitter, and nauseous taste, and is resolved by chymical analysis into a volatile alkaline salt, and empyreumatic oil, a fixed alkali, and an insipid earth. The tincture prepared from this substance, tinctura fuliginis, is recommended as a powerful antispasmodie in hysterical affections.

FULMINATION. A quick and lively explosion of bodies, such as takes place with fulminating gold, fulminating powder, and in the combustion of inflammable gas

and vital air.

FUMARIA: (From fumus, smoke, from its juice, when dropped into the eye, producing the same sensations as smoke.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria. Fumitory.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common fumitory. Fumis terræ. Capnos. Herba melancholifuga. The leaves of this indigenous plant, Fumaria officinalis of Linnæus:-pericarpiis monospermis racemosis, caule diffuso, are directed for medicinal use by the Edinburgh college; they are extremely succulent, and have no remarkable smell, but a bitter, somewhat saline taste. The infusion of the dried leaves, or the expressed juice of the fresh plant, is esteemed for its property of clearing the skin of many disorders of the leprous kind.

FUMARIA BULBOSA. See Aristolochia

fabacea.

FUMARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic

name of the fumitory. See Fumaria. FUMIGATION. The application of filmes, either from metallic or other preparations, to particular parts of the body, as those of the mercurial kind to venereal sores, &c.

Fumitory. See Fumaria.

Funus albus. Merenry.

FUMUS CITTINUS. Sulphur.
FUMUS DUPLEX. Sulphur and mercury.
FUMUS RUBENS. Orpiment.

FUNCTION. See Action. FUNGUS. 1. Proud flesh. A term in surgery to express any luxuriant formation of flesh.

2. The name of an order of plants in the Linnzan system, belonging to the Cruptogamia class.

Fungus igniarius. See Agaricus.

FUNGUS LARICIS. See Agaricus albus. FUNGUS MELITENSIS. This is impro-

perly called a fungus, it being the Cinomorium coccineum of Linnæus, a small plant which grows only on a little rock adjoining Malta. A drachm of the powder is given for a dose in dysenteries and hæmorrhages, and with remarkable success.

FUNGUS ROSACEUS. See Bedeguar.
FUNGUS SALICIS. The willow fungus. The species of fungus ordered in some pharmacopæias by this name is the Boletus suavolens; acaulis superne lavis, salicibus, of Linnæus, and the Boletus albus of Hudson. When fresh, it has a suburinous smell, and at first an acid taste, followed by a It is seldom used at present, but was formerly given in plithisical complaints.

FUNGUS SAMBUCINUS. Sec Auricula Tude.

FUNGUS VINOSUS. The dark cobweblike fungus, which vegetates in dry cellars, where wine, ale, and the like, are kept.

FUNICULUS UMBILICALIS. (Funiculus; dim. of funis, a cord.) See Umbilical

cord.

FUNIS. A rope or cord.

FUNIS UMBILICALIS. See Umbilical

FURCALA. The clavicle or collar-bone. FURCELLA INFERIOR. The ensiform cartilage

FURFUR. Bran. A disease of the skin, in which the cuticle keeps falling off

in small scales like bran.

FURFURACEOUS. (Furfuraceus, from furfur, bran.) A term applied to the sediment deposited in the urine of persons afflicted with fever, of a reddish or whitish matter, which generally appears within an hour or two after the urine is passed, and

only falls in part to the bottom, the urine remaining turbid.

FURNACE. Furnus. The furnaces employed in chemical operations are of three kinds: 1. The evaporatory furnace, which has received its name from its use; it is employed to reduce substances into vapour by means of heat, in order to separate the more fixed principles from those which are more ponderous, and were mixed, suspended, compounded, or dissolved in the fluid. 2. The reverberatory furnace, which name it has received from its construction, being appropriated to distillation. 3. The forge furnace, in which the current of air is determined by bellows.

FUROR UTERINUS. (From furo, to be mad, and uterus, the womb.) Acrai. Brachuna. Estromania. Arascon. Arsatum.

See Nymphomania.

FURUNCULUS. (From furo, to rage; so named from its heat and inflammation before it suppurates.) Dothein of Para-Chiadus. Chioli. A boil. inflammation of a subcutaneous gland, known by an inflammatory tumour that does not exceed the size of a pigeon's

FUSION. (Fusio; from fundo, to pour out.) A chymical process, by which bodies are made to pass from the solid to the fluid state, in consequence of the application of heat. The chief objects susceptible of this operation are salts, sulphur, and metals. Salts are liable to two kinds of fusion: the one, which is peculiar to saline matters, is owing to water, and is called aqueous fusion; the other, which arises from the application of fire, is known by the name of igneous fusion.

TABIANUM OLEUM. See Petroleum rubrum.

GABIREA. A fatty kind of myrrli, men-

tioned by Dioscorides.

GALACTIA. (From yaxa, milk.) Galactirrhaa, An excess or overflowing of the milk.

GALACTINA. (From yaxa, milk) Ali-

men | ep red of milk.

(From yana, GA .ACLIRAHŒA. milk, and pour a flow.) See Galactia.

GALACTODES. (From 2xxx, milk) Hippocrates it signifies both milk warm, and a n.i.ky colour

(From GALACTOPHORA MEDICAMENTA. γαλα, mitk, and φερε, to carry.) Medicines which increase the mark.

GALACTOPHOROUS DUCTS. (Ga-

lactophorus; from zana, milk, and que, to carry, because they bring the milk to the nipple.) The excretory ducts of the glands of the breasts of women, which terminate in the papilla, or nipple, are so called.

GALACTOPOETICA. (From yana, milk, and movew, to make.) Milk-making, an epithet applied to the faculty of making

milk.

GALACTOPOSIA. (From γαλα milk, and πινω, to drink.) The method of curing dis-

eases by a milk diet.

GALANGA. (Perhaps its Indian name) Galangal. The roots of this plant are used medicinally; two kinds are mentioned in the pharmacopæias; the greater galangal Kemferi galanga of Linnaus, and the mailer galangal, the root of the Maranta galanga;

caulino simplici foliis lanceolatis subsessilibus, of Lin auis. The dried root is blought from China, in pieces from an inch to two in length, scarce half so thick, branched, full of knots and joints, with several circular rings of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and brownish within. It has an aromatic smell, not very grateful, and an unpleasant, bitterish, hot, biting taste. It was formerly much used as a warm stomachic bitter, and generally ordered in bitter infusions. It is now, however, seldom employed.

GALANGA MAJOH. See Galanga.
GALANGA MINOR See Galanga,
Galangal. See Galanga.
Galangal, English. See Cyperus.

GALBANUM (From chalbanah, Heb.) Albetud, Chalbane. Gesor. The plant is also named Ferula Africana; Oreoselinum Africanum: Anisum fruticosum galbaniferum; Anisum Africanum fruticescens; and Ayhorzat. Galbanum is the gumini-resinous juice, obtained partly by its spontaneous exudation from the joints of the stem of the Lovage-leaved button, Button galbanum of Linnæus :- foliis rhombeis dentatis striatis glabris umbellis paucis; but more generally, and in greater abundance, by making an incision in the stalk, a tew inches above the root, from which it immediately issues, and soon becomes sufficiently concrete to be gathered. It is imported into England from Turkey and the East Indies, in large, softish, ductile, pale-coloured masses, which, by age, acquire a brownish yellow appearance: these are intermixed with distinct whitish tears, that are the most pure part of the mass. Galbanum has a strong unpleasant smell, and a warm, bitterish, acrid taste; "like the other gummy resins it unites with water, by trituration into a milky liquor, but does not perfectly dissolve, as some have reported, in water, vinegar or wine. Rectified spirit takes up much more than either of these menstrua, but not the whole: the tincture is of a bright golden colour. A mixture, of two parts of rectified spirit, and one of water, dissolves all but the impurities, which are commonly in considerable quantity. In distillation with water, the oil separates and rises to the surface, in colour yellowish, in quantity one twentieth of the weight of the galbanum. Galbanum, medicinally considered, may be said to hold a middle rank between assafœtida and ammoniacum; but its fætidness is very inconsiderable, especially when compared with the former; it is therefore accounted less antispasmodic, nor are its expectorant qualities equal to those of the latter; it, however, is esteemed more efficacious than either in hysterical disorders. Externally it is often applied, by surgeons, to expedite the suppuration of inflammatory and indolent tumours, and,

by physicians, as a warm stimulating plaster. It is an ingredient in the pilulæ galbani compositæ, the emplastrum galbani compositum of the London Pharmacopær, and in the emplastrum ad clavos pedum of the Edinburgh.

Galbeit. Galbeum. A sort of ornamental and medical bracelets worn by the

Romans.

GALBULUS. (From galbus, yellow.) When the skin of the body is naturally yellow.

Galda Gummi. This is a gum-resin, mentioned by old writers, but totally forgot in the present day, and not to be obtained. Externally, it is of a brown colour, but white within, of a hard lamellated structure, and smells and tastes somewhat like clemi. When burnt it gives out an agreeable odour. It was formerly used as a warm, stimulating medicine, and applied in plasters as a strengthener.

GALEA. (From yahn, a cat, of the skin of which it was formerly made.) A helmet. In anatomy, the amnios is so called, because it surrounds the fectus like a helmet. In surgery, it is a bandage for the head. A species of head-ach is so called, when it surrounds the head like a helmet.

GALEANTHROPIA. (This term seems to be from γαλη, a cat, and ανόξαπος, a man.) It is a species of madness, in which a person imagines himself to be a cat, and imitates its manners.

GALEGA (From yaza, milk; so named because it increases the milk of animals which eat it.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopæral name of the Ruta praria. Goats rue. From the little smell and taste of this plant, Galega officinalis of Linnaus: leguminibus strictis, erectis; foliolis lanceolatis, striatis, nudis, it may be supposed to possess little virtues. In Italy the leaves are eaten amongst salads.

GALEGA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the goats rue. See Galega.

GALEGE. A species of senna. The cassia tora of Linnaus.

GALENA. (From γαλων, to shine.) The name of an ore formed by the combination of lead with sulphur.

GALENIC MEDICINE. That practice of medicine which conforms to the rules of Galen, and runs much upon multiplying herbs and roots in the same composition, though seldom torturing them any otherwise than by decoction. It is opposed to chymical medicine, which by the force of fire, and a great deal of art, fetches out the virtues of bodies, chiefly mineral, into a small compass.

GALENIUM. (From Janua, galena.) A cataplasm, in the composition of which was the galena. In Paulus Ægineta it is considered as anodyne.

GALFOBBULON. See Lamium alium.

GALEOPSIS. (Flom Maxor, good, and ohis, vision; so called because it was thought good for the sight; or from yann, a cat, and our, aspect; the flowers gaping like the open mouth of that animal.) mium rubrum. Urtica iners magna fætidissima. Stachys fatida. Hedge nettle. See Lamium album.

GALERICULUM APONEUROTICUM. The tendinous expansion which lies over the

pericranium.

GALIUM. (From vala, milk: some species having the property of coagulating milk.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Tetrandria.

Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the herb cheese rennet, or ladies bedstraw tops of this plant, Galium verum; foliis octonis, linearibus, sulcatis; ramis floriteris, brevibus, of Linnaus, were long used as an efficacious medicine in the curc of epilepsv, but, in the practice of the present day, they are abandoned. Indeed, from the sensible qualities of the plant, little can be expected. The leaves and flowers possess the property of curdling milk; it is on that account styled cheese rennet.

3. A name for madder.

GALIUM ALBUM. The greater ladies This herb, Galium mollugofoliis octonis, ovato-linearibus, subserratis, patentissimis, mucronatis; caule flaccido, ramis patentibus, of Linnæus, with its flowers, are used medicinally. Five ounces, or more, of the expressed juice, taken every evening upon an empty stomach, is said to cure epilepsy.

GALIUM APARINE. The systematic name

of the goose-grass. See Aparine.

GALIUM MULLUGO. The systematic name of the greater ladies bedstraw. See Galium

GALIUM VERUM. The systematic name of the true ladies bedstraw. See Galium.

Gall. See Bile.

GALL SICKNESS. A popular name for the remitting fever occasioned by marsh miasmata, in the Netherlands, and which proved so fatal to thousands of the English soldiers after the capture of Walcheren in the year 1809. Dr. Lind informs us, that at Middleburg, the capital of Walcheren, a sickness generally reigns wards the latter end of August, or the beginning of September, which is always most violent after hot summers. It commences after the rains which fall in the end of July; the sooner it begins the longer it continues, and it is only checked by the coldness of the weather. Towards the end of August and the beginning of September, it is a continual burning fever, attended with a vomiting of bile, which is the gall sickness. This fever, after continuing three or four days, intermits, and asumes the form of a double tertian; leaving the patient in a fortnight, or perhaps sooner. Strangers, that have been accustomed to breathe a dry, pure air, do Foreigners, in not recover so quickly. indigent circumstances, such as the Scots and German soldiers, who were garrisoned in the adjacent places, were apt, after those fevers, to have a swelling in the legs, and a dropsy; of which many died.

These diseases are the same with the double tertians common within the tropics. Such as are seized with the gall sickness, have at first some flushes of heat over the body, a loss of appetite, a white, foul tongue, a yellow tinge in the eyes, and a pale colour of the lips. Such as live well, drink wine, and have warm clothes, and a good lodging, do not suffer so much during the sickly season as the poor people; however, these diseases are not infectious, and seldom prove mortal to the natives.

Sir John Pringle observes, that the prevailing epidemic of autumn, in all marshy countries, is a fever of an intermitting nature, commonly of a tertian form, but of a bad kind; which, in the dampest places and worst seasons, appears as a double tertian, a remitting, or even an ardent fever. But, however these may yary in their appearance, according to the constitution of the patient, and other circumstances, they are all of a similar nature. For though, in the beginning of the epidemic, when the heat, or rather the putrefaction in the air, is the greatest, they assume a continued or a remitting form; yet, by the end of autumn, they usually terminate in regular intermittents.

But although, in the gall-sickness, there is both a redundance and a depravation of the bile, still the disease cannot, with justice, be said to originate wholly from that cause. It is certain, however, that the disease may be continued, and the symptoms aggravated, by an increased secretion and putrefaction of the bile, occasioned by the fever. In proportion to the coolness of the season, or the height and dryness of the ground, this disease is milder, remits and intermits more freely, and removes further from the nature of a continued fever. higher ranks of people in general are the least hable to the diseases of the marshes; for such countries require dry houses, apartments raised above the ground, moderate exercise, without labour, in the sun, or evening damps; a just quantity of fer-mented liquors, plenty of vegetables, and fresh meats. Without such helps, not only strangers, but the natives themselves, are sickly, especially after hot and close summers. The hardiest constitutions are very little excepted more than others; and hence the British in the Netherlands have always been subject to fevers.

By this disease the British troops were harassed throughout the war, from 1743 to 1747. It appeared in the month of August, 1743: the paroxysms came on in the evening, with great heat, thirst, a violent head-ache, and often a delimim. These symptoms lasted mo t of the night, but abated in the morning, with an imperfect sweat; sometimes with an hæmorrhage of the nose, or looseness. The stomach, from the beginning, was disordered, with a nausea and sense of oppression; frequently with a bilious and offensive vomiting. If evacuations were either neglected, or too sparingly used, the patient fell into a continued fever, and sometimes grew yellow, as in jaundice. When the season was further advanced, this fever was attended with a cough, rheumatic pains, and sizy blood. The officers, being better accommodated than the common men, and the cavalry, who had clooks to keep them warm, were not so subject to it; and others who belonged to the army, but lay in quarters, were least of all effected; and the less in proportion to their being exposed to heats, night damps, and the other fatigues of the service. In this manner did the remitting fever infest the army for the remaining years of the war; and that exactly in proportion to their distance from the marshy places, of which we have several notable instances in Pringle's observations.

GALLA. (From Gallus, a river in Bythenia.) Nux galla. Galla maxima orbiculata. The gall-nut. The production of the quercus cervis of Lunnaus. By this name is usually denoted any protuberance, tuberele, or tumour, produced by the puncture of insects on plants and trees of different kinds. These galls are of various forms and sizes, and no less different with regard to their internal structure. Some have only one cavity, and others a number of small cells, communicating with each other. Some of them are as hard as the wood of the tree they grow on, whilst others are soft and spongy; the first being termed gall-nuts, and the latter berry-galls,

or apple galls. The gall is thus produced :- 'he cynips querci folii, an insect of the fly kind, deposites its eggs in the leaves and other tender parts of the tree. Around each puncture an excrescence is presently formed, within which the egg is hatched, and the insect passes through all the stages of its metaniorphosis, until it becomes a perfect insect, when it eats its way out of its prison. The best oak galls are heavy, knotted, and of a blue celour, and are obtained from Aleppo. They are nearly entirely soluble in water, with the assistance of heat. This soluble active matter consists of tannin, in combination with gallic acid; nine-tenths of the former, with one-tenth of the latter.

Oak galls are supposed to be the strongest astringent in the vegetable kingdom. Both water and spirit take up nearly all their virtue, though the spirituous extract is the strongest preparation. The powder is, however, the best form; and the dose is from a few grains to half a drachm.

They are not much used in medicine. though they are said to be beneficial in intermittents. Dr. Cullen has cured agues. by giving half a drachm of the powder of galls every two or three hours during the intermission; and by it alone, or joined with camomile flowers, has prevented the return of the paroxysms. But the doctor states the amount of his results only to be this: that, "in many cases, the galls cured the intermit ents; but that it failed also in many cases, in which the Peruvian bark afterwards proved successful." A fomentation, made by macerating half an onnce of bruised galls in a quart of boiling water for an hour, has been found useful for the piles, the projapsus ani, and the fluor albus, applied cold. An injection, simply astringent, is made by diluting this fomentation, and used in gleets and leucorrhea. camphorated ointment of galls has been found also serviceable in piles, after the use of leeches; and is made by incorporating half a drachm of camphor with one ounce of hog's lard, and adding two drachms of galls in very fine powder. In fact, galls may be employed for the same purposes as oak bark, and are used under the same forms.

GALLA TURETEA. See Quercus.

GALL BLADDER. Vesicula fellis. An oblong membranous receptacle, situated under the liver, to which it is attached in the right hypochondrium. It is composed of three membranes: a common, fibrous, and villous. Its use is to retain the ble which regurgitates from the hepatic duct, there to become thicker, more acrid, and bitter, and to send it through the cystic duct, which proceeds from its neck into the ductus communis choledochus, to be sent on to the duodenum.

GALL-STONES. Biliary concretions. Hard concrete bodies, of which there are great varieties, formed in the gall-bladder of animal bodies. Gall-stones often lie quiet; so that, until dissection after death, some are never known to exist; but when they are prevented from passing through the gall duets, they obstruct the passage of the bile into the intestines, and produce also many inconvenient symptoms, particularly the jaundice.

The diagnostics of this disorder are generally very obscure and uncer in; for other caus is produce the same kind of symptoms as those which occur in this disease. The usual symptoms are, a ross of appetite, a sense of fulness in the stomach,

sickness and vomiting, langour, inactivity, sleepiness; and if the obstruction continues for a time, there is wasting of the flesh; yellowness of the eyes, skin, and urine; whitish stools; a pain in the pit of the stomach; whilst the pulse remains in its natural state. The pain excited by an obstruction of the gall ducts, in consequence of gall-stones passing through them, and this not affecting the pulse, is considered as the leading pathognomonic symptom. This pain, in some, is extremely acute, in others there is only a slight uncasmess felt about the region of the liver; but its particular seat is the gall duct, just where it enters the duodenum. In some patients there is no vellowness of the skin; in others it exists for several months. There is no disease more painful than this, in some instances; it is as frequent as any other affection of the liver; it admits of much relief from medicine, and is not immediately dangerous to the patient.

GALLIC ACID. A peculiar acid which is extracted from the nut-gall that grows on the oak. This acid is also found, in a greater or less quantity, in all sour or as-

tringent vegetable substances.

GALLICTRICHIS. Corrupted from callitrichis, or callitricum.

Gallicus morbus. The French disease, See Lues venerea.

GALLINAGO. (Diminutive of gallus, a

cock.) 1. The woodcock.

2. An eminence within the prostate gland is called caput gallinagins, from its fancied resemblance to a woodcock's head.

GALLIUM. See Galium.

GALVANISM. A professor of anatomy, in the university of Bologna, was one day making experiments on electricity, in his elaboratory; near the machine were some frogs that had been flayed; the limbs of which became convulsed every time a spark was drawn from the apparatus. Galvani, surprised at this phenomenon, made it a subject of investigation, and discovered that metals, applied to the nerves and muscles of these animals, occasioned powerful and sudden contractions, when disposed in a certain manner. gave the name of animal electricity to this order of new phenomena, from the analogy that he considered existing between these effects and those produced by

The name animal electricity has been superseded, notwithstanding the great analogy that exists between the effects of electricity and of Galvanism, in favour of the latter term; which is not only applicable to the generality of the phenomena, but likewise serves to perpetuate the memory

of the discoverer.

In order to give rise to Galvanic effects, it is necessary to establish a communication

between two points of one series of nervous and muscular organs. In this manner a circle is formed, one arch of which consists of the animal parts, rendered the subject of experiment, while the other arch is composed of excitatory instruments, which generally consist of several pieces, some placed under the animal parts called supporters, others destined to establish a communication between the latter are called conductors. To form a complete Galvanic circle, take the thigh of a frog, deprived of its skin; detach the crural nerve, as far as the knee; put it on a piece o zinc; put the muscles of the leg on a piece of silver; then finish the excitatory arch, and complete the Galvanic circle by establishing a commu ication by means of the two supporters, by means of iron or copper wire, pewter, or lead. The instant that the communicators touch the two supporters, a part of the animal arch formed by the two supporters will be convulsed. Aithough this disposition of the animal parts, and of Galvinic instruments, be most favourable to the developement of the phenomena, yet the composition of the animal and excitatory arch may be much varied. Thus contractions are obtained, by placing the two supporters under the nerve, and leaving the muscle out of the circle, which proves that nerves essentially constitute the animal arch.

It is not necessary for nerves to be entire, in order to produce contractions. They take place whether the organs be tied or cut through, provided there exists a simple contiguity between the divided ends. This proves that we cannot strictly conclude from what happens in muscular action, from that which takes place in Gaivanic phenomena; since, if a nerve be tied or divided, the muscles on which the power is distributed lose the power of action.

The curcle is an obstacle to Galvanic effects; they are always feebly manifested in parts of vered by it. When it is moist, fine, and delicate, the effect is not entirely interrupted. Humboldt, after having detached the curicle from the posterior part of the neck and back, by means of two blisters, applied plates of metal to the bare cutis, and at the moment of establishing a communication, he experienced sharp prickings, accompanied with a serosanguinous discharge.

If a plate of zinc be placed under the tongue, and a flat piece of silver on its superior surface, on making them touch each other, an accept taste will be perceived, accompanied with a slight rembling.

The excitatory arch may be constructed with three, two, or even one metal only, with alloys, a calgams, or other metanic or mineral combinations, carbonated substances, &c. It is observed that metal-

which are in general the most powerful excitors, induce contractions so much the more as they have an extent of surface. Metals are all more or less excitants; and it is observed that zinc, gold, silver, pewter, are of the highest rank; then copper,

lead, nickel, antimony, &c.

Galvanic susceptibility, like muscular irrilability, is exhausted by too long continurd exercise, and is recruited by repose. Immersion of nerves and muscles in alkoh l and opiate solutions diminishes and even destroys this susceptibility, in the same manner, doubtless, as the immoderate use of these substances in the living man blunts, and induces paralysis in muscular action. Immersion in oxygenated muriatic acid revests the fatigued parts, in being acted on by the stimulus. Animals killed by the repeated discharge of an electric battery, acquire an increase of Galvanic susceptibility; and this property sub-sists unchanged in animals destroyed by submersion in mercury, pure hydrogen gas, azot, and ammoniac; and finally, it is totally annihilated in animals sufficated by the vapour of charcoal.

Galvanic susceptibility is extinct in the muscles of animals of warm blood, in proportion as vital heat is dissipated; sometimes even when life is terminated in convulsions, contractility cannot be put into action, although warmth be not completely gone, as though the vital property were consumed by the convulsion, amidst which the animals had expired. In those of cold blood, on the contrary, it is more durable. The thighs of frogs, long after being separated from every thing, and even to the instant of incipient purrefaction, are influenced by Galvanic stimuli, doubtless, because irritability, in these animals, is less intimately connected with respiration, and life more divided among the different organs, which have less occasion to act on each other for the execution of its phenomena. The Galvanic chain does not produce sensible actions (that is contractions) until the moment it is completed, by esta-blishing a communication with the parts constituting it. During the time it is com-plete, that is, through the whole space of time that the communication remains established, every thing remains tranquil; nevertheless, Galvanic influence is not suspended: in fact excitability is evidently increased, or diminished, in muscles that have been long continued in the Galvanic chain, according to the difference of the reciprocal situation of the connecting metals.

If silver has been applied to nerves, and zinc to muscles, the irritability of the latter increases in proportion to the time they have remained in the chain. By this method, the thighs of frogs have been revivified in some degree, and alterwards be-

came sensible to stimuli, that before had ceased to act on them. By distributing the metals in an inverse manner, applying zinc to nerves and silver to muscles, an effect absolutely contrary is observed; and the muscles that possessed the most lively irritability when placed in the chain, seem to be rendered entirely paralytic if they remain long in this situation.

This difference evidently depends on the direction of the Galvanic fluid, determined towards the muscles or nerves, according to the manner in which these metals are disposed, and this is of some importance to be known for the application of Galvanic

means to the cure of diseases.

Galvanic Pile.

M. Volta's apparatus is as follows :---

Raise a p.le, by placing a plate of zine, a flat piece of wet card, and a plate of silver, successively; then a second piece of zine, &c. until the elevation is several feet high; for the effects are greater in proportion to its height; then touch both extremities of the pile, at the same instant, with one piece of iron wire; at the moment of contact, a spark is excited from the extremities of the pile, and luminous points are often perceived at different heights, where the zine and silver come into mutual contact. The zine end of this pile appears to be negatively electrified; that formed by the silver, on the contrary, indicates marks of positive electricity.

If we touch both extremities of the

If we touch both extremities of the pile, after having dipped our hands into water, or, what is better, a saline solution, a commodon, followed by a disagreeable pricking in the fingers and clow, is felt.

If we place in a tube filled with water, and hermetically closed by two corks, the extremities of two wires of the same metal which are in contact at the other extremity, one with the summit, the other with the base of the pile; these end-, even when separated only by the space of a few lines, experience evident changes at the instant the extremities of the pile are touched; the wire in contact with that part of the pile composed of zinc becomes covered with bullæ of hydrogen gas; that which touches the extremity formed by silver, becomes oxydated. Fourcroy attributes this phenomenon to the decomposition of water, by the Galvanic fluid, which abandons the oxygen to the iron that touches the positive extremity of the pile; then conducts the other gas invisibly to the end of the other wire, there to be disengaged.

From the numerous experiments of Mr. Davy, many new and important facts have been established, and Galvanism has been found one of the most powerful agents in chymistry; by its influence, platina wire has been melted; gold, silver, copper, and most of the nietals, have easily been burnt; the fixed alkalis, and many of the earths.

have been made to appear as consisting of a metallic base, and oxygen compound substances, which were before extremely difficult to decompose, are now, by the aid of Galvanism, easily resolved into their

GAMANDRA. See Gambogia. GAMBIENSE GUMMI. See Kino. Gamboge. Sce Gambogia.

GAMBOGIA. (From the province of Cambaya, in the East Indies; called also Cambodja and Cambogia; hence it has obtained its name of Cambadium. Cambagium. Gambogia. Gambogium.) Gamboge. its supposed virtues, it is called gummi ad podagram; gammi gutta; and, by corruption, gotta, gutta gamba, gamon, germandra catagemu, gamboidea, &c.; and, from its gold colour, chrysopus; and from its purgative quality, succus laxativus, succus Indicus purgans; and scammonium orientale.

A concrete vegetable juice, the produce of two trees, both called, by the Indians, Caracapulli, and by Linnæus, Gambogra gutta. It is partly of a gummy and partly of a resinous nature. It is brought to us chiefly from Gambaja, in the East Indies, either in form of orbicular masses, or of cylindrical rolls of various sizes; and is of a dense, compact, and firm texture, and of

a' beautiful yellow colour.

In medicine, it is chiefly used as a drastic purge; it operates powerfully both upwards and downwards. Some condemn it as acting with too great violence, while others are of a contrary opinion. The dose is from two to four grains, as a cathartic; from four to eight grains it proves emetic and purgative. The roughness of its operation is said to be diminished, by giving it in a liquid form, sufficiently diluted. Rubbed with almonds, from its want of taste, it is a convenient laxative for children.

It has been given in dropsy, with cream of tartar, to correct its operation. It has also been recommended by some, to the extent of fifteen grains, joined with an equal quantity of vegetable askali, to destroy the tape-worm. This dose is ordered in the morning, and if the worm is not expelied in two or three hours, it is repeated even to the third time, with safety and efficacy. It is asserted that it has been given to this extent even in delicate habits. This is said to be the remedy alluded to by Van Swieten, which was employed by Dr. Herenchwand, and with him proved so successful in the removal of the tæma lata. It is an ingredient, and probably the active one, in most of the nostrums for expelling teniæ.

Dr. Cullen says, that, on account of the quick passage of gamboge through the intestines, he was induced to give it in small and frequently repeated doses, as three or four grains, rubbed with a little sugar, every three hours; and thus found it ope-

rate without griping, or sickness, and, in three or four exhibitions, evacuate a great quantity of water, both by stool and urine.

GAMBOGIUM. See Gambogia. GAMBOIDEA. See Gambogia.

GAMMA. (Fron the letter I, gamma, which it resembles.) A surgical instrument for cauterising a hernia.

GAMPHELE. (From zajitos, crooked.)

The cheek. The jaw.

GANGAMON. (From yaylaun, a fishingnet, which it was said to resemble.) name of the omentum. Some call the contexture of nerves about the navel by this

GANGLION. (γαγγλιον, a knot.) knot.

1. In anatomy it is applied to a natural knot-like enlargement, in the course of a nerve.

2. In surgery it is an encysted tumour, formed in the sheath of a tendon, and containing a fluid like the white of an egg. It most frequently occurs on the back of the

hand or foot.

Gangrena. An incinio GANGRENE. fication, so named from its eating away the flesh. Authors have generally distinguished mortification into two stages; the first, or incipient one, they name gangrene, which is attended with a sudden diminution of pain in the place affected; a livid discoloration of the part, which, from being yellowish, becomes of a greenish liue; a detachment of the cuticle, under which a turbid fluid is effused; lastly, the swelling, tension, and hardness, of the previous inflammation subside, and, on touching the part, a crepitus is perceptible, owing to the generation of air in the gangrenous parts.

Such is the state to which the term gangrene is applied. When the part has become quite cold, black, fibrous, incapable of moving, and destitute of all feeling. circulation, and life; this is the second stage of mortification, termed, sphacelus. Gangrene, however, is frequently used syneny nonsly with the word mortification.

See Mortification.

GARABA. An Arabic name for the dis-

order called Ægilops.

GARCINIA MANGOSTANA. (Named honour of Dr. Garcin, who accurately described it.) The systematic name of the mangosteen tree. See Mangosteen.

GARGALE. (yagyann.) Gargalus. galismos. Irritation, or stimulation.

GARGAREON. (Hebrew.) The uvula, or glandulous body, which hangs down into the throat.

GARGARISM. Gargarismus. A wash for the mouth and throat. GARGARISMA.

(From zaelaeila, to

gargle.) A gargle. GARGARISMUM. A gargle or wash

for the throat.

CARGATHOM. A bed on which lunatics, Sc. were formerly confined.

Garale See Gargarisma.

Garlie. See Allium. Garon bark. See Thymalea.

Genov (γαζον.) A kind of pickle prepared of fish; at first it was made from a fish which the Greeks call *Garos*; but the best was made from mackarels. Among the moderns, garon signifies the liquor in which fish is pickled.

GARROTILLO. (From garottar, to bind closely. Span.) A name of the cynanche maligna, from its sense of strangulation, as if the throat were bound with a cord.

GAROPHYLLUS. See Caryophyllus.

GAS. (From gascht, a German word which means an eruption of wind.) See Gax.

GASTRIC ARTERY. Arteria gastrica. The right, or greater gastric artery, is a branch of the hepatic; the left or lesser, a

branch of the splenic.

GASTRIC JUICE. Succus gastricus. A fluid separated by the capillary exhaling arteries of the stomach, which open upon its internal surface. The œsophagus also affords a small quantity, especially in the inferior part. Modern philosophers have paid great attention to this fluid, and from their several experiments it is known to possess the following properties. It is the principal agent of digestion, and changes the aliments into a kind of uniform soft paste: it acts on the stomach after the death of the animal. Its effects shew that it is a solvent, but of that peculiar nature that it dissolves animal and vegetable substances, uniformly, and without exhibiting a stronger affinity for the one than for the other. Although it is the most powerful agent of digestion in the stomach, its dissolvent power has need of assistance from the action of several secondary causes, as liest, which seems to augment and concentrate itself in the epigastric region. long as the exertion of the stomach contimes, there is a sort of intestme fermentation, which should not, in its full's use, be compared to the motion by which fermentative and putrescent substances are decomposed; there is also a moderate and peristaltic motion of the muscular fibres of the stomach, which press the aliment on all sides, and perform a slight trituration, while the gastric moisture softens and macerates the food before it is dissolved. many it has been considered merely as a ferment, but this cannot be the case.

It is one of the most powerful antiseptics with which we are acquainted; and, from the experiments of Spallanzani, Scopoli, Carminati, and others, its nature appears to be essentially different in the several classes of animals, as they have proved by analysis. The gastric juice of the human subject,

when healthy, is inodorous, of a saltish taste, and limpid, like water, unless it be a little tinged with the yellow colour of some bile, that has regurgitated into the stemach. In quantity it is very considerable, as must be evident from the extent of the surface of the stomach, and its continual secretion; but it is most copious when solicited by the stimulus of food. Besides the properties of this fluid before mentioned, it has others, which have induced physicians and surgeons to exhibit it medicinally. It cures dyspepsia and intermittent lever. Applied externally, in farm of fomentation or poultice, it cures putrid and scrofulous ulcere in a wonderful manner; and it is to be regretted that its utility is not more generally known.

GASTRITIS. (From passes, the stomach.) Inflammation of the stomach. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia, and order phlegmasia, of Culien. It is known by pyrexia, anxiety, heat, and pain in the epigastrium, increased when any thing is taken in 5 the stomach, vomiting, heccup, pulse small and hard, and prostration of strength. There are two species: I. Gastritis phlegmonoidea, with an inflammatory tumour. Gastritis erysipelatosa, when the inflammation is of a creeping or erysipelatous nature.

Gastris is produced by aerid substances of various kinds, such as arsenic, corrosive sublimate, &c. taken into the stomach, as likewise by food of an improper nature; by taking large draughts of any cold liquor when the body is much heated by exercise, or dancing; and repelled exanthemata and gout. Besides these, it may arise from an inflammation of some of the neighbouring parts being communicated to the stomach.

The erysipelatous gastritis arises chiefly towards the close of other diseases, marking the certain approach to dissolution, and being unaccompanied with any marks of general inflammation, or by any burning pain in the stomach.

The symptoms of phlegmonous gastritis, as observed above, are, a violent burning pain in the stomach, with great soreness, distention, and flatulency; a severe vomiting, especially after any thing is swallowed, whether it be liquid or solid; most distressing thirst; restlessness, anxiety, and a continual tossing of the body, with great debility, constant watching, and a frequent, hard and contracted pulse. In some cases, a severe purging attends,

If the disease increases in violence, symptoms of irritation then ensue; there is a great loss of strength, with faintings; a short and interrupted respiration; cold, clammy sweats, hiccups, coldness of the extremities, an intermittent pulse, and the patient is soon cut off.

The event of gastritis is seldom favour-

able as the person is usually either suddenly destroyed by the violence of the inflammation, or else it terminates in suppuration,

ulceration or gangrene.

If the symptoms are very mild, and proper remedies have been employed at an early period of the disease, it may, however, terminate in resolution, and that in the course of the first, or, at farthest, the second week.

Its termination in suppuration may be known by the symptoms, although moderate, exceeding the continuance of this period, and a remission of pain occurring, whilst a sense of weight and anxiety still remain; and, on the formation of an abscess, cold shiverings ensue, with marked exacerbations in the evening, which are iollowed by night sweats, and other symptoms of hectic fever; and these at length prove fatal, unless the pus is thrown up by vomiting, and the ulcer heals.

its tendency to gangrene may be dreaded, from the violence of its symptoms not yielding to proper remedies early in the disease; and when begun, it may be known by the sudden cessation of the pain; by the pulse continuing its frequency, but becoming weaker, and by delirium, with other marks of increasing debility ensuing.

Fatal cases of this disease shew, on dissection, a considerable redness of the inner coat of the stomach, having a layer of coagulable lymph lining its surface. They likewise shew a partial thickening of the substance of the organ, at the inflamed part, the inflammation seldom extending over the whole of it. Where ulceration has taken place, the ulcers sometimes are found to penetrate through all its coats, and sometimes only through one or two of

GASTROCELE. ) From yasne, the stomach, and RHAH, a tumour.) A hernia of the stomach, occasioned by a protusion of that viscus through the abdominal parietes.

GASTROCNEMIUS. (From 2250g, the stomach, and empin, the leg.) The muscles of the foot, which form the calf or belly of

the eg.

GASTROCNEMIUS EXTERNUS. Gemelius. This muscle, which is situated immediately under the integuments at the back part of the leg, is sometimes called gemellus; this latter name is adopted by Atbinus. Winslow describes it as two muscles, which he calls gentrocnemii; and Dourles considers this and the following as a quadriceps, or muscle with four heads, to which he gives the name of extensor tarsi suralis. It is called bi femoro calcanien by Dumas. The gastrocnemus externus arises by two distinct heads. The first, which is the thickest and longest of the two, springs by a strong thick tendon from the upper and back part of the inner condyle of the os femoris, adhering strongly to the capsular ligament of the joint, between which and the tendon is a considerable bursa mucosu. The second head arises by a thinner and shorter tendon from the back part of the onter conclyle of the os femoris. A little below the joint, their fleshy bellies unite in a middle tendon, and below the middle of the tibia they cease to be fleshy, and terminate in a broad tendon, which, a little above the lower extremity of the tibia, unites with that of the gastrocnemius internus, to form one great round tendon, sometimes called chorda magna, but more commonly, tendo Achillis.

GASTROCNEMIUS INTERNUS Tibio peronei calcanien of Dumas. This, which is situated immediately under the last described muscle, is sometimes named soleus, on account of its shape, which resembles that of the sole-fish. It arises by two heads. The first springs by tendinous and fleshy fibres from the posterior part of the head of the fibula, and for some way below it. The second arises from an oblique ridge at the upper and posterior part of the tibia, which affords origin to the inferior edge of the popliceus, continuing to receive fleshy fibres from the inner edge of the tibia for some way down. This muscle, which is narrow at its origin, spreads wider as it descends, as far as its muldle; after which it becomes narrower again, and begins to grow tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has almost reached the extremity of the tibia, a little above which it unites with the last described muscle, to form the tendo . Ichillis. This thick round chord is inserted into the lower and posterior part of the os calcis, after sliding over a cartilaginous surface on that bone, to which it is connected by a tendinous sheath that is furnished with a large bursa mucosa.

Both the gastrocnemii have the same use, viz. that of extending the foot, by drawing it backwards and downwards.

GASTROCOLICUS. (From yasne, the stomach, and xoxov, the colon.) A term applien to a vem which preceds from the sto-mach to the co-GASTROLAMA. (From 225mg, the stomach, and odom, pain.) Pain in the

stomach

GASTRO-EPIPLOIC ARTERY. ria gastrico epiploica. The branch of the greater gastric artery that runs to the epi-

GASTRORAPHY. (Gastroraphe; from pasng, the stomach, and gapn, a suture.) The sewing of wounds of the abdomen.

GASTROTOMIA. (From yasve, the belly, and τεμνω, to cut.) The operation of cutting open the belly and uterus, as in the Casarian operation.

GAULE. See Myrtus Brabantica.

GAZ (From Gascht, German, an eruption of wind.) Gas. Elastic fluid.

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Acriform fluid. Elastic vapour. By the word gaz, we distinguish a permanently elastic air form fluid, or sub-tance which has the appearance of air; that is to say, it is transparent, elastic, ponderable, invisible, (oxygenated muriano acid gas, and natrons acid gas, are the only exceptions to this rule,) and not condensible into a liquid or solid state by any degree of cold hitherto known.

Some of the gases exist in nature, without the aid of art, and may therefore be collected; others, on the contrary, are only pro-

ducible by artificial me ins.

All gases are combinations of certain substances, reduced to the gazeous form by the addition of caloric and light. It is, therefore, necessary to distinguish, in every gas, the matter of heat which acted the part of a solvent, and the substance which forms the busis of the gas.

Gases are not contained in those substances from which we obtain them in the state of gas, but owe their formation to the

expansive property of caloric.

The bases of some gases are known to us, and may be exhibited in an uncombined state; others again are not producible by art.

Formation of Gases.

The different forms under which bodies appear depend upon a certain quantity of calone, chymically combined with them. The very formation of gases corroborates this truth. Their production totally depends upon-the combination of the particular substances with calorie; and those we call permanently elastic are only so, because we cannot so far reduce their temperature, as to dispose them to part with it; otherwise they would undoubtedly become fluid or solid.

Water, for instance, is a solid substance in all degrees below 32° of Ethrenheit's scale; above this temperature it combines with caloric, and becomes a fluid. It retains its fluidity under the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere, till its temperature is augmented to 212°. It then combines with a larger portion of caloric, and is converted, apparently, into gas, or at least into elastic vapour; in which state it would continue, it the temperature of our atmosphere was above 212°. Gases are therefore solid substances, between the particles of which a repulsion is established by the quantity of caloric.

But as in the gazeous water, or steam, the caloric is retained with but little force, on account of its quitting the water when the vapour is merely exposed to a lower temperature, we do not admit steam amongst the class of gases, or permanent acriform clastic fluids—In gases, caloric is united by a very forcible affinity, and no diminution of temperature, or pressure.

that has ever yet been effected, can separace it from them. Thus the air of our atmosphere, in the most intense cold, still remains in the aëriform state, and hence is derived the essential characters of gases, namely; that they shall remain aëriform, under all variations of pressure and temperatures.

In the modern nomenclature, the name of every substance existing in the acriform state is derived from its solid base; and the term gas is used to denote its existence in this state.

In order to illustrate the formation of gases, or to shew in what manner caloric is combined with them, the following experiment may serve. Put into a retort, capable of holding half a pint of water, two ounces of muriate of soda, (common salt;) pour on it half its weight of sulphuric acid, and apply the heat of a lamp; a great quantity of gas is produced, which might be collected and retained over mercury. to serve the purpose of this experiment, let it pass through a glass receiver, having two openings, into one of which the neck of the retort passes, whilst, from the other, a bent tube proceeds, which ends in a vessel of water. Before closing the apparatus, let a thermometer be included in the receiver, to shew the temperature of the gas. It will be found that the mercury in the thermometer will rise only a few degrees; whereas the water in the vessel which receives the bent tube will soon become boiling hot.

Explanation.—Common salt consists of muriatic acid, united to soda; on presenting sulphuric acid to this union, a decomposition takes place. The sulphuric acid unites by virtue of its greater affinity to the soda, and forms sulphate of soda, or Glauber's salt; the muriatic acid becomes therefore disengaged, and takes the gazeous form, in which it is capable of existing in our temperature. To trace the caloric during this experiment, as was our object, we must remark that it first flows from the lamp to the disengaged muriatic acid, and converts it into gas, but the heat thus expended is chymically united, and therefore not appreciable by the thermometer. The caloric, however, is again evolved, when the muratic acid gas is condensed by the water, with which it forms liquid muriatic acid.

In this experiment we therefore trace caloric in a chymical combination producing gas; and from this union we again trace it in fire, or sensible heat.

Such, in general, is the cause of the formation and fixation of gases. It may be further observed, that each of these fluids loses or suffers the disengagement of different quantities of heat, as it becomes more or less solid in its new combination,

GAZ.

or as that combination is capable of retain-

ing more or less specific heat.

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The discovery of derivorm gazeous fluids has occasioned the necessity of some peculiar instruments, by m and of which those substances may be conveniently collected, and submitted to examination. The principal ones for that purpose are styled the pneumatic apparatus.

The Pneumatic Reservoir, or Cistern,

Is made either of wood or strong sheetiron, tinned, japanned, or painted. A trough of about two feet long, sixteen inches wide, and fifteen high, has been found to be sufficient for most experiments. Two or three inches below its brim, a horizontal shelf is fastened, in dimension about half, or one-third part, of the width of the trough. In this shelf are several holes: these holes must be made in the centre of a small excavation, shaped like a finnel, which is formed in the lower part of the shelf.

This trough is filled with water sufficient to cover the shelf to the height of an meh.

The use of this shelf is to support reeeivers, jars, or bell-glasses, which, being previously filled with water, are placed invertedly, their open end turned down upon the above-mentioned holes, through which the gases conveyed there, and directed by means of the funnel-shaped excavations, rise in the form of air-bubles into the receiver.

When the gazeous fluids are capable of being absorbed by water, as is the case with some of them, the trough must be filled with mercury. The price and gravity of this fluid make it an object of convenience and economy, that the trough should be smaller than when water is used.

A mercurial trough is best cut in marble, free-stone, or a solid block of wood. A trough about twelve inches long, three inches wide, and four deep, is sufficient for all private experiments.

Method of collecting Gases, and transferring

them from one vessel to another.

If we are desirous of transmitting air from one vessel to another, it is necessary that the vessel destined to receive it be full of water, or some fluid heavier than air. For that purpose take a wide mouthed bell-glass, or receiver; plunge it under the water in the trough, in order to fill it; then raise it, with the mouth downwards, and place it on the shelf of the trough, so as to cover one or more of the holes in it.

It will now be full of water, and continue so as long as the mouth remains below the surface of the fluid in the cistern, for in this case, the water is sustained in the vessel by the pressure of the atmosphere, in the same manner as the mercury is sustained in the barometer. It may without difficulty be imagined, that if common air (or any

other fluid resembling common air in light. ness and elasticity) be suffered to enter the inverted vessel filled with water, it will rise to the upper part, on account of its levity, and the surface of the water will sub ide To exemplify this, take a glass, or any other vessel, in that state which is usually called empty, and plunge it into the water with its mouth downwards; scarce any of it will enter the glass, because its entrance is opposed by the elasticity of the included air; but if the vessel be turned with its mouth upwards, it immediately fills, and the air rises in bubbles to the surface. Suppose this operation be performed under one of the jars, or receivers, which are filled with water, and placed upon the perforated shelf, the air will ascend in bubbles as before, but, instead of escaping, it will be caught in the upper part of the jar, and expel part of the water it contains.

In this manner we see that air may be emptied out of one vessel into another by a kind of inverted pouring, by which means it is made to ascend from the lower to the upper vessel. When the receiving vessel has a narrow neck, the air may be poured in a similar manner through an inverted

funnel, inserted in its mouth.

If the air is to be transferred from a vessel that is stopped like a bottle, the bottle must be unstopped, with its orifice downwards in the water: and then inclined in such a manner that its neck may come under the perforated excavation of the shelf. The gas will escape from the bottle, and, passing into the vessel adapted to receive it, will ascend in it in the form of bubbles.

In whatever manner this operation is performed, the necessity of the excavation in the lower part of the shelf may be readily conceived. It is, as mentioned before, destined to collect the gas which escapes from the vessel, and direct it in its passage towards the vessel adapted to receive it. Without this excavation, the gas, instead of proceeding to the place of its destination, would be dispersed and lost.

The vessels, or receivers, for collecting the disengaged gases, should be glass cylinders, jars, or bell-glasses, of various sizes; some of them should be open at both ends, others should be fitted with necks at the top, ground perfectly level, in order that they may be stopped by ground flat pieces of metal, glass, slate, &c. ofhers should be furrished with ground stoppers. Some should be graduated into cubic inches, and sub-divided into decimal or other equi-distant parts. Besides these, common glass bottles, tumblers, &c. may be used.

Classification of Gases.

All the clastic aëriform fluids with which we are hitherto acquainted are generally divided, by systematic writers, into two

classes; namely, those that are respirable, and capable of maintaining combustion, and those that are not respirable, and incapable of maintaining combustion. This division, indeed, has its advantage; but the term respirable, in its physico-logical application, has been very differently employed by different writers. Sometimes by the respirability of a gas has been meant its power of supporting life, when repeatedly applied to the blood in the lungs. At other times all gases have been considered respirable, which were capable of intro-duction into the lungs by voluntary efforts, without any relation to their vitality. In the last case, the word respirable seems to us most properly employed, and in this sense it is here used.

Non-re-pirable gases are those which, when applied to the external organs of respiration, stimulate the muscles of the epiglottis in such a manner as to keep it perfectly close on the glottis; thus preventing the smallest particle of gas from entering into the bronchia, in spite of voluntary

exertions.

Of respirable gases, or those which are capable of being taken into the lungs by voluntary efforts, according to their conditions, only one has the power of uniformly supporting life, namely, atmospheric air; other gases, when respired, sooner or later impair the health of the human constitution, or perhaps occasion death; but in different modes.

Some gases effect no positive change in the blood; animals immersed in it die of a disease produced by the privation of atmospheric air, analogous to that occasioned

by their submersion in water.

Others again produce some positive change in the blood, as appears from the experiments of Dr. Beddoes and Professor Davy. They seem to render it incapable of supplying the nervous and muscular fibres with principles essential to sensibility and irritability. These gases, therefore, destroy animal life on a different principlc.

It is obvious, therefore, that the above classification does not hold good in all respects, but is capable of misleading the

student.

Gaz, azotic. See Nitrogen.

Gaz, carbonic acid. This may be obtained by pouring any acid upon calcareous earth, which thereby becomes decomposed; the effused acid combines with the lime, and forms a new neutral salt, and the carbonic acid is disengaged and escapes in the form of a colourless gaz, viz. carbonic acid gas. See Carbonic acid.

Gaz-hepatic. Sec Sulphurated hydrogen

Gaz hydrogen. Inflammable air. See Hydrogen.

Gaz, light carbonated hydrogen. Sec Carbonated hydrogen gas, light.

Gaz, heavy carbonated hydrogen.

Carbonated hydrogen gaz heavy.
Gazeous exyd of carbon. See Carbon,

gazeous oxyd of.
GEISOMA. (From yarrow, the eaves of the house.) Geison. The prominent parts of the eye-brows, which hang over the eyes like the eaves of a house.

GEISON. See Geisoma.

Gelasinos. (From γελαω, to laugh.) An epithet for the four inciddle fore-teeth, because they are shewn in laughter.

GELASMUS. (From yeare, to laugh.)

The Sardonic laugh.

GELATINE. Gelly, or jelly. An animal substance soluble in water, but not in alcohol; capable of assuming a well-known elastic or tremulous consistence, by cooling, when the water is not too abundant, and liquifiable again, by increasing its temperature. This last property remarkably distinguishes it from albumen, which becomes consistent by heat. It is precipitated in an insoluble form by tannin, and it is this action of tannin on gelatine that is the foundation of the art of tanning lca-

Jellies are very common in our kitchens; they may be extracted from all the parts of animals, by boiling them in water. Hot water dissolves a large quantity of this substance. Acids likewise dissolve them, as do likewise more particularly the alkalis. Jelly, which has been extracted without long decoction, possesses most of the characters of vegetable mucilage; but it is seldom obtained without a mixture of albu-

Jellies, in a pure state, have scarcely any smell or remarkable taste. By distillation, they afford an insipid and inodorous phlegm, which easily putrefies. A stronger heat causes them to swell up, become black, and emit a fætid odour, accompanied with white acrid fumes. An impure volatile alkali, together with empyreumatic oil, then passes over, leaving a spongy coal, not easily burned, and containing common salt and phosphat of lime.

The jelly of various animal substances is prepared for the use of sea-faring persons under the name of portable soup. The whole art of performing this operation consists in boiling the meat, and taking the scum off, as usual, until the soup possesses the requisite flavour. It is then suffered to cool, in order that the fat may be separated. In the next place, it is mixed with five or six whites of eggs, and slightly boiled. This operation serves to clarify the liquid, by the removal of opake par-ticles, which unite with the white of egg at the time it becomes solid by the heat,

and are consequently removed along with it. The liquor is then to be strained through flannel, and evaporated, on the water-bath, to the consistence of a very thick paste; after which it is spread, rather thin, upon a smooth stone, then cut into cakes, and, lastly, dried in a stove, until it These cakes may be becomes brittle. kept four or five years, if defended from moisture. When intended to be used, nothing more is required to be done, than to dissolve a sufficient quantity in boiling water, which by that means becomes converted into soup.

(From gelo, to freeze.) GELATIO. Freezing; or that rigidity of the body which happens in a catalepsy, as if the

person were frozen.

GEMELLUS. (From geminus double. having a fellow.) See Gastrocuemius and

GEMINI. Gemelli of Winslow. Part of the marsupialis of Cowper. Ischio spini trochanterien of Dumas. This muscle has been a subject of dispute among anatomists since the days of Vesalius. Some describe it as two distinct muscles, and hence the name it has gotten of gemini. Others contend that it ought to be considered as a single muscle. The truth is, that it consists of two portions, which are united together by a tendinous and fleshy membrane, and afford a passage between them to the tendon of the obturator internus, which they inclose as it were in a purse. These two portions are placed under the glutzus maximus, between the ischium and the great trochanter.

The superior portion, which is the shortest and thickest of the two, arises fleshy from the external surface of the spine of the ischium; and the inferior, from the tuberosity of that bone, and likewise from the posterior sacro-iscliatic ligament They are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter. Between the two portions of this muscle, and the termination of the obturator internus, there is a small bursa mucosa, con-nected to both, and to that part of the capsular of the joint which lies under the

This muscle assists in rolling the os femoris outwards, and prevents the tendon of the obturator internus from slipping out of its place while that muscle is in action.

GEMURSA. (From gemo, to groan; so called from the pain it was said to occasion in walking.) The name of an excrescence between the toes.

GENEIAS. (From yevus, the cheek.) The downy hairs which first cover the cheek; also the name of a bandage mentioned by Galen, which covers the cheek, and comes under the chin.

GENERATION. Many ingenious hy-

potheses have been instituted by physiologysts to explain the mystery of generation. but the whole of our knowledge concerning it appears to be built upon the phenomena it affords; and may be seen in the works of Haller, Buffon, Cruickshanks, and Haighton. It is a sexual action, performed in different ways in most animals; many of them have different sexes, and require conjunction: such are the human species, quadrupeds, and others. The females of quadrupeds have a matrix, separated into two cavities, uterus bicornis, and a considerable number of teats; they have no menstrual flux; most of them bear several young at a time, and the period of their gestation is generally short. The genera-tion of birds is very different. The males have a strong genital organ, which is often double. The vulva in females is placed behind the anus; the overies have no matrices, and there is a duct for the purpose of conveying the egg from the ovarium into the intestines; this passage is called the oviduct. The eggs of pullets have exhibited unexpected facts to physiologists, who examined the phenomena of incubation, The most important discoveries are those of the immortal Haller, who found the chicken perfectly formed in eggs which were not fecundated. There is no determinate conjunction between fishes; the female deposits her eggs on the sands, over which the male passes, and emits its seminal fluid, doubtiess for the purpose of fecundating them; these eggs are hatched after a certain time. The males of several oviparous quadrupeds have a double forked organ. Insects exhibit all the varieties which are observed in other animals: there are some, indeed the greater number, which have the sexes in two separate individuals; among others, the reproduction is made either with or without conjunction, as in the vine fretter; one of these in-ects, confined alone beneath a glass, produces a great number of others. The organ of the male, in insects, is usually armed with two hooks, to seize the female: the place of these organs is greatly varied; with some it is at the upper part of the belly, near the chest, as in the female dragonfly; in others it is at the extremity of the antenna, as in the male spider. Most worms are hermaphrodite; each individual has both sexes. Polypi, with respect to generation, are singular animals: they are reproduced by buds, or offsets: a bud is separated from each vigorous polypus, which is fixed to some neighbouring body, and grows: polypi are likewise found on their surface, in the same manner as branches issue from plants. These are the principal modes of generation in animals. In the human species, which engages our attention more particularly, the phenomena

are as follow: the mode of congress of the man with the woman requires no description; but generation does not consist in that alone; there are certain states or conditions requisite for conception to take The ovum must have arrived at a state of maturity. There must be such a determination of blood to the uterus, that, together with the venereal stimulus, shall induce an action in the Fallopian tubes, by which the fimbria grasp the ovum that is to be impregnated. During this state of the parts, the semen virile must be propelled into the uterus, in order that its subtle and vivifying portion shall pass along the tube to the ovum. Fecundation having thus taken place, a motion is induced in the vivified ovum, which ruptures the tender vesicle that contains it; the fimbrize of the Fallopian tube then grasp and convey it into the tube, which, by its peristalic motion, conducts it into the cavity of the uterus, there to be evolved and brought to maturity, and, at the expiration of nine months, to be sent into the world.

GENERATION, FEMALE ORGANS OF. The parts subservient to generation, in a woman, are divided into external and

internal.

The external parts are, the mons veneris, the labia, the perineum, the clitoris, and the nymphæ. To these may be added the meatus urinarius, or orifice of the urethra. The hymen may be esteemed the barrier between the external and internal parts. The internal parts of generation are, the vagina and uterus, and its appendages.

GENERATION, MALE ORGANS OF. The parts which constitute the organs of generation in men are the penis, testicles,

and vesiculæ seminales.

GENIO. (From yeverov, the chin.) Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the chin.

GENIO-HYO-GLOSSUS. (Musculus genio hyo-glossus; from yerwor, the chin, and γλοσσα, the tongue, so called from its origin in the chin, and insertion in the tongue.) Genio glossus of some authors. This muscle forms the fourth layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It arises from a rough protuberance in the inside of the middle of the lower jaw; its fibres run like a fan, forwards, upwards, and backwards, and are inserted into the top, middle, and root of the tongue, and base of the os hyoides, near its corner. Its use is to draw the tip of the tongue backwards into the mouth, the middle downwards, and to render its back concave. It also draws its root and the os hyoides forwards, and thrusts the tongue out of the mouth.

GENIO HYOIDEUS. (Musculus gemio-hyoideus; from ; evetor, the chin, and origin in the chin, and its insertion in the

os hyoides.) This muscle constitutes the third layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It is a long, tlfin, and fleshy muscle, arising tendinous from a rough protuberance at the inside of the chin, and growing somewhat broader and thicker as it descends backward, to be inserted by very short tendinous fibres into both the edges of the base of the os hyoides. It draws the os hyoides forwards to the

GENIOPHARYNGEUS. The constrictor

pliaryngis superior.

GENIEL ALBUM. The plant which bears this name, in the pharmacopoias, is the Artemisia rupestris of Linnæus:-foliis pinnatis, caulibus adscendentibus; floribus globosis, cermuis; receptaculo papposo. It has a grateful smell, and is used in some countries in the cure of intermittents and obstructed catamenia.

GENIPI VERUM. The plant directed for medicinal purposes, under this title, is the Achillea ; foliis pinnatis, pinnis simplicibus, glabris, punctatis, of Haller. It has a very grateful smell, and a very bitter taste, and is exhibited in Switzerland in epilepsy, diarrhœa, and debility of the

stomach.

GENISTA. (From genu, a knee; so called from the inflection and angularity of its twigs.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dia-

delphia. Order, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopocial name of the common broom. The tops and leaves of this indigenous plant, Spartium scoparium of Linnæus :- joliis ternatis solitariisque, ramis inermibus angulatis, are the parts that are employed medicinally; they have a bitter taste, and are recommended for their purgative and diuretic qualities, in hydropic cases.

GENISTA CANARIENSIS. The systematic name of the tree the wood of which is called rhodium. See Rhodium lignum.

GENITALE. (From gigno, to beget.)

The privy member.

GENITALIUM. (From genitale, the membrum virile.) A disease of the genital parts. GENITURA. (From gigno.) The male

seed. Also the membrum virile.

GENON. (From your, the knee.) A moveable articulation like that of the knee.

Gensing. See Ginseng. GENTIANA. (From Gentius, king of Illyria, who first used it.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linaman system Class, Pentandria. Or-

der, Digynia. Gentian.

2. The pharmacopæial name of what is also called Gentiana rubra. Gentian. Felwort. The gentien that is met with in the shops is the root of the Gentiana lutea of Linnaus : - corollis subquinquefichs rotatis verticillatis, calycibus spathaceis; and is

imported from Switzerland and Germany. plant possesses slightly adstringent vir-It is the only medicinal part of the plant, has little or no smell, but to the taste manifests great bitterness, on which account it is in general use as a tonic, stomachic, anthelmintic, antiseptic, emmenagogue, and febrifuge. The officinal preparations of this root are, the infusum gentiana compositum, and tinctura gentiana composita, of the London Pharmacopæia, and the infusum amarum, vinum amarum, tinctura amara, of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia; and the extractum gentiana is ordered by

The root of this GENTIANA ALBA. plant, Laserpitium latifolium; foliis cordatis, inciso-serratis, of Linnæus, posseses stomachic, corroborant, and deobstruent virtues. It is seldom used.

GENTIANA CENTAURIUM. Lesser centanry was lately so called in the Linnaan system, but now chironia centaurium. See

Centaurium.

GENTIANA LUTEA. systematic The name of the officinal gentian. See Gen-

GENTIANA RUBRA. See Gentiana.

GENU. The knee.

GENUGIA. (From yove, the knee, and agea, a seizure.) A name in Paracelsus for the gout in the knee.

GEOFFRÆA. (Named in honour of Dr. Geoffrey ) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Dia-

delphia. Order, Decundria.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the bark of the Geoffroya inermis foliolis lanceolatis of Swatz. The plant is a native of Jamaica, where it is distinguished by the name of cabbage-bark tree, or worm bark tree. It has a mucilaginous and sweetish taste, and a disagreeable smell. According to Dr. Wright of Jamaica, it is powerfully medicinal as an anthelmintic.

GEOFFROYA JAMAICENSIS. The systematic name of the bastard cabbage-tree.

Cortex Geoffroya Jamaicensis.

GEOFFROYA SURINAMENSIS. The systematic name of the tree, the bark of which

is esteemed as an authelmintic.

GERANIS. (From pseavos, a crane; so called from its supposed resemblance to an extended crane.) A bandage for a fractured clavicle.

GERANIUM. (From preares, a crane; so called because its pistil is long, like the bill of a crane.) Class, Monadelphia. Order, Decandria. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Geranium, or cranes-bill.

GERANIUM BATHACHIOIDES. Crowfoot dense. cranes-bill. This is the Geranium pratense Gil of Linuxus; it possesses adstringent virtues, but in a slight degree.

tues.

GEHANIUM MOSCHATUM. The adstringent property of this plant has induced practitioners to exhibit it in cases of debility and profluvias.

GERANIUM PRATENSE. The systematic name of the crowfoot cranes-bill. Geranium batrachioides.

GERANIUM ROBERTIANUM. Stinking cranes-bill. Herb robert. This common plant has been much esteemed as an external application in ervsipelatous inflammations, cancer, mastedynia, and old ulcers. but is now deservedly fallen into disuse.

GERANIUM ROTUNDIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the doves foot. See Ge-

ranium columbinum.

GERANIUM SANGUINARIUM. Bloody cranes Geranium sanguineum of Linuxus. The adstringent virtues ascribed to this plant do not appear to be considerable.

GERANIUM SANGUINEUM. The matic name of the Geranium sanguinarium.

Germander. See Chamadris.

Germander, water. See Scordium.

GEROCOMIA. (From yegav, an aged person, and nomew, to be concerned about) That part of medicine which regards the regimen and treatment of old age.

Genontopogon. (From pegav, an old man, and πωριων, a beard; so called because its downy seed, while enclosed in the calyx, resembles the beard of an aged man.) The herb old man's beard. Purple flowered tragopogon.

GENONTOXON. (From regor, an old person, and τοξον, a dart.) A small ulcer, like the head of a dart, appearing sometimes in the cornea of old persons. The socket of a tooth.

GENOPOGON. See Gerontopogon.

GERYON. Quicksilver.

1. The name of a genus of GEUM. plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Ico.

sandria. Order, Polygynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Geum rivale of Linnaus, the root of which is the part directed for medicinal uses. It is inodorous, and imparts an austere taste. In America it is in high estimation in the cure of intermittents, and is said to be more efficacious than the Peruvian bark. Diarrhoas and hæmorrhages are also stopped by its exhibition.

GEUM UHBANUM. The systematic name of the herb bennet, or avens. See Caryo-

phyllata.

Giddiness. See Vertigo.

Gilead, balsam. See Balsamum Gilea-

Gill-go-by-ground. See Hederacea.

Gilliflower. See Caryophyllus ruber. GIN. Geneva. Hollands. The names GERANIUM COLUMBINUM. Doves foot. of a spirit distilled from malt or rye, which Geranium rotundifolium of Linnaus. This afterwards undergoes the same process, a second time, with juniper berries. This is the original and most wholesome state of the spirit; but it is now prepared without juniper-berries; and is distilled from turpentine, which gives it something of a similar flavour. The consumption of this article, especially in the metropolis, is immense, and the consequences are, as Dr. Willan observes, pernicious to the health of the inhabitants.

Ginger. See Zinziber. GINGIBER. See Zingiber.

GINGIBHACHIUM. (From gingiva, the gums, and brachum, the arm.) A name for the scurvy, because the gums, arms, and legs, are affected with it.

GINGIDIUM. A species of Daucus.

GINGIHIL. See Zingiber.

GINGIPEDIUM. (From gingivæ, the gums, and pes, the foot.) A name for the scurvy, because the arms and legs are af-

GINGIVÆ. (From gigno, to beget, because the teeth are, as it were, born in them.) The gums. See Gums.

GINGLYMUS. (γηγλυμο, a hinge.) The hinge-like joint. A species of diarthrosis or moveable connection of bones, which admits of flexion and extension, as the

knee-joint, &c.

GINSENG. (Ginseng, Indian.) name of the root of the Panax quinquefolium of Linnaus:-foliis ternis quinatis. It is imported into this country scarcely the thickness of the little finger, about three or four inches long, frequently forked, transversely wrinkled, of a horay texture, and both internally and externally of a yellowish white colour. To the taste it discovers a mucilaginous sweetness, approaching to that of liquorice, accompanied with some degree of bitterness, and a slight aromatic warmth. The Chinese ascribe extraordinary virtues to the root of ginseng, and have no confidence in any medicine unless in combination with it. In Europe, however, it is very seldom employed.

Ginseng root. See Ginseng.

Gin. Quick lime.

Ginnin. Tartar.

GIZZARD. The gizzards, or stomach of poultry, with white flesh, have long been considered, in France, as medi-cinal. They have been recommended in obstructions of the urinary passages, complaints of the bladder, and nephritic pains; but particularly as a febrifuge. Bouillon Lagrange considers its principal substance as oxygenated gelatine, with a small quantity of extractive matter.

GLARELLA. (From glaber, smooth; because it is without hair.) The space be-

twixt the eye-brows.

GLADIOLUS. (Dim. of gladius, a sword; so named from the sword-like

shape of its leaf.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaun system. Class, Triandria. Order, Monogynia.

GLADIOLUS LUTEUS. See Iris palustris.

GLAMA. ( ) Aama.) The sordes of the eye. GLAND, (Glandula; diminutive of glans, a gtand.) A gland is an organic part of the body, composed of blood-vessels, nerves, and absorbents, and destined for the secretion or alteration of some peculiar fluid. The glands of the human body are divided, by anatomists, into different classes, either according to their structure, or the fluid they contain. According to their fabric, they are distinguished into four classes.

1. Simple glands.

2. Compounds of simple glands.

3. Conglobate glands.

4. Conglomerate glands.

According to their fluid contents, they are more properly divided into, 1. Mucous glands. 2. Sebaceous glands. 5. Limphatic glands. 4. Sal.val glands 5 Lachrymal glands.

Simple glands are small hollow follicles. covered with a peculiar membrane, and having a proper excretory duct, through which they evacuate the liquor contained in their cavity. Such are the mucous glands of the nose, tongue, fauces, trachea, sto-mach, intestines, and urinary bladder, the sebaccous glands about the anus, and those of the ear. These simple glands are either dispersed here and there, or are contiguous to one another, forming a heap, in such a manner that they are not covered by a common membrane, but each hath its own excretory duct, which is never joined to the excretory duct of another gland. The former are termed solitary simple glands, the latter aggregate or congregate simple

The compound glands consist of many simple glands, the excretory ducts of which are joined in one common excretory duct; as the sebaccous glands of the face, lips, palate, and various parts of the skin,

especially about the pubes.

Conglobate, or, as they are also called. lymphatic glands, are those into which lymphatic vessels enter, and from which they go out again: as the mesenteric, lumbar, &c. They are composed of a texture of lymphatic vessels, connected together by cellular membranes-have no excretory duct-they are largest in the focus.

Congiomerate glands are composed of a congeries of many simple glands, the excretory ducts of which open into one common trunk: as the parotid gland, thyroid gland, pancreas, and all the salival glands. Conglomerate glands differ but little from the compound glands, yet they are composed of more simple glands than the compound.

The excretory duct of a gland is the

duct through which the fluid of the gland is excreted. The vessels and nerves of glands always come from the neighbouring parts, and the arteries appear to possess a higher degree of irritability. The use of the glands is to separate a peculiar liquor, or to change it. The use of the conglobate glands is unknown.

GLANDULA LACHRYMALIS. See

Lachrymal gland.

GLANDULE MYRTIFORMES. See Caruncula myrtiformes.

GLANDULÆ PACCHIONIÆ. (Pacchioni, the name of the discoverer.) A number of small, oval, fatty substances, not yet ascertained to be glandular, situated under the dura mater, about the sides of the longitudinal sinus. Their use is not known.

GLANDULOSOCARNEUS. An epithet given by Ruysch to some excrescences which he observed in the bladder.

GLANS. A gland, or nut.

GLANS PENIS. The very vascular body that forms the apex of the penis. The posterior circle is termed the corona glandis. See Corpus spongiosum urethræ.

GLASS. This substance is sometimes

employed by surgeons, when roughly powdered, to destroy opacities of the cornea. Glass of antimony. A vitreous oxyd of antimony.

Glass wort, snail-seeded. See Kali.

GLASTUM. (Quasi callastum; from Callia, who first used it.) The herb woud.
Glauber's salt. See Sulphas sodæ.

GLAUCIUM. (From phaunos, blue, or yellow; so called from its colour.) The

yellow-horned poppy.

GLAUCOMA. (From pravios, blue; because of the eye becoming of a blue or sea-green colour.) Glaucosis. An opacity of the vitreous humour. It is difficult to ascertain, and is only to be known by a very attentive examination of the eye.

GLAUCOSIS. See Glaucoma.

GLELOMA. (From γληχων, the name of a plant in Dioscorides.) Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Ground ivy.

GLECOMA HEDERACEA. The systematic name of the ground ivy. See Hedera ter-

restris.

Glechon. (From γληχαν.) Penny-royal. Glechonites. (From γληχαν, penny-royal.) Wine impregnated with penny-

royal.

GLEET. In consequence of the repeated attacks of gonorrhæa, and the debility of the part occasioned thereby, it not unfrequently happens that a gleet, or constant small discharge, takes place, or remains behind, after all danger of infection is removed. Mr. Hunter remarks, that it differs from gonorrhoa in being uninfectious, and in the discharge consisting of globular bodies, contained in a slimy mucus, instead of serum. It is unattended with pain, scalding in making of water, &c.

GLENE. (YANVI). Strictly signifies the cavity or socket of the eye; but by some anatomists is also used for that cavity of a bone which receives another within it.

GLENOID. (Glenoides; from yann, a cavity, and eidos, resemblance.) The name of some articulate cavities of bones.

GLEUCINUM. (From pheusos, must.) An ointment, in the preparation of which was must.

GLEUXIS. (From γλυκυς, sweet.) A sweet wine.

GLISCERE. To increase gradually, properly as fire does: but, by physical writers is sometimes applied to the natural heat and increase of spirits; and by others to the exacerbation of fevers which return periodically.

GLISCHRASMA. (From γλισχεαινω, to become glutinous.) Lentor. Viscidity.

GLISCHROCHOLOS. (From γλισχεος, viscid, and χολη, the bile.) An epithet for bilious viscid excrements.

GLISOMARGO. White chalk. Globate gland. See Gland.

GLOBULARIA. (From globus, a globe; so called from the shape of its flower.) The French daisy.

GLOBULARIA ALYPHUM. The leaves of this plant are used in some parts of Spain in the cure of the venereal disease. It is said to act also as a powerful but safe cathartic.

GLOBUS HYSTERICUS. The air rising in the assophagus, and prevented by spasm from reaching the mouth, is so called by authors, because it mostly attends hysteria, and gives the sensation of a ball ascending in the throat.

GLOMER. (A clue of thread.) Mostly

applied to glands.

GLOMERATE GLAND. A gland formed of a glomer of sanguineous vessels, having no cavity, but furnished with an excretory duct; as the lachrymal and mammary glands.

GLOSSAGRA. (From γλωσσα, the tongue, and αγεα, a seizure.) A rheumatic pain in

the tongue.

GLOSSO (From γλωσσα, the tongue.) Names compounded with this word belong to muscles, nerves, or vessels, from their being attached, or going to the tongue.

GLOSSO-PHARTNGEAL NERVES. The ninth pair of nerves. They arise from the processes of the cerebellum, which run to the medulla spinalis, and terminate by numerous branches in the muscles of the tongue and pharynx.

GLOSSO-PHARTNGEUS. (Musculus glossopharyngieus; γλωσσοφαρυγίανοι, foin γλωσσα, the tongue, and φαρυγέ, the pharynx:

its insertion in the pharynx.)- See Construc-

tor pharyngeus superior.

GLOSSO-STAPHILINUS. (Musculus glossostaphylinus; from yxosoa, the tengue, and saφυλινος, the staphylinus; so named because it is fixed in the tongue, and terminates in the staphylinus. See Constrictor isthmi faucium.

GLOSSOCATOCHOS. (From yhoora, tongue, and κατιχω, to hold. An instrument in P. Ægineta for depressing the tongue. A spatula lingua. The antient glossocatochus was a sort of forceps, one of the blades of which served to depress the tongue, while the other was applied under the chin-

GLOSSOCELE. (From γλωσσα, the tongue, and κηλη, a tumour.) An extrusion

of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMA. A retraction of the tongue. GLOSSOCOMION. (From γλωσσα, a tongue, and κομεω, to guard.) By this was formerly meant a case for the tongue, for a hautboy; but the old surgeons, by metaphor, use it to signify an instrument, or case, for containing a fractured limb.

GLOTTA. (γλωτία, the tongue.) The

GLUCINE. For the discovery of this earth we are indebted to Vauquelin, who found it, in 1795, in the Aigue-marine or beryl, a transparent stone, of a green colour, and in the emerald of Peru. It exists combined with silex, argil, lime, and oxyd of iron in the one; and with the same earths, with oxyd of chrome, in the other. It has lately been discovered in the Gadolinite by Mr. Ekeberg.

Its name is taken from the Greek word ( ) which signifies sweet or saccharine, because it gives that taste to the salts it

forms.

Glucine is white, light, and soft to the touch. It is insipid, and adheres to the tongue; and is infusible by itself in the fire. Its specific gravity is 2.967. It is soluble in alcalies and their carbonates, and in all the acids except the carbonic and phosphoric, and forms with them saccharine and slightly astringent salts. It is exceedingly soluble in sulphuric acid used to excess. It is fusible with borax, and forms with it a transparent glass. It absorbs onefourth of its weight of carbonic acid. It decomposes sulphate of alumine. It is not precipitated by the hydro-sulphurets, nor by prussiate of potash, but by all the suc-Its affinity for the acids is intercinates. mediate between magnesia and alumine.

an impalpable powder, fuse it with three times its weight of po ash, and dissolve the mass in muratic acid. Separate the silex chanter there is a considerable bursa muby evaporation and filtration, and decom- cose. This tendon is inserted into the pose the remaining fluid by adding carbo- upper part of the linea aspera, for the

so named from its origin in the tongue, and nate of potash; re-dissolve the deposit when washed in sulphuric acid, and by mingling this solution with sulphate of potash, sulphate of alumine will be obtained, which crystallizes.

> Then mix the fluid with a solution of carbonate of ammonia, which must be used in excess; filter and boil it, and a white powder will gradually fall down, which is

GLOTTIS. (From phorla, the tongue.) The superior opening of the larynx at the bottom of the tongue.

GLUTEAL ARTERY. A branch of the

internal iliac artery.

GLUTEN. (Quasi geluten; from gelo, to congeal.) Glue, Lentor. See Gluten, animal and vegetable.

GLUTEN, ANIMAL. This substance constitutes the basis of the fibres of all the solid parts. It resembles in its properties

the gluten of vegetables.

GLUTEN, VEGETABLE. If wheat flour be made into a paste, and washed in a large quantity of water, it is separated into three distinct substances; a mucilaginous saccharine matter, which is readily dissolved in the liquor, and may be separated from it by evaporation; starch, which is suspended in the fluid, and subsides to the bottom by repose; and gluten, which remains in the hand, and is tenacious, very ductile, somewhat elastic, and of a brown gray colour. This glutinous substance is obtained from several vegetables in great abundance, and, when dried, becomes a horny mass. It is soluble both in water and spirit of wine, and, if boiled with the former, it coagulates like the white of an egg. It burns like horn, and affords the same products by distillation in the dry way. It readily putrefies when kept in a cold and moist place.

GLUTEUS MAXIMUS. (From 2A8-Tos, the buttocks.) Gluteus magnus of Albinus, Glutaus major of Cowper, and Ilio sacro femoral of Dumas. This broad radiated muscle, which is divided into a number of strong fasciculi, is covered by a pretty thick aponenrosis derived from the fascia lata, and is situated immediately under the integuments. It arises fleshy from the outer lip of somewhat more than the posterior half of the spine of the ilium, from the ligaments that cover the two posterior spinous processes; from the posterior sacro-ischiatic ligament; and from the outer sides of the os sacrum and os coccygis. From these origins the fibres of the muscle To obtain this earth, reduce some berylto run towards the great trochanter of the os femoris, where they form a broad and thick tendon, between which and the trospace of two or three inches downwards; and sends off fibres to the fascia lata, and to the upper extremity of the vastus externus. This muscle serves to extend the thigh, by pulling it directly backwards; at the same time it draws it a little outwards, and thus assists in its rotatory motion. Its origin from the coccyx seems to prevent that bone from being forced too far backwards.

GLUTEUS MEDIUS. Ilio trochanterien of Dumas. The posterior half of this muscle is covered by the gluteus maximus, which it greatly resembles in shape; but the anterior and upper part of it is covered only by the integuments, and by a tendinous membrane which belongs to the fascia lata. It arises fleshy from the outer lip of the anterior part of the spine of the ilium, from part of the posterior surface of that bone, and likewise from the fascia that covers it. From these origins its fibres run towards the great trochanter, into the outer and posterior part of which it is in-serted by a broad tendon. Between this tendon and the trochanter there is a small thin bursa mucosa. The uses of this muscle are nearly the same as those of the gluteus maximus; but it is not confined like that muscle, to rolling the os femoris outwards, its anterior portion being capable of turning that bone a little inwards. As it has no origin from the coccyx, it can have no effect on that bone.

GLUTEUS MINIMUS. Glutæus minor of Albinus and Cowper; and Ilio ischii trochanterien of Dumas. This, which is likewise a radiated muscle, is situated under the glutens medius. In adults, and especially in old subjects, its outer surface is usually tendinous. It arises fleshy between the two semicircular ridges we observe on the outer surface of the ilium, and likewise from the edge of its great niche. Its fibres run, in different direc-tions, towards a thick flat tendon, which adheres to a capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the great trochanter. A small bursa mucosa may be observed between the tendon of this muscle and the trochanter. This muscle assists the two former in drawing the thigh backwards and outwards, and in rolling it. It may likewise serve to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

GLUTIA. (From pastes, the buttocks.)
The two small protuberances in the brain,

called Nates.

GLUTTUPATENS. (From gluttus, the throat, and pateo, to extend.) An epithet for the stomach, which is an extension of the throat.

GLUTUS. (222705, from 220105, filthy.) The buttocks.

GLYCASMA. (From phunus, sweet.) A sweet medicated wine.

GLYCYPICROS. (From γλυκυς, sweet, and πικχος, bitter; so called from its bitterish sweet taste.) The woody nightshade. See Dulcamara.

GLYCYRRHIZA. (From γλυκυς, sweet, and μιζα, a root.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diadelfthia. Order, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopocial name of liquorice. The sweet root of the Glycyrrhiza glabra of Linnæus:—leguminibus glabris, stipulis nullis, foliolo impari petiolato. A native of the south of Europe, but cultivated in Britain. The root contains a great quantity of sagcharine matter, joined with some proportion of mucilage, and hence it has a viscid sweet taste. It is in common use as a pectoral or emollient, in catarihal defluxions on the breast, coughs, hoarseness, &c. Infusions, or the extrac. made from it, which is called Spanish liquorice, afford likewise very commodious vehicles for the exhibition of other medicines; the liquorice taste concealing that of unpalatable drugs more effectually than syrups or any of the sweets of the saccharine kind.

GLYCYRRHIZA ECHINATA. This species of liquorice is substituted in some places

for the root of the glabra.

GLYCYRRHIZA GLABHA. The systematic name of the officinal liquorice. See Glycyrrhiza.

GLYCYSANCON. (From paukes, sweet, and appear, the elbow; so called from its sweetish taste, and its inflections, or elbows, at the joints.) A species of southernwood.

Glyssons capsule. See Capsule of Glys-

GNAPHALIUM. (From γιαφαλοι, cotton; so named from its soft down, surface.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Or-

der, Polygamia superflua.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the hero cotton-weed. The flores gnaphalii of the pharmacopæias, called also flores hispidulæ; seu pedes cati are the produce of the Gnaphalium dioicum of Linnæus. They are now quite obsolete, but were formerly used as adstringents, and recommended in the cure of hooping-cough, phthisis, pulmonalis, and hæmoptysis.

GNAPHALIUM ARENARIUM. The flowers of this plant, as well as those of the gnaphalium stocchas, called in the pharmacopoias

flores elichrysi. See Elichrysum.

GNAPHALIUM DIOICUM. The systematic name of the pes cati. See Gnaphalium.

GNAPHALIUM STECHAS. The systematic name of Goldilocks. See Elychrysum.

GNATHUS. (From γναπίω, to bend; so

called from their curvature.) The jaw, or jaw-bones. Also the cheek.

GNIBUS A term applied by Hippocrates, and others since, to some medicinal precepts wrote in the island of Gnidos.

Goat's rue. See Galiga. Gorne. See Brynchocele.

GOLD. Aurum. A metal found in nature only in a metallic state; most commonly in grains, ramifications, leaves, or rhomboidal, octahedral, or pyramidical crystals. Its matrix is generally quartz, sand-stone, siliceous schistus, &c. It is found also in the sands of many rivers, particularly in Africa, Hungary, and France, in minute irregular grains, called gold-dust. Native gold, found in compact masses, is never completely pure; it is alloyed with silver, or copper, and sometimes with iron and tellurium. The largest piece of native gold that has been hitherto discovered in Europe, was found in the county of Wicklow, in Ireland. Its weight was said to be twenty-two ounces, and the quantity of alloy it contained was very small. Several other pieces, exceeding one ounce, have also been discovered at the same place, in sand, covered with turf, and adjacent to a rivulet.

Gold is also met with in a particular sort of argentiferous copper pyrites, called in Hungary Gelf. This ore is found either massive, or crystallized in rhomboids, or other irregular quadrangular or polygonal masses. It exists likewise in the sulphurated ores of Nagaya in Transylvania. These all contain the metal called telluririum. Berthollet, and other French chymists, have obtained gold out of the ashes

of vegetables.

Gold-cup. A vulgar name for many species of Ranunculi,

Golden-rod. See Virga aurea. Goldilocks. See Elychrysum.

GOMPHASIS. (From γομφος, a nail.) Gomphiasmus. A disease of the teeth, when they are loosened from the the sockets, like nails drawn out of the wood.

GOMPHIASMUS. See Gomphiasis.

Gomputer. (From 30,4000, a nail; so called, because they are as nails driven into their sockets.) The dentes molares, or grinding teeth.

GOMPHOMA. See Gomphosis.

GOMPHOSIS. (From γομφοω, to drive in a nail.) Gomphoma. A species of immoveable connection of bones, in which one bone is fixed in another, like a nail in a board, as the teeth in the alveoli of the jaws.

GONAGRA. (From you, the knee, and ayeur, capiu, to take.) The gout in the

Cione. (200m.) The seed. But in Hippocrates it is the uterus.

GONGRONA. (From 2027)ges, a hard knot.)

1. The cramp.

2. A round tubercle in the trunk of a

3. A hard round tumour of the nervous parts; but particularly a bronchecele, or other hard tumour of the neck.

GONGYLION. (From 20250x05, round.) A

pill.

GONOIDES. (From 2000, seed, and selfs, form.) Resembling seed. Hippocrates often uses it as an epithet for the excrements of the belly, and for the contents of the urine, when there is something in them which resembles the seminal matter.

GONORRHŒA. (From you, the semen, and goo, to flow; from a supposition of the action of the contents, that it was a semmal flux.) A genus of disease in the class beales, and order apocenoses, of Dr. Cullen's arrangement, who defines it a preternatural flux of fluid from the urethra in males, without any libidinous desires, and from the vagina in females. He makes four species, viz.

1. Gonorrhaa pura, or benigna; a mucous discharge from the urethra, without

dysuria, or lascivious inclination.

2. Gonorrha a impura, maligna, syphilitica, virulenta; a discharge resembling pus, from the urethra, with heat of urine, &c. after impure coition, to which often succeeds a discharge of micus from the urethra, with little or no dysury, called a gleet. Fluor albus malignus. Blennorrhagia of Swediaur. In English, a clap, from the old French word clapises, which were public shops, kept and inhabited by single prostitutes, and generally confined to a particular quarter of the town, as is even now the case in several of the great towns of Italy. In Germany, the disorder is named tripper, from dripping; and in French, chaudpisse, from the heat and scalding in making water.

No certain rule can be laid down with regard to the time that a clap will take before it makes its appearance, after infection has been conveyed. With some persons it will shew itself in the course of three or four days, whilst, with others, there will not be the least appearance of it before the expiration of some weeks. It most usually is perceptible, however, in the space of from six to fourteen days, and in a male, begins with an uneasiness about the parts of generation, such as an itching in the glans penis, and a soreness and tingling sensation along the whole course of the urethra; soon after which, the person perceives an appearance of whitish matter, at its orifice, and also some degree of pungency upon making water.

In the course of a few days, the discharge of matter will increase considerably; will assume, most probably, a greenish or yellowish hue, and will become thinner, and lose its adhesiveness; the parts will also be occupied with some degree of redness and inflammation, in consequence of which the glans will put on the appearance of a ripe cherry; the stream of urine will be smaller than usual, owing to the canal being made narrower by the inflamed state of its internal membrane, and a considerable degree of pain, and scaiding heat, will be experienced on every attempt to make water.

Where the inflammation prevails in a very high degree, it prevents the extension of the urethra, on the taking place of any erection, so that the penis is, at that time, carried downwards, with great pain, which is much increased, if attempted to be raised towards the belly, and the stimulus occasions it often to be erected, particularly when the patient is warm in bed, and so deprives him of sleep, producing, in some cases, an involuntary emission of semen.

In consequence of the inflammation, it sometimes happens that, at the time of making water, owing to the rupture of some small blood-vessel, a slight hæmorrhage ensues, and a small quantity of blood is voided. In consequence of inflammation, the prepuce likewise becomes often so swelled at the end, that it cannot be drawn back; which symptom is called a phymosis; or that, being drawn behind the glans, it eannot be returned, which is known by the name of paraphymosis. Now and then, from the same cause, little hard swellings arise on the lower surface of the penis, along the course of the urethra, and these perhaps suppurate and form into fistulous sores.

The adjacent parts sympathizing with those already affected, the bladder becomes irritable, and incapable of retaining the urine for any length of time, which gives the patient a frequent inclination to make water, and he feels an uneasiness about the scrotum, perinæum, and fundament. Moreover the glands of the groins grow indurated and enlarged, or perhaps the testicle becomes swelled and inflamed, in consequence of which he experiences excruciating pams, extending from the seat of the complaint up into the small of the back; he gets hot and restless, and a small symptomatic fever arises.

Where the parts are not occupied by much inflammation, few or none of the last-mentioned symptoms will arise, and only a discharge, with a slight heat or scalding in making water, will prevail.

If a gonorrhoa is neither irritated by any irregularity of the patient, nor prolonged by the want of timely and proper assistance, then, in the course of about a fortnight or

three weeks, the discharge, from having been thin and discoloured at first, will become thick, white, and of a ropy consistence; and from having gradually began to diminish in quantity, will at last cease entirely, together with every inflammatory symptom whatever; whereas, on the contrary, if the patient has led a life of intemperance and sensuality, has partaken freely of the bottle and high-seasoned meats, and has, at the same time, neglected to pursue the necessary means, it may then continue for many weeks, or months: and, on going off, may leave a weakness or gleet behind it, besides being accompanied with the risk of giving rise, at some distant period, to a constitutional affection, especially if there has been a neglect of proper cleanliness: for where venereal matter has been suffered to lodge between the prepuce and glans penis for any time, so as to have occasioned either excoriation or ulceration, there will always be danger of its having been

Another risk, arising from the long continuance of a gonorrhea, especially if it has been attended with inflammatory symptoms, or has been of frequent recurrence, is the taking place of one or more strictures in the urethra. These are sure to occasion a considerable degree of difficulty, as well as pain, in making water, and, instead of its being discharged in a free and uninterrupt-stream, it splits into two, or perhaps is voided drop by drop. Such affections become, from neglect, of a most serious and dangerous nature, as they not unfrequently block up the urethra, so as to induce a total suppression of urine.

Where the gonorrhea has been of long standing, warty excrescences are likewise apt to arise about the parts of generation, owing to the matter falling and lodging thereon; and they not unfrequently prove both numerous and troublesome.

Having noticed every symptom which usually attends on gonorrhoa, in the male sex, it will only be necessary to observe, the same heat and soreness in making water, and the same discharge of discoloured mucus, together with a slight pain in walking, and an uneasiness in sitting, take place in females as in the former; but as the parts in women, which are most apt to be affected by the venereal poison, are less complex in their nature, and fewer in number, than in men, so of course the former are not liable to many of the symptoms which the latter are; and from the urinary canal being much shorter, and of a more simple form, in them than in men, they are seldom, if ever, incommoded by the taking place of strictures.

With women, it indeed often happens, that all the symptoms of a gonorrhoa are

so very slight, they experience no other inconvenience than the discharge, except perhaps immediately after menstruation, at which period, it is no uncommon occurrence for them to perceive some degree of aggra-

vation in the symptoms.

Women of a relaxed habit, and such as have had frequent miscarriages, are apt to be afflicted with a disease known by the name of fluor albus, which is often difficult to distinguish from gonorrhæa virulenta, as the matter discharged in both is, in many cases, of the same colour and consistence. The surest way of forming a just conclusion, in instances of this nature, will be to draw it from an accurate investigation, both of the symptoms which are present and those which have preceded the discharge; as likewise, from the concurring circumstances, such as the character and mode of life of the person, and the prboability there may be of her having had venereal infection conveyed to her by any connection in which she may be engaged.

Not long ago, it was generally supposed that gonorrhæa depended always upon ulcers in the urethra, producing a discharge of purulent matter; and such ulcers do, indeed, occur in consequence of a high degree of inflammation and suppuration; but many dissections of persons, who have died whilst labouring under a gonorrhœa, have clearly shewn that the disease may, and often does, exist without any ulceration in the urethra. so that the discharge which appears is usually of a vitiated mucus, thrown out from the mucous follicles of the urethra. On opening this canal, in recent cases, it usually appears red and inflamed; its mucous glands are somewhat enlarged, and its cavity is filled with matter to within a small distance from its extremity. Where the disease has been of long continuance, its surface all along, even to the bladder, is generally found pale and relaxed, without any erosion.

3. Gonorrhea laxorum libidinosa; a pellucid discharge from the urethra, without erection of the penis, but with venereal thoughts while awake.

Gonorche a dormientium, oneirogmos. When, during sleep, but dreaming of venereal engagements, there is an erection of the penis and a seminal discharge

GONORRIGEA BENIGNA. See Gonorrhaa

GONOBRHEEA CHORDATA. A gonorrhœa, accompanied with painful tension of the penis, called chordee.

GONORRIGHT DORMIENTIUM. Involuntary nocturnal emission.

GONORHUGA IMPURA. The venereal gonorrhoa.

LAXORUM. GONOHRHOM Im oluntary emission from debility.

GONORRHO:A LIMIDINOSA. Involuntary emission from lust.

A venereal or GONORRHŒA MALIGNA. malignant gonorrhæs.

GONORRHŒA MUCOSA. A discharge o mucus from the urethra, or gleet.

GONORRHEA ONEIROGMOS. An involuntary nocturnal emission.

GONORRHEEA PURA. A common gleet. GONORRHEEA SPURIA. A species of gonorrhoa affecting the glans.

GONORRHEA SYPHILITICA. The venereal gonorrhæa.

GONORRHEEA BALANI. A species of gonorrhœa affecting the glans penis only.

GONALGIA. (From yoru, the knee, and αλγος, pain.) Gonyalgin. Gout in the knee. Gornius. A species of vermes, peculiar

to hot climates. Goose foot, stinking. See Atriplex fa-

Goose-grass. See Aparine.

GOSSŸPIUM. (From gotne, whence gottipium, Egyptian.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Monadelphia. Order, Polyandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the cot-

ton tree. See Bombax.

Gossypium HERBACEUM. The systematic name of the cotton-plant. See Gos-

GOULARD'S EXTRACT. A saturated solution of acetat of lead. See Acetatis liquor phumbi.

Gourd. See Cucurbita. Gourd, bitter. See Colocynthis.

See Arthritis. GRACILIS. (Gracilis, from its smallness.( Rectus interior femoris sive gracilis interior of Winslow. Sous pubio creti tibial of Dumas. This long, straight, and slen-der muscle is situated immediately under the integuments, at the inner part of the thigh. It arises by a broad and thin tendon, from the anterior part of the ischium and pubis, and soon becoming fleshy, descends nearly in a straight direction along the inside of the thigh. A little above the knee, it terminates in a slender and roundish tendon, which afterwards becomes flatter, and is inserted into the middle of the tibia, behind and under the sartorius. Under the tendons of this and the rectus, there is a considerable bursa mucosa, which on one side adheres to them and to the tendon of the semitendinosus, and on the other to the capsular ligament of the knee. muscle assists in bending the thigh and leg inwards.

GRAMEN CANINUM. Gramen dioscoridis. Gramen repens. Loliaceum radice repente. Dog's grass. Couch grass Triticum repens of Linnæus. The roots are agreeably sweet, and possess aperient properties. The expressed juice is recommended to be given largely.

GRAMEN CRUCIS CYPERIOIDIS. Gramen Egyptiacum. Egyptian cock's-foot grass, or grass of the cross. The roots and plants

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possess the same virtues as the dog's grass, and are serviceable in the earlier stages of dropsy. They are supposed to correct the bad smell of the breath, and to relieve nephritic disorders, colics, &c. although now neglected.

GRAMIA. The sordes of the eyes.

Gramme. (From yeamm, a line; so called from its linear appearance.) The iris of the eye.

GRANA CRIDIA. See Coccognidia.
GRANA INSECTORIA. Kermes berries.
GRANA KERMES Kermes berries.

GRANA PARADISI. Cardamomum majus. Meleguetta maniguetta. Cardamomum piperatium. Grains of Paradise. The seeds of the Amomum grana Paradisi of Linnans. They are angular reddish brown seeds, smaller than pepper, and resembling very much the seeds of the cardamomum minus. They are extremely hot, and similar in virtue to pepper.

GRANA TIGLIA. See Tiglia grana. GRANA TINCTORIA. See Kermes.

GRANADILLA. (Dim. of granado, a pomegranate, Spanish: so called because at the top of the flower there are points, like the grains of a pomegranate.) The passion-flower, the fruit of which is said to possess refrigerating qualities.

GRANATRISTUM. A boil, or carbuncle.

GRANATUM. (From granum, a grain, because it is full of seed.) The pomegranate. The fruit of the Punica granatum of Linnaus:—foliis lanceolatis, caule arboreo. The rind of the fruit, and the flowers called Balaustine flowers, are the parts directed for medicinal use. In their smell there is nothing remarkable, but to the taste they are very adstringent, and have successfully been employed as such, in diseases both internal and external.

GRANDEBALE. (Quod in grandioribus etate nascantur, because they appear in those who are advanced in years.) The hairs under the arm-pits.

GRANDINES. Small tumours on the eyelids. See Grando.

GRANDINOSUM os. The cuboid bone of the foot.

GRANDO. (Quod similitudinem granorum habeat, because it is in shape and size like a grain of seed.) Hail. A moveable tumour on the margin of the cyclid is so called, from its likeness to a hail stone.

GRANULATION. (Granulatio; from granum, a grain.) The little grain-like fleshy bodies, which form on the surfaces of nlcers and suppurating wounds, and serve both for filling up the cavities, and bringing nearer together and uniting their sides.

Nature, in bringing parts as nearly as possible to their original state, whose disposition, action, and structure, have been altered by accident, or disease; and after having, in her operations for this purpose, formed pus, she immediately sets about forming

a new matter upon surfaces, in which there has been a breach of continuity. This process is called granulating or incarnation; and the substance formed is called granulations. The colour of healthy granulations is a deep floral red. When livid, they are unhealthy, and have only a languid circulation. Healthy granulations, on an exposed or flat surface, rise nearly even with the surface of the surrounding skin, and often a little higher; but when they exceed this, and take on a growing disposition, they are unhealthy, become soft, spongy, and without any disposition to form skin. Healthy granulations are always prone to unite to each other, so as to be the means of uniting parts.

Granum moschi. See Abelmoschus.
Granum negium. The castor-oil seed.

Graphioides. (From 1820ts, a pencil, and 250s, a form.) The processus styliformis of the os temporis and ulna is so called. The musculus biventer vel digastricus was formerly so called, from its supposed origin from the process of the temple-bone, so called.

GBASSA. Borax.

GRATIOLA. (Dim. of gratia, so named from its supposed adm. rable qualities.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Liunxan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Monogunia.

The pharmacopæial name of the hedgehyssop, called also digitalis minima, gratia dei, gratiola centaurioides. This exotic plant, the Gratiola officinalis of Linnaus:folis lanceolatis serratis, floribus pedunculatis, is a native of the south of Europe; but is raised in our gardens. The leaves have a nauseous bitter taste, but no remarkable smell: they purge and vomit briskly in the dose of half a drachm of the dry herb, and of a drachm infused in wine or water. plant, in small doses, has been commonly employed as a cathartic and diuretic in hpdropical diseases, and instances of its good effects in ascites and anasarca are recorded by many respectable practitioners. Gesner and Bergius found a coruple of the powder a sufficient dose, as in this quantity it frequently excited nausea or vomiting; others have given it to half a drachm, two scruples, a drachm, and even more.

An extract of the root of this plant is said to be more efficacious than the plant itself, and exhibited in the dose of half a drachm, or a drachm, in dysenteries, produces the best effects. We are also told by Kostrzewski that, in the hospitals at Vienna, three maniacal patients were perfectly recovered by its use; and in the most confirmed cases of lues venerea, it effected a complete cure; it usually acted by increasing the urinary cutaneous, or salivary discharges.

GRATIOLA OFFICINALIS, The syste-

matic name of the hedge-hyssop. See Gratiola.

GHAVEDO. (From gravis, heavy.) catarrh, or cold, with a sense of heaviness in the head.

Gravel. See Calculus.

Green sickness. See Chlorosis.

GRESSUHA. (From gredier, to proceed.) The perinaum which goes from the pudendum to the anus.

GRIELUM. A name formerly applied to

parsley; smallage.

GRIPHOMENOS. (From yeipos, a net, because it surrounds the body as with a net.) Applied to pains which surround the body at the loins.

Gromwell, common. See Lithospermum. GROSSULARIA. (Dim. of grossus, an unripe fig; so named because its fruit resembles an unripe fig.) The gooseberry

or gooseberry-bush.

GHOTTO DEL CANT. A grotto near Naples, in which dogs are suffocated. The carbonic acid air rises about eighteen inches. A man therefore is not affected, but a dog forcibly held in, or who cannot rise above it, is soon killed, unless taken He is recovered by plunging him in an adjoining loke.

Ground liverwort. See Lichen cinereus

terrestris.

GROUND IVY. A common plant used in the form of infusion or tea in pectoral complaints. See Hedera.

Groundpine. See Chamæpitys.

Ground nut. See Pignut.
Groundsel. See Erigerum.
Guurum. Mihum. A hard white tubercle of the skin, resembling in size and appearance a millet-seed.

GRYPHOSIS. (From ppurow, to incurvate.) A disease of the balls, which turn inwards, and irritate the soft parts below.

GUAIACUM. (From the Spanish Guayacan, which is formed from the Indian Hoa.r. acan.) Guaracum Americanum, Lignum vitæ Lignum sanctum. Lignum benedictum. Palus sanctus

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Decandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the officinal gualacum, Guiaincum officinale of Linnams:-folius bijngis obtusis. This tree is a native of the West Indian islands. The wood, gum, bark, fruit, and even the flowers, have been found to possess medicinal qualities. The wood is brought principally from Jamaica, in large pieces of four or five hundred weight each, and from its hardness and beauty is used for various articles of turnery ware. It scarcely discovers any smell, unless heated, or while rasping, in which circumstances it yields a light aromatic one: chewed, it impresses a slight acrimony, biting the palate and fauces. The gum, or rather resin, is ob-

tained by wounding the bark in different parts of the body of the tree, or by what has been called jagging. It exudes copiously from the wounds, though gradually; and when a quantity is found accumulated upon the several wounded trees, hardened by exposure to the sun, it is gathered and packed up in small kegs for exportation; it is of a friable texture, of a deep greenish colour, and sometimes of a reddish hue; it has a pungent sorid taste, but little or no smell, unless heated. The bark contains less resinous matter than the wood, and is consequently a less powerful medicine, though in a recent state it is strongly cathartic. "The fruit," says a late author, " is purgative, and, for medicinal use, far excels the bark. A decoction of it has been known to cure the venereal disease, and even the yaws in its advanced stage, without the use of mercury." The flowers or blossoms, are laxative, and in Jamaica are commonly given to the children in the form of syrup. It is only the wood and resin of guaiacum which are now in general medicinal use in Europe; and as the efficacy of the former is supposed to be derived merely from the quantity of resinous matter which it contains, they may be considered indiscriminately as the same medicine. Guaiacum was first introduced into the materia medica soon after the discovery of America; and previous to the use of mercury in the lues venerea, it was the principal remedy employed in the cure of that disease; its great success brought it into such repute, that it is said to have been sold for seven gold crowns a pound: but notwithstanding the very numerous testimonies in its favour, it often failed in curing the patient, and was at length entirely superseded by mercury; and though it be still occasionally employed in syphilis, it is rather with a view to correct other diseases in the habit, than for its effects as an antivenereal. It is now more generally employed for its virtues in curing gouty and rheumatic pains, and some cutaneous diseases. Dr. Woodville and others frequently conjoined it with mercury and soap, and in some cases with bark or steel, and found it eminently useful as an alterative. In the pharmacopoias it is directed in the form of tincture and elixir: the latter is ordered by the Edinburgh College to be prepared in two ways, viz. with rectified spirit, and the virous spirit of sal ammoniac. Of these compounds, the dose may be from two scruples to two drachms; the gum is generally given from 6 grains to 20 or even more, for a dose, either in pills or in a fluid form, by means of mucilage or the yolk of an egg. The decoctum lignorum (Pharm. Eding.) of which guaiacum is the chief ingredient, is commonly taken in the quantity of a pint a day. As many writers of the sixteenth centure

contended that guaiacum was a true specific for the venereal disease, and the celebrated Boerhaave maintained the same opinion, the following observations are inserted: Mr. Pearson mentions, that when he was first intrusted with the care of the Lock Hospital, in 1781, Mr. Bromfield and Mr. Williams were in the habit of reposing great confidence in the efficacy of a decoction of guaiacum wood. This was ad-ministered to such patients as had already employed the usual quantity of mercury; but who complained of nocturnal pains, or had gummata, nodes, ozæna, and other effects of the venereal virus, connected with secondary symptoms, as did not yield to a course of mercurial frictions. The diet consisted of raisins, and hard biscuit; from 2 to 4 pints of the decoction were taken every day; the hot bath was used twice a week; and a dose of antimonial wine and laudanum, or Dover's powder, was commonly taken every evening. Constant confinement to bed was not deemed necessary; neither was exposure to the vapour of burning spirit, with a view of exciting perspiration, often practised; as only a moist state of the skin was desired. This treatment was sometimes of singular advantage to those whose health had sustained injury from the disease, long confinement, and mercury. The strength increased; bad ulcers healed; exfoliations were completed; and these anomalous symptoms, which would have been exasperated by mercury, soon yielded to guaiacum.

Besides such cases, in which the good effects of guaiacum made it be erroneously regarded as a specific for the lues venerea, the medicine was also formerly given, by some, on the first attack of the venereal The disorder being thus benefited, a radical cure was considered to be accomplished; and though frequent relapses followed, yet, as these partly yielded to the same remedy, its reputation was still kept up. Many diseases also, which got well, were probably not venereal Mr. Pearson seems to allow, that in symphilitic affections, it may indeed operate like a true antidote, suspending, for a time the progress of certain venerear symptoms, and removing other appearances altogether; but he observes, that experience has evinced, that the unsubdued virus yet remains active in the con-

stitution.

Mr. Pearson has found guaiacum of little use in pains of the bones, except when it proved sudorific; but that it was then inferior to antimony or volatile alkali. When the constitution has been impaired by mercury and long confinement, and there is a thickened state of the ligaments, or periosteum, or foul ulcers still remaining, Mr. Pearson says, these effects will often subside during the exhibition of the decoction; and

it will often suspend for a short time the progress of certain secondary symptoms of the lues venerea: for instance, ulcers of the tonsils, venereal cruptions, and even nodes. Mr. Pearson, however, never knew one instance, in which guaiacom eradicated the virus; and he contends, that its being conjoined with mercury neither increases the virtue of this mineral, lessens its bad effects, nor diminishes the necessity of giving a certain quantity of it. Mr. Pearson remarks that he has seen guaiacum produce good effects in many patients, having cutaneous diseases, the ozana, and scrophulous affections of the membranes and ligaments.

Guinea-worm. The Gordius medinensis. GUM. The mucilage of vegetables. is usually transparent, more or less brittle when dry, though difficultly pulverable; of an insipid, or slightly saccharine taste; soluble in, or capable of combining with, water in all proportions, to which it gives a gluey adhesive consistence, in proportion as its quantity is greater. It is separable, or coagulates by the action of weak acids; it is insoluble in alkohol, and in oil; and capable of the acid fermentation, when diluted with water. The destructive action of fire causes it to emit much carbonic acid, and converts it into coal without exhibiting any flame. Distillation affords water, acid a small quantity of oil, a small quantity of

These are the leading properties of gums, rightly so called; but the inaccurate custom of former times applied the term gum to all concrete vegetable juices so that in common we hear of gum copal, gum sandarach, and other gums, which are either pure resins, or mixtures of resins with the vegetable mucilage.

ammonia, and much coal.

The principal gums are, 1. The common gums, obtained from the plum, the reach, the cherry-tree, &c. 2. Gum arabic, which flows naturally from the acacia in Egypt, Arabia, and elsewhere. This forms a clear transparent mucilage with water. 3. Gum Seneca or Senegal. It does not greatly differ from gum arabic: the pieces are larger and clearer; and it seems to communicate a higher degree of the adhesive quality to water. It is much used by calico-printers and others. The first sort of gums are frequently sold by this name, but may be known by their darker colour. 4. Gum adragant or tragacanth. It is obtained from a small plant of the same name, growing in Syria, and other eastern parts. It comes to us in small white contorted pieces resembling worms. It is usually dearer than other gums, and forms a thicker jelly with water.

Mr. Willis has found, that the root of the common blue bell, hyaenthus non scriptus, dried and powder d, affords a mucilage possessing all the qualities of that from gum arabic. The roots of the vernal squill, white lily and orchis, equally yield muchage. Lord Dundonald has extracted a mucilage also from licheus.

Gums treated with nitric acid afford the

acid of sugar.

Gum-boil. See Parulis.
GUMMA. A strumous tumour on the periosteum of a bone.

GUMMI ARABICUM. See Acaciæ gummi.

GUMMI CARANNE. See Carunna. GUMMI CERASORUM. The juices which exude from the back of cherry-trees. is very similar to gum arabic, for which it may be substituted.

GUMMI CHIBOU. A spurious kind of gum

elimi, but little used.

GUMMI COURBARIL. An epithet sometimes applied to the juice of the Hymenaa courbaril. See Anime.

GUMMI EUPHORHII. See Euphorbium.

GUMMI GALDA. See Galda. GUMMI GAMBIENSE. See Kino.

GUMMI GUTTE. See Gambogia.

sinous juice of the Hedera helix of Linnæus, or ivy. It is imported from the East Indies, though it may be collected from trees in this country. It is brought over in hard compact masses, externally of a reddish brown colour, internally of a bright brownish yellow, with reddish specks or veins. It has a strong, resmous, agreeable smell, and an adstringent taste. Though never used in the practice of the present day, it possesses corroborant, adstringent, and antispasmodic virtues.

GUMMI JUNIPERINUM. See Sandarack. GUMMI KIKEKUNEMALO. See Kikekune-

GUMMI KINO. See Kino.

GUMMI LACCA. See Lacca.

GUMMI MYHRHA. See Myrrha.

GUMMI HESINA LUTEA. An astringent gum from New Holland.

GUMMI RUBRUM ASTHINGENS GAMBIENSE. See Kino.

GUMMI SAGAPENUM. See Sagapenum.

GUMMI SENEGALENSE. This is a true guin, brought from the country through which the river Senegal runs, in loose or single drops, much larger than gum arabic. It exudes from the Mimosa Senegal of Linnæus. And is similar in virtue and quality to the gum arabic, and the gum which exndes in this climate from the cherry-trees.

See Traga-GUMMI TRAGACANTHE.

GUM-RESIN. Gum-resina. Gum-resins are the juices of plants that are mixed with resin, and an extractive matter, which has been taken for a gummy substance.

They seldom flow naturally from plants, but are mostly extracted by incision, in the form of white, yellow, or red fluids, which dry more or less quickly. Water, spirit of wine, wine or vinegar, dissolve them only face and nose.

in part, according to the proportion they contain of resin or extract. Gum-resins may also be formed by art, by digesting the parts of vegetables containing the gumresin in diluted alkahol, and then evaporating it. For this reason most tinctures contain gum-resin. The principal gumresins employed medicinally are aloes, ammoniacum, asafœtida, galbanum, gambogia, guaiacum, myrrha, olibanum, opoponax, sag penum, sarcocolla, scammonium, and styrax.

GUMS. Gingiva. The very vascular and elastic substance that covers the alveolar arches of the upper and under jaws, and embraces the necks of the teeth.

GUTTA Alunsel. A drop. Drops are uncertain forms of administering medicines. The shape of the bottle, or of its mouth, from whence the drops fall, as well as the consistence of the fluid, occasions a considerable difference in the quantity administered.

Gutta is also a name of the apoplexy, from a supposition that its cause was a drop of blood falling from the brain upon the heart.

GUTTA GAMBA. See Gambogia,

GUTTA OPACA. A name for the cata-

GUTTA SERENA (So called by the Arabians.) Amaurosis. This is a disease of the eye attended with a diminution or total loss of sight, and arising from a paralytic affection of the retina and optic

The symptoms of gutta serena are noted for being very irregular. In many cases, the pupil is very much dilated, immoveable and of its natural black colour. Sometimes, however, in the most complete and incurable cases, the pupil is of its natural size, and the iris capable of free motion. In some cases, the pupil has a dull, glassy or horny appearance. Sometimes its colour is greenish, occasionally whitish and opake, so as to be liable to be mistaken for an incipient cataract. Richter mentions a degree of strabismus, as the only symptom, except the loss of sight, as invariably attendant on amaurosis.

The blindness produced by the gutta serena, is generally preceded by an ima-ginary appearance of numerous insects, or substances, like cobwebs, interposing themselves between objects and the eye. The origin of a cataract on the other hand, is usually attended with a simple cloudiness of vision.

GUTTE NIGRE. The black drops, occasionally called the Lancashire or the Cheshire drops. A secret preparation of opium, said to be more active than the common tincture and supposed to be less injurious, as seldons followed by headache.

GUTTE ROSACEE. Red spots upon the

GUTTURAL ARTERY. The superior thyroideal artery. The first branch of the ex-

ternal carotid.

GYMNASTICA. (From yupros, naked, performed by naked men in the public games. A method of curing diseases by exercise, or that part of physic which treats of the rules that are to be observed in all sorts of exercises, for the preservation of health. This is said to have been invented by one Herodicus, born at Salymbra, a city of Thrace; or, as some say, at Leutini in Sicily. He was first master of an academy, where young gentlemen came to learn warlike and manly exercises; and observing them to be very healthful on that account, he made exercise become an art in reference to the recovering of men out of diseases, as well as preserving them from them: and called it Gymnastic, which he made a great part of his practice of physic. But Hippocrates, who was his scholar, blames him sometimes for his excesses

with this view. And Plato exclaims against him with some warmth, for enjoining his patients to walk from Ahens to Megara, which is about 25 miles, and to come home on foot as they went, as soon as ever they had but touched the walls of the city.

GYNECIA. (From your, woman.) It signifies the menses, and sometimes the

lochia.

GYNECIUM. (From youn, a woman.) A seraglio; the budendum muliebre; also a name for antimony.

GYNECOMANIA. (From youn, a woman, and uavia, madness.) That species of insa-

nity that arises from love.

GYNECOMASTON. (From youn, a woman, and  $\mu\alpha$ 505, a breast.) An enormous increase of the breasts of women.

GYNECOMYSTAX. (From γυγη, a woman, and μυςταξ, a beard.) The hairs on the female pudenda.

H.

HABENA. A bridle. A bandage for keeping the lips of wounds together, made in the form of a bridle.

HACUB. A species of cardinus. Gundelia tournefortii of Linnaus:—the young shoots of which are eaten by the Indians, but the

roots are en.etic.

Hæmagoga. (From αμα, blood, and αγα, to bring off.) Medicines which promote the menstrual and hæmorrhoidal discharges.

Hæmalopia. (From αμια, blood, and σπομα, to see.) A disease of the eyes, in which all things appear of a red colour. A variety of the pseudoblepsis imaginaria.

Hæmators. (From αιμα, blood, and ωψ, the face.) A red or livid mark in the face

or eye. A blood-shot eye.

Hæmanthus. (From the αμα, blood, and ανθος, a flower, so called from its colour.) The blood-flower.

HÆMATEMESIS (From αμα, blood, and εμεω, to vomit.) Vomitus cruentus.

A vomiting of blood. A vomiting of blood is readily to be distinguished from one which proceeds from the lungs, by its being usually preceded by a sense of weight, pain, or anxiety in the region of the stomach; by its being unaccompanied by any cough; by its being discharged in a very considerable quantity; by its being of a dark colour, and somewhat grumous; and by its being mixed with the other contents of the stomach.

The disease may be occasioned by any thing received into the stomach, which stimulates it violently or wounds it; or may proceed from blows, bruises, or any other cause capable of exciting inflammation in this organ, or of determining too great a flow of blood to it; but it arises more usally as a symptom of some other disease (such as a suppression of the menstrual, hæmorrhoidal flux, or obstructions in the liver, spleen, and other viscera) than as a primary affection.

Hæmatemesis is seldom so profuse as to destroy the patient suddenly, and the principal danger seems to arise, either from the great debility which repeated attacks of the complaint induce, or from the lodgment of blood in the intestines, which by becoming putrid might occasion some other disagreeable disorder.

The appearances to be observed on dissection, where it proves fatal, will depend on the disease of which it has proved symp-

tomatic.

HEMATITES. (From upa, blood, so named from its property of stopping blood, or from its colour.) Lapts hematites. Bit odstone. An elegant from ore caffed bloodstone. Finely levigated, and freed from the grosser parts by frequent washings with water, it has been long recommended in hemorrhages, fluxes, uterine obstructions, &c. in doses of from one scruple to three or four.

HEMATINUS. (From apading, the bloodstone.) An epithet of a collyrium, in

which was the bloodstone.

HÆMATOCELE. (From 21µ2, blood,

and \*\*\*, a tumour.) A swelling of the scrotum, or spermatic chord, proceeding

from or caused by blood.

The distinction of the different kinds of ha natocele, though not usually made, is absolutely necessary towards rightly understanding the disease; the general idea, or conception of which, appears to Mr. Pott to be somewhat erroncous, and to have produced a prognostic which is ill founded and hasty. According to this eminent surgeon, the disease properly called hæmatocele is of four kinds: two of which have their seat within the tunica vaginalis testis; one within the albuginea; and the fourth in the tunica communis, or common cellular membrane, investing the spermatic vessels.

In the passing an instrument, in order to let out the water from an hydrocele of the vagnal coat, a vessel is sometimes wounded, which is of such size, as to tinge the fluid pretty deeply at the time of its running out: the orifice becoming close, when the water is all discharged, and a plaster being applied, the blood ceases to flow from thence, but insimites itself partly into the eavity of the vaginal coat, and partly into the cells of the dartos; making sometimes, in the space of a few hours, a tumour nearly equal in size to the original hydrocele. This is one species.

It sometimes happens in tapping an hydrocele, that although the fluid discharged by that operation be perfectly clear and timpid, yet in a very short space of time (sometimes in a few hours) the scrotum becomes as large as it was before, and palpably as full of a fluid. If a new puncture be now made, the discharge instead of being limpid (as before) is now either pure blood or very bloody. This is another species; but, like the preceding, confined

to the tunica vaginalis.

The whole vascular compages of the testucle is sometimes very much enlarged, and at the same time rendered so lax and loose, that the tumour produced thereby has, to the fingers of an examiner, very much the appearance of a swelling composed of a mere fluid, supposed to be somewhat thick, or viscid. This is in some measure a deception; but not totally so; the greater part of the tumefaction is caused by the loosened texture of the testes; but there is very frequently a quantity of extravasated blood also.

If this be supposed to be an hydrocele, and pierced, the discharge will be mere blood. This is a third kind of hæmatocele; and very different, in all its circumstances, from the two preceding: the fluid is shed from the vessels of the glandular part of the testicles, and contained within the tunica albuginea.

The fourth consists of a rupture of, and an effusion of blood, from a branch of the spermatic vein, in its passage from the groin to the testicle. In which case, the Catravasation is made into the tunica communis, or cellular membrane, investing the spermatic vessels.

Each of these species, Mr. Potts says, he has seen so distinctly, and perfectly, that he has not the smallest doubt concerning their existence, and of their difference from

each other.

HEMATOCHYSIS. (From 2μμ2, blood, and  $\chi_{\omega}$ , to pour out.) A hæmorrhage or flux of blood.

HÆMATODES. (From aua, blood; so called from the red colour of its flowers.)

1. An old name of the bloody cranesbill. See Geranium sunguineum.

2. Now applied to a fungus or fleshy excrescense, which has somewhat the appear-

ance of blood.

HÆMATOLOGY. (From αιμα, blood, and λογος, a discourse.) Hæmotologia. The

doctrine of the blood.

Henatomphalocele. (From αμα, blood, ομφαλ), the navel, and καλη, a tumour, λ a species of ecchymosis. A tumour about the navel from an extrava-ation of blood. It is mostly absorbed, but, if too considerable, a puncture may be made to evacuate the blood, as in ecchymosis. See Ecchymosis.

Hematopenesis. (From αιμα, blood, and σσδαω, to leap.) The leaping of the blood from a wounded artery.

HEMOTOSIS. (From aqua, blood.) An

hamorrhage or flux of blood.

H.EMATONYLON. (From αιρα, blood, and ξολον, wood; so called from the red colour of its wood.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Monogynia.

HÆMATOXYLUM. (From αμα, blood, or αμαθικος, bloody, and ξυλόν, wood.) The name in some pharmacopæias for the logwood; which is so called from its red colour. See Lignum campechense.

HEMATOXYLON CAMPECHIANUM. The systematic name of the logwood-tree. See

Lignum campechianum.

HEMATURIA (From eque, blood, and seev, urine.) The voiding of blood with urine. This disease is sometimes occasioned either by falls, blows, bruises, or some violent exertion, such as hard riding and jumping; but it more usually arises from a small stone lodged either in the kidney or ureter, which, by its size or irregularity, wounds the inner surface of the partit comes in contact with; in which case the blood discharged is most usually somewhat coagulated, and deposits a sediment of a dark-brown colour, resembling the grounds of coffee.

A discharge of blood by urinc, when proceeding from the kidney or ureter, is commonly attended with an acute pain in the back, and some difficulty of making water, the urine, which comes away first, being muddy and high coloured, but to-

wards the close of its flowing, becoming transparent and of a natural appearance. When the blood proceeds immediately from the bladder, it is usually accompanied with a sense of heat and pain at the bottom

of the belly.

The voiding of bloody urine is always attended with some danger, particularly when mixed with purulent matter. When it arises in the course of any malignant disease, it shews a highly putrid state of the blood, and always indicates a fatal termination.

\* The appearances to be observed on dissection will accord with those usually met with in the disease which has given rise to

the complaint.

Η ΕΝΟΒΙΑ. (From αιμωδοω, to stupefy.)

A painful stupor of the seeth, caused by

acrid substances touching them.

ΗΕΜΟΡΤΟΕ. (From αιμα, blood, and πλυω, to spit up.) The spitting of blood.

See Hamoptysis.

HÆMOPTYSIS. (From asua, blood, Alua, to spit.) Hamoptoe. A spitting of blood. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class of pyrexie, and order hemorrhagia It is characterized by coughing up florid or trothy blood, preceded usually by heat or pain in the chest, irritation in the larynx, and a saltish taste in the mouth. There are five species of this disease: 1. Hamoptysis plethorica, from fulness of the vessels. 2. Hamoptysis viotenta, from some external violence. 3. Hamoptysis phthisica, from ulcers corroding the small vessels. 4. Hamoptysis calculosa, from calculous matter in the lungs. 5. Hamoptysis vacaria, from the suppression of some customary evacuation.

It is readily to be distinguished from hematemesis, as in this last the blood is usually thrown out in considerable quantities; and is, moreover, of a darker colour, more grumous, and mixed with the other contents of the stomach; whereas blood proceeding from the lungs is usually in small quantity, of a florid colour, and mixed with a little frothy mucus only.

A spitting of blood arises most usually between the ages of 16 and 25, and may be occasioned by any violent exertine either in running, jumping, wrestling, singing loud, or blowing wind-instruments; as likewise by wounds, plethora, weak vessels, hectic fever, coughs, irregular living, excessive drinking, or the suppression of some accustomed discharge, such as the menstrual or hæmorrhoidal. It may likewise be occasioned by breathing air which is too much! rarefied to be able properly to expand the lungs.

Persons in whom there is a faulty proportion either in the vessels of the lungs, or in the capacity of the chest, being distinguished by a narrow thorax and prominent shoulders, or who are of a delicate make and sanguine temperament, seem much predisposed to this hamorrhage; but in these, the complaint is often brought on by the concurrence of the various occasional and exciting causes before mentioned.

A spitting of blood is not, however, always to be considered as a primary disease. It is often only a symptom, and in some disorders, such as pleurisies, peripneumonies, and many fevers, often arises, and is the presage of a favourable termination.

Sometimes it is preceded (as has already been observed) by a sense of weight and oppression at the chest, a dry tickling cough, and some slight difficulty of breathing. Sometimes it is ushered in with shiverings, coldness at the extremities, pains in the back and loins, flatulency, costiveness, and lassitude. The blood which is spit up is sometimes thin, and of a florid red colour; and at other times it is thick, and of a dark or blackish cast; nothing, however, can be inferred from this circumstance, but that the blood has lain a longer or shorter time in the breast, before it was discharged.

An hæmoptooe is not attended with danger, where no symptoms of phthisis pulmonalis have preceded, or accompanied the hæmorrhage, or where it leaves behind no cough, dyspnæa, or other affection of the lungs; nor is it dangerous in a strong healthy person, of a sound constitution; but when it attacks persons of a weak lax fibre, and delicate habit, it may be difficult

to remove it.

It seldom takes place to such a degree as to prove fatal at once; but when it does, the effusion is from some large vessel. The danger, therefore, will be in proportion as the discharge of blood comes from a large vessel, or a small one.

When the disease proves fatal, in consequence of the rupture of some large vessels, there is found, on dissection, a considerable quantity of clotted blood betwixt the lungs and pleura, and there is usually more or less of an inflammatory appearance at the ruptured part. Where the disease terminates in pulmonary consumption, the same morbid appearances are to be met with as described under that particular head.

HÆMORRHAGIA. (From αιμα, blood, and ρηγισμο, to break out.) A hæmorrhage;

or flow of blood.

HEMORRHAGLE. Hamorrhages, or afflixes of blood. An order in the class pyrexia of Cullen's nosology is so called It is characterized by pyrexia with a discharge of blood, without any external injury; the blood on venæsection exhibiting the buffy coat. The order hamorrhagia contains the following genera of diseases, viz. epistaxis, hæmorrhois and menorrhagia.

HEMORRHODAL ARTERIES. Arteria hamorrhoidules. The arteries of the rectum are to called: they are sometimes two, and at other times three, in number

1. The upper hamorrhoidal artery, which is the great branch of the lower mesenteric continued into the pelvis. 2. The middle hamorrhoidal, which sometimes comes off from the hypogastric artery, and very often from the pudical artery. It is sometimes wanting. 3. The lower or external hamorrhoidal is almost always a branch of the pudical artery, or that artery which goes to the penis.

HÆMORRHOIDAL VEINS. Venæ Hæmorrhoidales. These are two. 1. The external, which evacuates itself into the vena iliaca interna. 2. The internal, which conveys its blood into the vena portæ.

HÆMORRHOIS. (From αιμα, blood, and εια, to flow.) Aimorrhois. The piles. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia and order hamorrhagia of Cullen. They are certain exorescences or tumours arising about the verge of the anus, or the inferior part of the intestinum rectum; when they discharge blood, particularly upon the patient's going to stool, the disease is known by the name of bleeding piles: but when there is no discharge, it is called blind piles. The rectum, as well as the colon, is composed of several muscular membranes, connected to each other by an intervening cellular substance; and as the muscular fibres of this intestine always tend, by their contraction, to lessen its cavity, the internal membrane, which is very lax, forms itself into several rugæ or folds. In this construction nature respects the use of the part, which occasionally gives passage to or allows the retention of the excrements, the hardness and bulk of which might produce considerable lacerations, if this intestine were not capable of dilatation. The arteries and veins subscrvient to this part are called hæmorrhoidal, and the blood that returns from hence is carried to the meseraic veins. The intestinum rectum is particularly subject to the hamorrhoids, from its situation, structure, and use; for whilst the course of the blood is assisted in almost all the other veins of the body, by the distension of the adjacent muscies, and the pressure of the neighbouring parts, the blood in the hamorrhoidal veins, which is to ascend against the natural tendency of its own weight, is not only destitute of these assistances, but is impeded in its passage: for, first, the large excrements which lodge in this intestine dilate its sides, and the different resistances which they form there are so many impediments obstructing the return of the blood; not in the large veins, for they are placed along the external surface of the intestine, but in all the capillaries which enter into its composition. Secondly, as often as these large excrements, protruded by others, approach near the anns, their successive pressure upon the internal coats of the intestine, which they

and for so long suspends its course; the necessary consequence of which is, a distension of the veins in proportion to the quantity of blood that fills them. Thirdly, in every effort we make, either in going to stool, or upon any other occasion, the contraction of the abdominal muscles, and the diaphragm pressing the contents of the abdomen downwards, and these pressing upon the parts contained in the pelvis, another obstruction is thereby opposed to the return of the blood, not only in the large veins, but also in the capillaries, which, being of too weak a texture to resist the impulse of the blood that always tends to dilate them, may thereby become varicose.

The dilatation of all these vessels is the primary cause of the hamorrhoids; for the internal coat of the intestine, and the cel-Inlar membrane which connects that to the muscular coat, are enlarged in proportion to the distension of the vessels of which they are composed. This distension, not being equal in every part, produces separate tumours in the gut, or at the verge of the anus, which increases according as the venal blood is obstructed in them, or circulates

there more slowly.

Whatever, then, is capable of retarding the course of the blood in the hæmorrhoidal veins, may occasion this disease. Thus, persons that are generally costive, who are accustomed to sit long at stool, and strain hard; pregnant women, or such as have had difficult labours; and likewise persons who have an obstruction in their liver; are for the most part afflicted with the piles; yet every one has not the hæmorrhoids, the different causes which are mentioned above being not common to all, or at least not having in all the same effects. When the hamorrhoids are once formed, they seldom disappear entirely, and we may judge of those within the rectum by those, which, being at the verge of the anus, are plainly to be seen. A small pile, that has been painful for some days, may cease to be so, and dry up; but the skin does not afterwards retain its former firmness, being more lax and wrinkled, like the empty skin of a grape. If this external pile swells and sinks again several times, we may perceive, after each return, the remains of each pile, though shrivelted and decayed, yet still left larger than before. The case is the same with those that are situated within the rectum; they may happen indeed never to return again, if the cause that produced them is removed; but it is probable that the excrements in passing out occasion a return of the swelling, to which the external ones are less liable: for the internal piles make a sort of knots or tumours in the intestine, which straightening the passage, the excrements, in passing out, occasion irritations there, that are more or less painful in prodilate, drives back the blood into the reins, portion to the efforts which the person

makes in going to stool; and it is thus these tumours become gradually larger. hæmorrhoids are subject to many variations; they may become inflamed from the above irritations to which they are exposed, and this inflammation cannot always be removed by art. In some, the inflammation terminates in an abscess, which arises in the middle of the tumour, and degenerates into a fistula. These piles are very painful till the abscess is formed. In others, the inflammation terminates by induration of the hamorrhoid, which remains in a man-ner schirrous. These never lessen, but must necessarily grow larger. This schirrous sometimes ulcerates, and continually discharges a sanies, which the patient perceives by stains on his shirt, and by its occasioning a very troublesome itching about the verge of the anus. These kinds of hamorrhoids sometimes turn cancerous. There are some hamorrhoids, and those of different sizes, which are covered with so fine a skin as frequently to admit blood to pass through This fine skin is only the internal coat of the rectum, greatly attenuated by the varicose distension of its vessels. The hæmorrhage may proceed from two causes; namely, either from an excoriation produced by the hardness of the excrements, or from the rupture of the tumefied vessels, which break by their too great distension. In some of these, the patient voids blood almost every time he goes to stool; in others not so constantly. We sometimes meet with men who have a periodical bleeding by the piles, not unlike the menses in women; and as this evacuation, if moderate, does not weaken the constitution, we may infer that it supplies some other evacuation. which nature either ceases to carry on, or does not furnish in due quantity; and hence also we may explain why the suppression of this discharge, to which nature had been accustomed, is frequently attended with dangerous diseases. The hæmorrhoids are sometimes distended to that degree as to fill the rectum, so that if the excrements are at all hard they cannot pass. In this case the excrements force the hæmorrhoids out of the anus, to procure a free passage, consequently the internal coat of the rectum, to which they are connected, yields to extension, and upon examining these patients commediately after having been at stool, a part of the internal coat of that gut is perceived forming a sort of ligature or stricture round the hamorrhoids. A difficulty will occur in the return of these, in proportion to their size, and as the verge of the anus is more or less contracted. If the bleeding piles come out in the same manner upon going to stool, it is then they void most blood, because the verge of the anus forms a kind of ligature above them.

HEMOSTASIA. (From αιμα, blood, and 15ημι, to stand.) A stagnation of blood.

ΠΕΜΟSTATICA. (From αιμα, blood, and

HEMOSTATICA. (From aims, 5100d, and 520, 10 stop.) Styptics. Medicines which stop hamorrhages.

Hagiospermum. (From appe, holy, and stepped, seed, so called from its reputed

virtues.) Wormseed.

HAGIOXYLUM. (From αγιος, holy, and ξυλοη, wood, so named because of its medi-

cal virtues.) Guaiacum.

HAIR. Pili. Capilli. The hairs of the human body are thin, elastic, dry filaments, arising from the skin. They consist of the bulb, situated under the skin, which is a vascular and nervous vesicle; and a trunk, which perforates the skin and cuticle, and is covered with a peculiar vagina. The colour of hair varies; its seat, however, is in the medullary juice. The hair, according to its situation, is differently named; thus, on the head it is called capilli; over the eyes, supercilia; cilia, on the margin of the eyelids; vibrissa, in the foramina of the nostrils; pili auriculares, in the external auditory passage; mystax, on the upper lip; and barba, on the lower jaw.

HALATIUM. (From ans, salt.) A clyster

composed chiefly of salt.

HALCHEMIA. (From αλς, salt, and χεω, to pour out.) The art of fusing salts.

HALELEUM. (From αλς, salt, and ελαιον,

oil.) A medicine composed of salt and oil.

HALICABACUM. (From ans, the sea, and manabes, night-shade; so called because it grows upon the banks of the sea.) See

Alkekengi.

HALIMUS. (From ans, the sea, because of its saltish taste.) Sea-purslane, said to be

antispasmodic.

Halinithum. (From ans, the sea, and vilgor, nitre.) Nitre, or rather rock

HALITUS. (From halite, to breathe

out.) A vapour or gaz.

HALLUCINATIO. (From hallucinor, to err.) A deprayed or erroneous imagination.

HALO. (From alog, an area or circle.) The red circle surrounding the nipple, which becomes somewhat brown in old people, and is beset with many sebaceous glands.

Halmyrones. (From applied, salted.) A term applied to the humours; it means acrimonious. It is also applied to fevers which communicate such an itching sensation as is perceived from handling salt substances.

HAMALGAN .. See Amalgam.

HAMPSTEAD WATER. A good chalybeate mineral water in the neighbourhood of London.

HAMULUS. (Dim. of hamus, a hook.) Hamus. A term in anatomy, applied to any hook-like process, as the hamulus of the pterygoid process of the sphanoid latter is employed largely as an internal

HAMUR. See Hamulus.

HAND. Manus. The hand is composed of the carpus or wrist, mctacarpus, and fingers. The arteries of the hand are the palmary arch and the digital arteries. The veins are the digital, the cephalic of the thumb, and the salvatella. The nerves are the cutaneus externus and internus.

HARDESIA. See Lapis Hibernicus. HARE-LIP. Lagocheilus. Labia lepo-A fissure or longitudinal division of one or both lips. Children are frequently born with this kind of malformation, particularly of the upper lip. Sometimes the portions of the lip, which ought to be united, have a considerable space between them; in other instances they are not much apart. The cleft is occasionally double, there being a little lobe, or small portion of the lip, situated between the two fissures. Every species of the deformity has the same appellation of hare-lip, in consequence of the imagined resemblance which the part has to the upper lip of a hare.

The fissure commonly affects only the lip itself. In many cases, however, it extends along the bones of the palate, even as far as the uvula. Sometimes these bones are totally wanting; sometimes they are only di-

vlded by a fissure.

Such a malformation is always peculiarly afflicting. In its least degree, it constantly occasions considerable deformity; and when it is more marked, it frequently hinders infants from sucking, and makes it indispensable to nourish them by other means. When the lower lip alone is affected, which is not most frequently the case, the child can neither retain its saliva, nor learn to speak, except with the greatest impediment. But when the fissure pervades the palate, the patient not only never articulates but very imperfectly, but cannot masticate nor swallow, except with great difficulty, on account of the food readily getting up into the nose.

HARMONIA. (From apo, to sit together.) Harmony. A species of symmetry or immoveable connection of bones, in Harmony. A species of synarthrosis, means of rough margins, not dentiform; in this manner most of the bones of the face

are connected together.

HARROGATE WATER. The villages of High and Low Harrogate are situate in the centre of the county of York, adjoining the town of Knaresborough. The whole of Harrogate, in particular, has long enjoyed considerable reputation, by possessing two kinds of very valuable springs; and, some years ago, the chalybeate was the only one that was used internally, whilst the sulphureous water was confined to external use. At present, however, the

medicine.

The sulphureous springs of Harrogate are four in number, of the same quality, though different in the degree of their powers. This water, when first taken up, appears perfectly clear and transparent, and sends forth a few air bubbles, but not in any quantity. It possesses a very strong sulphureous and fetid smell, precisely like that of a damp rusty gun barrel, or bilge-water. To the taste it is bitter, nauscous, and strongly saline, which is soon borne without any disgust. In a few hours of exposure this water loses its transparency, and becomes somewhat pearly, and rather greenish to the eye; its sulphureous smell abates, and at last the sulphur is deposited in the form of a thin film, on the bottom and sides of the vessel in which it is kept. The volatile productions of this water shew carbonic acid, sulphurated hydrogen, and azotic gas.

The sensible effects which this water excites, are often a head-ach and giddiness on being first drank, followed by a purgative operation, which is speedy and mild, without any attendant gripes; and this is the only apparent effect the exhibition of this

water displays.

The diseases in which this water is used are numerous, particularly of the alimentary canal, and irregularity of the bilious secretion. Under this water the health, appetite, and spirits improve; and, from its opening effects, it cannot fail to be useful in the costive habit of hypochondriasis. But the highest recommendation of this water has been in cutaneous diseases, and for this purpose it is universally employed, both as an internal medicine, and an external application: in this united form, it is of particular service in the most obstinate and complicated forms of cutaneous affections; nor is it less so in states and symptoms supposed connected with worms, especially with the round worm and ascarides, when taken in such a dose as to prove a brisk purgative; and in the latter case also, when used as a elyster, the ascarides being chiefly confined to the rectum, and therefore within the reach of this form of medicine. From the union of the sulphurcous and saline ingredients, the benefit of its use has been long established in hamorrhoidal affections.

A course of Harrogate waters should be conducted so as to produce sensible effects on the bowels; half a pint taken in the morning, and repeated three or four times, will produce it, and its nauseating taste may be corrected by taking a dry biscuit, or a bit of coarse bread, after it. The course must be continued, in obstinate cases, a period of some months, before a cure can be

HARTFELL WATER. This mineral

water is near Moffat, in Scotland. it is a chalvbeate dissolved by the suiphuric acid, and is much celebrated in scrophulous affections, and cutaneous diseases. It is used no less as an external application, than drank internally. The effects of this water, at first, are some degree of drowsiness, vertigo, and pain in the head, which soon go off, and may be liastened by a slight purge. It produces generally a flow of urine, and an increase of appetite. It has acquired much reputation also in old and languid ulcers, where the texture of the diseased part is very lax, and the discharge profuse and ill conditioned.

The dose of this water is more limited than that of most of the mineral springs which are used medicinally. It is of importance in all cases, and especially in delicate and irritable habits, to begin with a very small quantity, for an over dose is apt to be very soon rejected by the stomach, or to occasion griping and disturbance in the intestinal canal; and it is never as a direct purgative that this water is intended to be employed. Few patients will bear more than an English pint in the course of the day; but this quantity may be long continued in. It is often advisable to warm the water, for delicate stomachs, and this may be done without occasioning any material change in its properties.

Hartshorn. See Cornu cervi. Hartshorn shavings. See Cornu cervi. Hart's tongue. See Scolopendrium.

Hart-wort. See Seseli.

Hart wort of Marseilles. See Seseli Marsiliense.

Hay, came's. See guncus odoratus.

HEAD. Caput. The superior part of the body placed upon the neck, containing the cerebrum, cerebellum, and medulla oblongata. It is divided into the face and hairy part. On the latter is observed the vertex, or crown of the head; the sinciput, or fore part ; the occiput, or hinder part. For the former, see Face. For the bones and mus-cles of the head, see Cranium. The common integuments of the head are called the

HEARING. Auditus. This sense is placed, by physiologists, among the animal actions. It is a sensation by which we hear the sound of sonorous bodies. The organ of hearing is the soft portion of the auditory nerve which is distributed on the vestibule, semicircular canals, and coch-

HEART. Cor. A hollow muscular viscus, situated in the cavity of the pericardium for the circulation of the blood. It is divided externally into a base, or its broad part; a superior and an inferior surface, and an anterior and posterior margin. Internally, it is divided into a right and left ventricle. The situation of the heart is oblique, not transverse; its base being

placed on the right of the bodies of the vertebræ, and its apex obliquely to the sixth rib on the left side ; so that the left ventricle is almost posterior, and the right anterior. Its inferior surface lies upon the diaphragm. There are two cavities adhering to the base of the heart, from their resemblance called auricles The right auricle is a muscular sac, in which are four apertures, two of the venæ cavæ, an opening into the right ventricle, and the opening of the coronary vein. The left is a similar sac, in which there are five apertures, viz. those of the four pulmonary veins, and an opening into the left ventricle. The cavities in the base of the heart are called ventricles: these are divided by a fleshy septum, called septum cordis, into a right and left. Each ventricle has two orifices; the one suricular, through which the blood enters, the other arterious, through which the blood passes out. These four orifices are supplied with valves, which are named from their resemblance; those at the arterious orifices are called the semilunar; those at the orifice of the right auricle, mitral; and those at the orifice of the left auricle, tricuspid. The valve of Eustachius is situated at the termination of the vena cava inferior, just within the auricle. The subtance of the heart is muscular, its exterior fibres are longitudinal, its middle transverse, and its anterior oblique. The internal superfices of the ventricles and auricles of the heart are invested with a strong and smooth membrane, which is extremely arritable. The vessels of the heart are divided into common and proper. The common are, 1. The aorta, which arises from the left ventricle. 2. The pulmonary artery, which originates from the right ventricle. 3. The four pulmonary veins, which terminate in the left auricle. 4. The venæ cavæ, which evacuate themselves into the right auricle. The proper vessels are, 1. The coronary arteries, which arise from the aorta, and are distributed on the heart. 2. The coronary veins, which return the blood into the right auricle. The nerves of the heart are branches of the eighth and great intercostal pairs. The heart of the focus differs from that of the adult, in having a foramen ovale, through which the blood passes from the right auricle to the left.

Heart's ease. See Viola tricolor.

Heat. See Caloric. Heat, absolute. This term is applied to the whole quantity of caloric existing in a body in chymical union.

Heat, animal. See Animal heat.

HEAT, FREE. If the heat which exists in in any substance be from any cause forced in some degree to quit that substance, and to combine with those that surround it, then such heat is said to be free, or sensible, until the equilibrium is restored.

HEAT, LATENT. When any body is in

equilibrium with the bodies which surround it with respect to its heat, that quantity which it contains is not perceptible by any external sign or organ of sense, and is termed combined caloric, or latent heat.

Heat, sensible. See Heat, free. Heavy carbinated hydrogen gas.

Carbonated hydrogen gar heavy. H.ctic fever. (From ¿c, nabit.) See

(From hereo, to stick, be-HEDERA. cause it attaches itself to tres and old walls.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system Class, Pentandria.

Order, Monogyma. The ivy.

HEDERA ARBOURA. The ivy. The leaves of this tree, Hedera helix of Linnwas, have little or no unell, but a very nauseous taste. Haller informs us, that they are recommended in Germany against the atrophy of children. By the common people of this country they are sometimes applied to running sales, and to keep issues The berrics were supposed by the antients to have a purgative and emetic quality; and an extract was made from them by water, called by Quercetanius extractum purgans. Later writers have re-commended them in small doses as alexipharm c and sudorific: it is said, that in the plague at London, the powder of them was given in vinegar, or white wine, with good success. It is from the stalk of this tree that a resinous juice exudes very plentifully in warm climates. See Gummi hederre.

HEDERA RELIX. The systematic name of the ivy-tree. See Hedera arborea.

HEDERA TERRESTRIS. Ground-ivy, or gill. Glecoma hederacea of Linnaus:-foliis reniformibus crenatis. This indigenous plant has a peculiar strong smell, and a bitterish somewhat aromatic taste. It is one of those plants which was formerly much esteemed for possessing virtues that, in the present age, cannot be detected. In obstinate coughs it is a favourite remedy with the poor.

Hedge hyssop. See Gratiola. Hedge mustard. See Erysimum.

Hedge mustard, stinking. See Alliaria. HEDRA. The anus. Excrement. A frac-

HEDVOSMOS. Mint.

HELCOMA, Ulceration. HELCOMA. (From 60x200, an ulcer.) An ulcer in the external or internal superfices of the cornea, known by an excavation and oozing of purulent matter from the cornea.

HELCYDRION. (From same, an ulcer, and Helcydrium. A moist ulcevoag, water.)

rous pustule.

HELCYSTER. (From Axa, to draw.) instrument for extracting the fœtus.

HELENIUM. (From Helene, the island where they grew.) See Enula campana. HELICALIS MAJOR. See Helicis major.

HELICALIS MINOR. See Helicis minor.

HELICIS MAJOR. A proper muscle of the ear, which depresses the part of the cartilage of the ear mito which it is inscrted; t lies upon the upper or sharp point of the helix, or outward ring, arising from the upper and acute part of the helix anteriorly, and passing to be inserted into its cartilage a little above the tragus.

HELICIS MINOR. A proper muscle of the ear, which contracts the fissure of the ear: it is situated below the helicis major, upon part of the helix. It arises from the inferior and anterior part of the helix, and is inserted into the crus of the helix, near the fissure in the cartilage opposite to the

coucha.

HELIOTROPH SUCCUS. See Bezetta cærulea.

HELIX. (Ελίξ, from αλώ, to turn about.) The external circle or border of the outer

ear, that curls inwards.

HELLEBORASTER. (From ENDEGOES, hellebore.) Fetid hellebore, or bear's foot. He'leborus fatidus of Linaæus : caule multifloro folioso; foliis pedatis. The le ves of this indigenous plant are recommended by many as possessing extraordinary anthelmintic powers. The smell of the recent plant is extremely fetid, and the taste is bitter and remarkably acrid, insomuch that, when chewed, it excoriates the mouth and fances. It commonly operates as a cuthartic, sometimes as an emotic, and, in large doses, proves highly deleterious.

Hellebore, black. See Helleborus niger.
Hellebore, white. See Helleborus albus.

HELLEBORUS. (Ελλεδοβος: παρά το τη βορα ελλεν, because it de troys, if caten.)
The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polyandria. Order. Polyginia Hellchore.

ALBUS. Form.

ALBUS. White helle-HELLEBORUS album. Elleborum album. bore, or veratrum. Veratrum album of Linnæus:-racemo supradecomposito, corollis erectis. This plant is a native of Italy, Switzerland, Austria, and Russia. Every part of the plant is extremely acrid and poisonous. The dried root has no particular smell, but a durable, nauseous, and bitter taste, burning the mouth and fauces: when powdered, and applied to issues, or ulcers, it produces griping and purging; if snuffed up the nose, it proves a violent sternutatory. Gesner made an infusion of half an ounce of this root with two ounces of water; of this he took two drachms, which produced great heat about the scapulæ and in the face and head, as well as the tongue and throat, followed by singul. tus, which continued till vomiting was exci. ted. Bergius also experienced very distress. ing symptoms, upon tasting this infusion. The root, taken in large doses, discovers such acrimony, and operates by the stomach and rectum with such violence, that blood

is usually discharged; it likewise acts very powerfully upon the nervous system, producing great anxiety, tremors, vertigo, syncope, aphonia, interrupted respiration, sinking of the pulse, convulsions, spasms, Upon opening those who and death. have died of the effects of this poison, the stomach discovered marks of inflammation, with corrosions of its internal coat The ancients exhibited this active medicine in maniacal cases, and it is said with success. The experience of Greding is somewhat similar: out of twenty-eight cases, in which he exhibited the bark of the root collected in the spring, five were cured. In almost every case that he relates, the medicine acted more or less upon all the excretions; vomiting and purging were very generally produced, and the matter thrown off the stomach was constantly mixed with bile; a florid redness frequently appeared on the face, and various cutaneous efflorescences upon the body; and, in some, pleuritic symptoms, with fever, supervened, so as to require bleeding; nor were the more alarming affections of spasms and convulsions unfrequent. Critical evacuations were also very evident; many sweating profusely, in some the urine was considerably increased, in others the saliva and mucous discharges : and uterine obstructions, of long duration, were often removed by its use. Veratrum has likewise been found useful in epilepsy, and other convulsive complaints: but the diseases in which its efficacy seems least equivocal are those of the skin, as itch, and different prurient eruptions, herpes, morbus pediculosus, lepra, scrofula, &c.; and in many of these it has been successfully employed, both internally and externally. As a powerful stimulant and irritating medicine, its use has been resorted to in desperate cases only, and even then it ought first to be exhibited in very small doses, as a grain, and in a di-luted state, and to be gradually increased, according to the effects, which are generally of an alarming nature.

HELLEBORUS FORTIDUS. The systematic name of the footid hellebore. See Hellebo-

raster.

HELLEBORUS NIGER. Melampodium. Black hellebore, or Christmas rose. Helleborus niger of Linnæus: -scapo subbiflore subnudo ; foliis pedatis. The root of this exotic plant is the part employed medicinally: its taste, when fresh, is bitterish, and somewhat acrid: it also emits a nauseous acrid smell; but, being long kept, both its sensible qualities and medicinal activity suffer very considerable diminu-tion. The ancients esteemed it as a powerful remedy in maniacal cases. At present it is exhibited principally as an alterative, or, when given in a large dose, as a purgative. It often proves a very powerful emmenagogue in plethoric habits,

where steel is ineffectual, or improper. It is also recommended in dropsies, and some cutaneous diseases.

Helmet-flower, yellow. See Anthora.

HELMINTHAGOGUES. (Helminthagoga; from expers, a worm, and exper, to drive out.) Medicines which destroy and expel worms. See Anthelmintics.

HELMINTHIASIS. (Ελμινθιασικ, from ελμινθια, which signifies any species of worm.) Λ disease in which worms, or the larvæ of worms, are bred under the skin, or some external part of the body. It is endemial to Martinique, Westphalia, Transylvania, and some other places.

HELMINTHOCHORTON. See Carolina corsicana.

Helodes. (From 3005, a marsh.) A term applied to fevers generated from marsh miasma.

HELOSIS. (From elaw, to turn.) As aversion to turning up of the eyelids.

HELXINE. (From Exam, to draw; so called because it sticks to whatever it touches.) Pellitory of the wall.

HEMALOFIA. Corruptly written for hemerolopia.

HEMATURIA. See Hematuria.

HEMERALOPS. (From nusga, the day, and ay, eye.) One who can see but in the day-time.

HEMEROLOPIA. (From nuega, a day, and on la, to see.) A defect in the sight, which consists in being able to see in the day-time, but not in the evening. following is Scarpa's description of this curious disorder. Hemeralopia, or nocturnal blindness, is properly nothing but a kind of imperfect periodical amaurosis, most commonly sympathetic with the stomach. Its paroxysms come on towards the evening, and disappear in the morning. The disease is endemic in some countries. and epidemic, at certain seasons of the year, in others. At sun-set, objects ap-pear to persons affected with this complaint as if covered with an ash-coloured veil, which gradually changes into a dense cloud, which intervenes between the eyes and surrounding objects. Patients with hemerolopia have the pupil, both in the day and night time, more dilated, and less moveable, than it usually is in healthy eyes. The majority of them, however, have the pupil more or less moveable in the daytime, and always expanded and motionless at night. When brought into a room faintly lighted by a candle, where all the bystanders can see tolerably well, they cannot discern at all, or in a very feeble manner, scarcely any one object; or they only find themselves able to distinguish light from darkness, and at moon light their sight is still worse. At day-break they recover their sight, which continues perfect all the rest of the day till sun-set.

HEMICRANIA. (From nuious, half, and ngavior, the head.) A pain that affects only

one side of the head.

HENICEHAUNIOS. (From nuious, half, and xuew, to cut; so called because it was cut half way down. A bandage for the back and breast.

HEMICRANIA CLAVUS. Pain resembling

the driving a nail into the head.

HEMIOPSIA. (From nuious, half, and wt, an eye.) A defect of vision, in which the person sees the half, but not the whole of an object.

HEMIPAGIA. (From nuious, half, and rayios, fixed.) A fixed pain on one side

of the head.

HEMIPLEGIA. (From ημίσυς, half, and πλισσω, to strike.) A paralytic affection of one side of the body. See Paraly-

Hemlock. See Cicuta.

Hemlock, dropwort. See Ocnanthe.

Hemlock, water. See Cicuta aquatica. · Hemorrhage from the lungs. See Hamop-

Hemorrhage from the nose. See Epistaxis. Hemorrhage from the penis. See Hama-

Hemorrhage from the stomach. See Hamatemesis.

Hemp. See Cannabis.

Hemp-agrimony. See Eupatorium. Hemp, water. See Eupatorium.

Henbaue. See Hyosciamus. HEPAR. (1172g, the liver.) See Liver.

HFPAR SULPHURIS. Liver of sulphur. This is a sulphuret made either with potash or soda. It has a disagreeable foctid smell, but it is in high esteem as a medicine to decompose corrosive sublimate, when taken into the stomach. See Sulphuretum po-

HEPAR UTERINUM. The placenta. HEPATALGIA. (From ηπαρ, the liver, and αλγ , pain.) Pain in the liver.

HEPATIC. Any thing belonging to the liver.

HEPATIC AIR. Hepatic airs consist of inflammable air combined with sulphur, which exists in very different proportions. Where each ingredient is combined merely to saturation, it is called simply sulphurated hydrogen; but where the sulphur is in exeess, it is termed super sulphurated hydro-Sulphurated hydrogen, combined with any base, forms a hydrosulphuret, and may be also called an hepatule, to distinguish it from an hepar, which is the union of sulphur singly with a basis.

HEPATIC ARTERY. Arteria hepa-The artery which nourishes the substance of the liver. It arises from the exliac, where it almost touches the point of the lobulus Spigelii. Its root is covered by the pancreas; it then turns a little forwards, and passes under the pylorus to the porta

of the liver, and runs betwixt the biliary ducts and the vena portæ, where it divides into two large branches, one of which enters the right, and the other the left lobe of the liver. In this place it is enclosed along with all the other vessels in the capsule of Glisson.

HEPATIC DUCT. Ductus hepaticus. The trunk of the biliary pores. It runs from the sinus of the liver towards the duodenom, and is joined by the cystic duct, to form the duetus communis choledochus, See Biliary ducts.

HEPATIC VEINS. See Cave hepatica,

and Vena porte.

HEPATICA. (From wag, the liver; so called because it was thought to be useful in diseases of the liver.) The herb liverwort. See Hepatica terrestris.

HEPATICA NOBILIS. Herba trinitatis. Hepatica, or herb trinity. This plant Ancmone hepatica of Linnaus, possesses mildly adstringent and correborant virtues, with which intentions infusions of it have been drank as tea, or the powder of the dry leaves given, to the quantity of half a spoonful at a time.

HEPATICA TERRESTRIS. Jecoraria. Liverwort. This is the Marchantia polymopha, which is very common in this country. It has a penetrating though mild pungency, and bitter taste, sinking, as it were, into the tongue. It is recommended as an aperient, resolvent, and antiscorbutic, and, though seldom used in this country, appears to be a plant of no inconsiderable virtue.

HEPATIRRHÆA. (From »πας, the liver, and gsα, to flow.) A diarrhæa, in which portions of flesh, like liver, are

voided.

HEPATITIS. (From norag, the liver.) Inflammatio hepatis. An inflammation of the liver. A genus of disease in the class pyrexie, and order phlegmasia, of Cullen, who defines it, "febrile affection, attended with tension and pain of the right hypochondrium, often pungent, like that of a pleurisy, but more frequently dull, or obtuse; a pain at the clavicle and at the top of the shoulder of the right side; much uneasiness in lying down on the left side; difficulty of breathing; a dry cough, vomiting, and hiccough."

Hepatis has generally been considered of two kinds; one the acute, the other

Besides the causes producing other inflammations, such as the application of cold, external injuries from contusions, blows, &c. this disease may be oceasioned by certain passions of the mind, by violent exercise, by intense summer heats, by long continued intermittent and remittent fevers, and by various solid concretions in the substance of the liver. In warm climates,

this viscus is more apt to be affected with inflammation than perhaps any other part of the body, probably from the increased secretion of bile which takes place when the blood is thrown on the internal parts, by an exposure to cold; or from the bile becoming acrid, and thereby exciting an irri-

tation in the part.

The acute species of hepatitis comes on with a pain in the right hypochondrium, extending up the clavicle and shoulder; which is much increased by pressing upon the part, and is accompanied with a cough, oppression of breathing, and difficulty of laying on the side affected; together with nausea and sickness, and often with a vomiting of bilious matter. The urine is of a deep saffron colour, and small in quantity; there is loss of appetite, great thirst, and costiveness, with a strong, hard, and frequent pulse; and when the disease has continued for some days, the skin and eyes become tinged of deep yellow.

The chronic species is usually accompanied with a morbid complexion, loss of appetite and flesh, costiveness, indigestion, flatulency, pains in the stomach, a yellow tinge of the skin and cyes, clay-coloured stools, high-coloured urine, depositing a red sediment and ropy mucus; an obtuse pain in the region of the liver, extending to the shoulder, and not unfrequently with a

considerable degree of asthma.

These symptoms are, however, often so mild and insignificant as to pass almost unnoticed; as large abscesses have been found in the liver, upon dissection, which in the person's life-time had created little or no inconvenience, and which we may presume to have been occasioned by some previous inflammation.

Hepatitis, like other inflammations, may end in resolution, suppuration, gangrene, or scirrhus; but its termination in gangrene

is a rare occurrence.

The disease is seldom attended with fatal consequences of an immediate nature, and is often carried off by hæmorrhage from the nose, or hæmorrhodal vessels, and likewise by sweating, by a diarrhea, or by an evacuation of urine, depositing a copious sediment. In a few instances, it has been observed to cease on the appearance of

When suppuration takes place, as it generally does before this forms an adhesion with some neighbouring part, it is usually discharged by the different outlets with which this part is connected, as by coughing, voniting, or by an abscess breaking outwardly; but in some instances,

erysipelas in some external part.

of the abdomen, where no such adhesion has been formed.

On dissection, the liver is often found much enlarged, and hard to the touch; its

the pus has been discharged into the cavity

colour is more of a deep purple than what is natural, and its membranes are more or less affected by inflammation. Dissections likewise show that adhesions to the neighbouring parts often take place, and that large abscesses, containing a considerable quantity of pus, are often found in its substance.

HEPATITIS CYSTICA. Inflammation of the gall-bladder.

HEPATITIS PARENCHEMATOSA. Inflammation in the inner substance of the liver.

HEPATITIS PERITONEALIS. Inflammation in the peritoneum covering the liver.

HEPATOCELE. (From ηπας, the liver, and κηλη, a tumour.) An hernia, in which a portion of the liver protrudes through the abdominal parietes.

HEPATORIUM. The same as Eupato-

rium.

Hepatule. See Sulphurated hydrogen gas.

Hephestias (From Hoasse, Vulcan, or

fire.) A drying plaster of burnt tiles.

HEPIALUS. (From \$7105, gentle.) A mild quotidian fever.

Heftapharmacum. (From ετ/α, seven, and φαςμαακονα, medicine) A medicine composed of seven ingredients, the principal of which were ceruss, litharge, wax, &c.

Heptaphyllum. (From επ/a, seven, and φυλλον, a leaf; so named because it consists of seven leaves.) See Tormentilla.

HEPTAPLURUM. (From επ/α, seven, and πλευςα, a rib: so named from its having seven ribs upon the leaf.) The herb plantain.

HERBA BRITANNICA. See Hydrolapa-

thum.

HEREA SACRA See Verbena.

Merb-bennet. See Caryophyliata.

Herb-mustich. See Marum vulgare.

Herb-trinity. See Hepatica nobilis.

Hercules's allheal. See Panax.

HERCULES BOVII. Gold and mercury dissolved in a distillation of copperas, nitre, and sea-salt. Violently cathartic.

HEREDITARY DISEASE. (From heres, an heir.) A disease which is continued from

parents to their children.

HERMAPHRODITE. (From Eguns, Mercury, and Apgodil, Venus, i. e. partaking of both sexes.) The true hermaphrodite of the ancients was, the man with male organs of generation, and the female stature of body, that is, narrow chest and large pelvis; or the woman with female organs of generation, and the male stature of body, that is, broad chest and narrow pelvis. The term is now, however, used to express any lusus natura, wherein the

of both sexes.

(From Equis, Mercury.) HERMETIC. In the language of the antient chymists, Hermes was the father of chymistry, and the Hermetic seal was the closing the end of a glass vessel while in a state of fusion, according to the usage of chymists.

Hermodactyl. See Hermodactylus.

HERMODACTYLUS. (Egmodanlunos. Etymologists have always derived this word from Eguns, Mercury, and Sanlunes, a finger. It is probably named from Hermus, a river in Asia, upon whose banks it grows, and fannolog, a date, which it is like.) The root of a species of colchicum, not yet ascertained, but supposed to be the Colchicum illyricum of Linnaus, of the shape of a heart, flattened on one side, with a furrow on the other, of a white colour, compact and solid, yet easy to cut or powder. This root, which has a viscous, sweetish, farinaceous taste, and no remarkable smell, is imported from Turkey. Its use is totally laid aside in the practice of the present day. Formerly, the roots were esteemed as cathartics, which power is wanting in those that reach this country.

HERNIA. (From egros, a branch; from its protruding forward.) A rupture. Surgeons understand, by the term hernia, a tumour formed by the protusion of some of the viscera of the abdomen out of that cavity into a kind of sac, composed of the portion of peritoneum, which is pushed before them. However, there are certainly some cases which will not be comprehended in this definition; either because the parts are not protruded at all, or have no hermal sac, as the readers will learn in the course

of this article.

The places in which these swellings most frequently make their appearance, are the groin, the navel, the labia pudendi, and the upper and fore-part of the thigh; they do also occur at every point of the anterior part of the abdomen; and there are several less common instances, in which hernial tumours present themselves at the foramen ovale, in the perinentn, in the vagina, at the ischiatic notch, &c.

The parts which, by being thrust forth from the cavity, in which they ought naturally to remain, mostly produce hernix, are either a portion of the omentum, or a part of the intestinal, canal, or both together. But the stomach, the liver, the spleen, uterus, ovaries, bladder, &c. have been known to form the contents of some

hernial tumours.

From these two circumstances of situation and contents, are derived all the different appellations by which herniæ are distinguished. If a portion of intestine only forms the contents of the tumour, it is called entergele; if a piece of omentum

parts of generation appear to be a mixture only, epiplocele; and if both intestine and omentum contribute mutually to the formation of a tumour, it is called entero epiplocele. When the contents of a hernia are protruded at the abdominal ring, but only pass as low as the groin, or labium pudendi, the case receives the name of bubonocele, or inguinal hernia; when the parts descend into the scrotum, it is called an oscheocele, or scrotul hernia. The crural and femoral hernia, is the name given to that which takes place below Poupart's ligament. When the bowels protrude at the navel, the case is named an exomphalos, or umbilical hernia; and ventral is the epithet given to the swelling, when it occurs at any other promiscuous part of the front of the abdomen. The congenital rupture, is a very particular case, in which the protruded viscera are not covered with a common hernial sac of peritoneum, but are lodged in the cavity of the tunica vaginalis, in contact with the testicle; and, as must be obvious, it is not named, like herniæ in general, from its situation, or contents but from the circumstances of its existing from the time of birth.

HER

When the hernial contents lie quietly in the sac, and admit of being readily put back into the abdomen, it is termed a reducible hernia; and when they suffer no constriction, yet cannot be put back, owing to adhesions, or their large size in relation to the aperture, through which they have to pass, the hernia is termed irreducible. incarcorated; or strangulated herma, signifies one which not only cannot be reduced. but suffers constriction: so that, if a piece of intestine be protruded, the pressure to which it is subjected stops the passage of its conten's onward towards the anus, makes the bowel inflame, and brings on a train of most alarming and often fatal consequences.

The general symptoms of a hernia, which is reducible and free from strangulation, are-an indolent tumour at some point of the parietes of the abdomen; most frequently descending out of the abdomi-nal ring, or from just below Poupart's ligament, or else out of the navel; but occasionally from various other situations.

The swelling mostly originates suddenly, except in the circumstances above related; and it is subject to a change of size, being smaller when the patient lies down upon his back, and larger when he stands up, or holds his breath. The tumour frequently diminishes when pressed, and grows large again when the pressure is removed. size and tension often increase after a meal. or when the patient is flatulent. Patients with hernia, are apt to be troubled with cholic, constipation, and vomiting, in consequence of the unnatural situation of the bowels Very often, however, the functions. of the viscera seem to suffer little or no interruption.

If the case be an enteroccle, and the portion of the intestine be small, the tumour is small in proportion; but though small, yet, if the gut be distended with wind, inflamed, or have any degree of stricture made on it, it will be tense, resist the impression of the finger, and give pain upon being handled. On the contrary, if there be no stricture, and the intestine suffers no degree of inflammation, let the prolapsed piece be of what length it may, and the tumour of whatever size, yet the tension will be little, and no pain will attend the handling it; upon the patient's coughing, it will feel as if it was blown into; and, in general, it will be found very easily returnable. A guggling noise is often made when the bowel is ascending.

If the hernia be an epiplocele, or one of the omental kind, the tumour has a more flabby and a more unequal feel; it is in general perfectly indolent, is more compressible, and (if in the scrotum) is more obiong and less round than the swelling occasioned in the same situation by an intestinal hernia; and, if the quantity be large, and the patient an adult, it is, in some measure, distinguishable by its greater

weight.

If the case be an entero-epiplocele, that is, one consisting of both intestine and omentum, the characteristic marks will be less clear in either of the simple cases; but the disease may easily be distinguished from every other one, by any body in the habit of making the examination.

HERNIA CEREBRI. Fungus cerebri. This name is given to a tumour which every now and then rises from the brain, through an ulcerated opening in the dura matter, and protrudes through a perforation in the cranium, made by the previous application

of the trephine.

HERNIA CONGENITA. (So called because it is, as it were, born with the person.) This species of hernia consists in the adhesion of a protruded portion of intestine or omentum to the testicle, after its descent into the scrotum. This adhesion takes place while the testicle is yet in the abdomen. Upon its leaving the abdomen it draws the adhering intestine, or omentum, along with it into the scrotum, where it forms the hernia congenita.

From the term congenital, we might suppose that this herna always existed at the time of birth. The protrusion, however, seldom occurs till after this period, on the operation of the usual exciting causes of hernia in general. The congenital hernia does not usually happen till some months after birth; in some instances not till a late period. Mr. Hey relates a case, in which a hernia congenita was first formed in a young man, aged sixteen, whose right testis had, a little while before the attack of the disease, descended into the scrotum.

It seems probable that, in cases of herma congenita, which actually take place when the testicle descends into the scrotum before birth, the event may commonly be referred, as observed above, to the testicle having contracted an adhesion to a piece of intestine, or of the omentum, in its passage to the ring. Whrisberg found one testicle, which had not passed the ring, adhering, by means of a few slender filaments, to the omentum, just above this aperture, in an infant that died a few days after birth.

Excepting the impossibility of feeling the testicle in hernia congenita, as we can in most cases of bubonocele, (which criterion Mr. Samuel Cooper, in his Surgical Dictionary, observes Mr. Pott should have mentioned,) the following account is very excellent. "The appearance of a hernia, in very early infancy, will always make it probable that it is of this kind; but in an adult, there is no reason for supposing his rupture to be of this sort, but his having been afflicted with it from his infancy; there is no external mark, or character, whereby it can be certainly distinguished from the one contained in a common hernial sac; neither would it be of any material use in practice, if there was.

HERNIA CRURALIS. Femoral her-The parts composing this kind of hernia nia are always protruded under Poupart's ligament, and the swelling is situted towards the inner part of the bend of the thigh. The rupture descends on the side of the femoral artery and vein, between these vessels and the os pubis. Females are particularly subject to this kind of rupture, in consequence of the great breadth of their pelvis, while in them the inguinal herma is rare. It has been computed, that nineteen out of twenty married women, afflicted with hernia, have this kind; but that not one out of an hundred unmarried females, or out of the same number of men, have this form of the disease. situation of the tumour makes it liable to be mistaken for an enlarged inguinal gland; and many fatal events are recorded to have happened from the surgeon's ignorance of the existence of the disease. A gland can only become enlarged by the gradual effects of inflammation; the swelling of a crural hernia comes on in a momentary and sudden manner; and, when strangulated, occasions the train of symptoms described in the account of the inguinal hernia, which symptoms an enlarged gland could never Such circumstances seem to be sufficiently discriminative; though the feel of the two kinds of swelling is often not in itself enough to make the surgeon decided in his opinion. A femoral hernia may be mistaken for a bubonocele, when the expanded part of the swelling li s over Poupart's ligament As the taxis and operation for the first case ought to be done

differently from those for the latter, the error may lead to very bad consequences. The femoral hernia, however, may always be discriminated, by the neck of the tumour having Poupart's ligament above it. In the bubonocele, the angle of the pubes is behind and below this part of the sac; but in the femoral hernia, it is on the same horizontal level, a little on the inside of it.

Until very lately, the stricture, in cases of fenioral hernia, was always supposed to be produced by the lower border of the external oblique muscle, or, as it is termed, Poupart's ligament. A total change of surgical opinion on this subject has, however, latterly taken place, in consequence of the accurate observations first made in 1768, by Gimbernat, surgeon to the king of Spain. In the crural hernia, (says he,) the aperture through which the parts issue is not formed by two bands, (as in the inguinal hernia,) but it is a foramen, almost round, proceeding from the internal margin of the crural arch, (P upart's ligament,) near its insertion into the branch of the os pubis, between the bone and the iliac vein; so that, in this hernia, the branch of the os pubis is situated more internally than the intestine, and a little behind; the vein externally, and behind; and the internal border of the arch before. Now it is this border which always forms the strangulation.

HERNIA FLATULENTA. A swelling of the side, caused by air that has escaped through the plenra.

HERNIA HUMORALIS.

HERNIA GUTTURIS. Bronchocele, or tumour of the bronchial glands.

Orchitis, Swelled testicle. A very common symptom attending a gonorrhæa, is a swelling of the testicle, which is only sympathetic, and not venereal, because the same symptoms follow every kind of irritation on the urethra, whether produced by strictures, injections, or bougies. Such symptoms are not similar to the actions arising from the application of venereal matter, for suppuration seldom occurs, and, when it does, the matter is not venereal. The swelling and inflammation appear suddenly, and as suddenly disappear, or go from one testicle to the other. The epidydimis remains swelled,

The first appearance of swelling is generally a soft pulpy fulness of the body of the testicle, which is tender to the touch; this increases to a hard swelling, accompanied with considerable pain. The epidydimis, towards the lower end of the testicle, is generally the hardest part. The hardness and swelling, however, often pervade the whole of the epidydimis. The spermatic cord, and especially the vas differens, are often thickened, and sore to the touch.

however, even for a considerable time af-

terwards.

The spermatic veins sometimes become varicose. A pain in the loins, and sense of weakness there, and in the pelvis, are other casual symptoms. Cholicy pains; uneasiness in the stomach and bowels; flatulency; sickness; and even vomiting; are not unfrequent. The whole testicle is swelled, and not merely the epidydimis, as has been asserted.

The inflammation of the part most probably arises from its sympathizing with the urethra. The swelling of the testicle coming on, either removes the pain in making water, and suspends the discharge, which do not return till such swelling begins to subside, or else the irritation in the urethra, first ceasing, produces a swelling of the testicle, which continues till the pain and discharge return; thus rendering it doubtful which is the cause and which the effect. Occasionally, however, the discharge has become more violent, though the testicle has swelled; and such swelling has even been known to occur after the discharge has ceased; yet the latter has returned with violence, and remained as long as the hernia humoralis.

Hernia humoralis, with stoppage of the discharge, is apt to be attended with strangury. A very singular thing is, that the inflammation more frequently comes on when the irritation in the urethra is going off, than when at its height.

The enlargements of the testiole, from cancer and scrophula, are generally slow in their progress: that of an hernia humoralis

Inflamma-

very quick.
HERNIA INCARCERATA. rated hernia. Strangulated hernia, or a hernia with stricture. The symptoms are a swelling in the groin, or scrotum, resisting the impression of the fingers. If the hernia be of the intestinal kind, it is generally painful to the touch, and the pain is increased by coughing, sneezing, or standing upright. These are the very first symptoms; and, if they are not relieved, are soon followed by others, viz. a sickness at the stomach, a frequent reaching, or inclination to vomit, a stoppage of all discharge per anum, attended with frequent hard pulse, and some degree of fever. These are the first symptoms; and if they are not appeased by the return of the intestine, that is, if the attempts made for this purpose do not succeed, the sickness becomes more troublesome, the vomiting more frequent, the pain more intense, the tension of the belly greater, the fever high-er, and a general restlessness comes on, which is very terrible to bear. When this is the state of the patient, no time is to be lost; a very little delay is now of the ut-most consequence; and if the one single remedy which the disease is now capable of be not administered immediately, it will generally baffle every other attempt.

This remedy is the operation whereby the parts eng ged in the stricture may be set free. If this be not now performed, the vomiting is soon exchanged for a convulsive hiccough, and a frequent gulping up of bilious matter; the tension of the belly, the restles ness, and fever, having been considerably increased for a few hours, the patient suddenly becomes perfectly easy, the belly subsides, the pulse, from having been hard, full, and frequent, becomes low, languid, and generally interrupted; and the kin, especially that of the limbs, cold and moist; the eyes have now a languor and a glassiness, a lack lustre, not easy to be described; the tumour of the part disappears, and the skin covering it sometimes changes its natural colour for a livid hue; but whether it keeps or loses its colour, it has an emphysematous feel, a crepitus to the touch, which will easily be conceived by all who have attended to it, but is not so easy to convey an idea of by words. This crepitus is the too sure indicator of gangrenous mischief within. In this state, the gut either goes up spontaneously, or is returned with the smallest degree of pressure; a discharge is made by stool, and the patient is generally much pleased at the ease he finds; but this pleasure is of short duration, for the hiccough and the cold sweats continuing and increa ing, with the addition of spasmodic rigors and subsultus tendinum, the tragedy soon finishes.

HERNIA INGUINALIS. Bubonocele. Inguinal hernia. The hernia inguinalis is so called, because it appears i. both sexes at the groin. It is one of the divisions of hernia, and includes all those herniz in which the parts displaced pass out of the abdomen through the ring, that is, the arch formed by the aponeurosis of the musculus obliquus externus in the groin, for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men, and the round ligament in women. The parts displaced that form the hernia, the part into which they fall, the manner of the hernia being produced, and the time it has continued, occasion great differences in this disorder. There are three different parts that may produce a hernia in the groin, viz. one of more of the intestines, the epiploon, and the bladder. That which is formed by one or more of the intestines was called, by the antients, enterocele. The intestine which most frequently produces the herma is the ilium: because, being placed in the iliac region, it is nearer the groin than the rest; but notwithstanding the situation of the other intestines, which seems not to allow of their coming near the gron, we often find the jejunum, and frequently also a portion of the colon and cacha, included in the hemia. It must be remembered, that the mesentery and mesocolon are membranous substances,

capable of extension, which, by little and little, are sometimes so far stretched by the weight of the intestines, as to escape with the ilium, in this species of hemia. The hernia made by the epiploon is called epiplocele; as that caused by the epiploon and one of the intestines together is called entero-epiplocele The hernia of the bladder is called cystocele. Hernia of the bladder is uncommon, and has seldom been known to happen but in conjunction with some of the viscera. When the parts, having passed through the abdominal rings, descend no lower than the groin, it is called an incomplete hernia; when they fall into the scrotum in men, or into the labia pudendi in women, it is then termed complete.

The marks of discrimination between some other diseases and inguinal herma are

hose :---

The disorders in which a mistake may possibly be made are, the circocele, bubo, hydrocele, and hernia humoralis, or inflamed testicle.

For an account of the manner of distinguishing circocele from a bubonocele, see

Circocele.

The circumscribed incompressible hardness, the situation of the tumour, and its being free from all connection with the spermatic process, will sufficiently point out its being bubo, at least while it is in a recent state; and when it is in any degree suppurated, he must have a very small share of the tactus eruditus, who cannot feel the difference between matter, and either a piece of intestine or omentum.

The perfect equality of the whole tumour, the freedom and smallness of the spermatic process above it, the power of feeling the spermatic vessels, and the vas deferens in that process; its being void of pain upon being handled, the fluctuation of the water, the gradual formation of the swelling, its having begun below and proceeded upwards, its not being affected by any posture or action of the patient, nor increased by his coughing or sneezing, together with the absolute impossibility of feeling the testicle at the bottom of the scrotum, will always, to an intelligent person, prove the disease to be hydrocele.

Mr. Pott, however, allows that there are some exceptions, in which the testicle cannot be felt at the bottom of the scrotum, in cases of hernia. In recent bubonoceles, while the hernial sac is thin, has not been long or very much distended, and the scrotum still preserves a regularity of figure, the testicle may almost always be easily felt at the inferior and posterior part of the tumour. But in old ruptures, which have been long down, in which the quantity of contents is large, the sac considerably thickened, and the scrotum of an irregular

figure, the testicle frequently cannot be felt; neither is it in general easily felt in the congenital hernia, for obvious reasons.

the hermia humoralis, the pain in the testicle, its enlargement, the hardened state of the epidydmiis, and the exemption of the spermatic cord from all innatural fulness, are such marks as cannot easily be mistaken; not to nemion the generally preceding genory heat. But if any doubt still remains of the true nature of the disease, the progress of it from above downwards, its different state and size in different postures, particularly lying and standing, together with its descent and ascent, will, it duly attended to, put it out of all doubt that the tumour is a true hermia.

When an inguinal hernia does not descend through the abdominal ring, but only into the canal for the spermatic chord, it is covered by the aponeurosis of the external oblique muscle, and the swelling is

small and undefined.

Now and then, the testicle does not descend into the scrotum till a late period. The first appearance of this body a the ring, in order to get into its natural situation, might be mistaken for that of a herma, were the surgeon not to pay attention to the absence of the testicle from the scrotum, and the peculiar sensation occasioned by pressing the swelling.

HERNIA ISCHIATICA. A rupture at the ischiatic notch. This is very rare. A case, however, which was strangulated, and undiscovered till after death, is related in Mr. A. Cooper's second part The disease hapof his work on hernia. pened in a young man aged 27. On opening the abdomen, the ilium was found to have descended on the right side of the rectum into the pelvis; and a fold of it was protruded into a small sac, which passed out of the pelvis at the ischiatic notch. The intestine was adherent to the sac at two points: the strangulated part, and about three inches on each side, were The intestines towards the very black. stomach were very much distended with air, and here and there had a hvid spot on them. A dark spot was even found on the stomach itself, just above the The colon was exceedingly contracted, as far as its sigmoid flexure. A small orifice was found in the side of the pelvis, in front of, but a little above, the sciatic nerve, and on the fore part of the pyriformis muscle sac lay under the glutæus maximus muscle. and its orifice was before the internal iliac arrery, below the obturator artery, but above the vein.

HERNIA INTESTINALIS. See Hernia scrotalis.

Pass through the puncta lachrymalia,

but stagnate in the sacculus lachrym list, the little propriety or precision. It is with equal impropriety called, by Anel, a dropsy of the lachrymal sac.

If the mar a gle of the eye is pressed, and an aqueous humour flows ut, the dis-

ease is the fistula lachrymalis.

HERNIA MESENTERICA. Mesenteric hernia. If one of the layers of the mesentery be torn by a blow, while the other remains in its natural state, the intestines may insinuate themselves into the aperture, and form a kind of hernia. The same consequences may result from a natural deficiency in one of these layers. Mr. A. Coper relates a case, in which all the small intestines, except the duoderum, were thus corcumstanced. The symptoms during life were unknown.

HERNIA MESOCOLICA Mesocolic hernia. So named by Mr. A. Cooper, when the bowels glide between the layers and the mesocolon. Every su geon should be aware that the intestines may be strangulated from the following causes: 1. Apertures in the omentum, mesentery, or mesocolon, through which the intestine protrudes. 2. Adhesions, leaving an aperture, in which a piece of intestine becomes confined. 3. Membranous bands at the mouths of hernial sacs. which becoming elongated by the frequent protrusion and return of the viscera, surround the intestine, so as to strangulate them within the abdomen when returned from the sac.

HERNIA OMENTALIS. Epiplocele. A rupture of the omentum; or a protrusion of the omentum through apertures in the integuments of the belly. Sometimes, according to Mr. Sharpe, so large a quantity of the omentum hath fallen into the scrotum, that its weight, drawing the stomach and bowels downwards, hath excited vomiting, inflammation, and symptoms similar to those of the bubonocele.

HERNIA PERINEALIS. Perineal hernia. In men, the parts protrude between
the bladder and rectum; in women, between the rectum and vagina. The hernia
does not project so as to form an external
tumour; and, in men, its existence can only
be distinguished by examining in the rectum. In women, it may be detected both

from this part and the vagina.

HERNIA PHRENICA. Phrenic hernia. The abdominal viscera are occasio dly protruded through the diaphragm, either through some of the natural apertures in this muscle, or deficiencies, or wounds and lacerations in it. The second kind of case is the most frequent. Morgagni furnishes an instance of the first. Two cases related by Dr. Macandey, and two others published by Mr. A. C. — I are instances of the second sort. And another case has

been lately recorded by the latter gentleman, affording an example of the third kind. Hildanus, Parè, Petit, Schenck, &c. also

mention cases of phrenie hernia.

HERNIA PUDENDALIS. Pudendal hernial. This is the name assigned, by Mr. A. Cooper, to that which descends between the vagina and ramus ischii, and forms an oblong tumour in the labium, traceable, within the pelvis, as far as the os uteri. Mr. C. thinks this case has some times been mistaken for a hernia of the foramen oyale.

HERNIA SCROTALIS. Hernia oschea-Hernia enteroschocele, oschiocele. Paracelsus cails it crepatura. When the omentum, the intestine, or both, descend into the scrotum, it has these appellations; when the omentum only, it is called epiploschiocele. It is styled a perfect rupture, in contradistinction to a bubonocele, which is the same disorder; but the descent is not so great. The hernia scrotalis is distinguished into the true and false; in the former, the omentum or intestine, or both, fail into the scrotum; in the latter, an inflammation, or a fluid, causes a tumour in this part, as in hernia humoralis, or hydrocele. Sometimes sebaceous matter is collected in the scrotum; and this hernia is called steatocele

HERNIA THYROIDEALIS Hernia oraminis svalis. Thyroideal hernia. In the anterior and upper part of the obturator ligament there is an opening, through which the obturator artery, vem, and nerve proceed, and through which occasionally a piece of omentum or intestine is protruded, covered with a part of the peritoneum, which constitutes the hernial sac.

HERNIA UMBILICALIS. Epiploomphation. Omphalosele. Exomphalos. Omphalos, and, when owing to flatulency, Pneumatomphalos. The exomphalos, or umbilical rupture, is so called from its situation, and has (like other hernia) for its general contents, a portion of intestine, or omentum, or both. In old umbilical ruptures, the quantity of omentum is sometimes very great. Mr. Ranby says, that he found two ells and a half of intestine in one of these, with about a third part of the stonnach, all adhering together.

Mr. Gay and Mr. Nourse, found the liver in the sac of an umbilical herma; and Bolinius says that he did also.

But whatever are the contents, they are originally contained in the sac formed by

the protrusion of the peritoneum.

In recent and small ruptures, this sac is very visible; but in old and large ones, it is broken through at the knot of the navel, by the pressure and weight of the contents, and is not always to be distinguished: which is the reason why it has by some been

doubted whether this kind of rupture has a hernial sac or not.

Infants are very subject to this disease, in a small degree from the separation of the funiculus; but in general they either get rid of it as they gather strength, or are easily cured by wearing a proper bandage. It is of still more consequence to get this disorder cured in females, even than in males; that its return, when they are become adult and pregnant, may be prevented as much as possible; for at this time it often happens, from the too great distention of the belly, or from unguarded motion, when

the parts are upon the stretch.

Dr. Hamilton has met with about two cases annually, for the space of seventeen years, of umbilical hernia, which strictly deserve the name of congenital umbilical The funis ends in a sort of bag, containing some of the viscera, which pass out of the abdomen through an aperture in The swelling is the situation of the navel. not covered with skin, so that the contents of the hernia can be seen through the then distended covering of the cord. The disease is owing to a preternatural deficiency in the abdominal muscles, and the hope of cure must be regulated by the size of the malformation and quantity of viscera protruded.

HERNIA UTERI. Hysterocele. Instances have occurred of the uterus being thrust through the rings of the muscles; but this is scarcely to be discovered, unless in a pregnant state, when the strugglings of a child would discover the nature of the disease. In that state, however, it could scarcely ever occur. It is the cerexis of

Hippocrates.

HERNIA VAGINALIS. Elytrocele. Vaginal hernia. A tumour occurs within the os externum of the vagina. It is elastic, but not painful. When compressed, it readily recedes, but is reproduced by coughing, or even without this, when the pressure is removed. The inconveniences produced are an inability to undergo much exercise, or exertion; for every effort of this sort brings on a sense of bearing down. The vaginal hernia protrudes in the space left between the uterus and rectum. This space is bounded below by the peritoneum, which membrane is forced downwards, towards the peringum; but being unable to protrude further in that direction, is pushed towards the back part of the vagina. These cases probably are always intestinal. Some hernix protrude at the anterior part of the vagina.

HERNIA VARICOSA. See Circocele HERNIA VENTOSA. See Pneumatocele.

HERNIA VENTRALIS. Hypogastrocele. The ventral hernia may appear at almost any point of the anterior part of the belly, but is most frequently found between the recti muscles. The portion of intestine, &c. &c. is always contained in a sac made by the protrusion of the peritonaum. Mr. A. Cooper imputes its causes to the dilatation of the natural foramina, for the transmission of vessels, to congenital deficiencies, lacerations, and wounds of the abdominal muscles, or their tendons. small ventral herniæ, a second fascia is found beneath the superficial one; but in large ones the latter is the only one covering the sac.

HERNIA VESICALIS. Hernia cys-Cystocele. The urinary bladder is liable to thrust forth from its proper situation, either through the opening in the ob-lique muscle, like the inguinal hernia, or under Poupart's ligament, in the same man-

ner as the femoral.

This is not a very frequent species of hernia, but does happen, and has as plain and determined a character as any other.

HERNIARIA. (From hernia, a rupture; so called from its supposed efficacy in curing ruptures.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pen-

tandria. Order, Digynia.

This plant, though 2. Rupturc-wort. formerly esteemed as efficacious in the cure of hernias, appears to be destitute not only of such virtues, but of any other. It is the Herniaria glabra of Linnaus; has no smell, nor taste.

HEUNIAUIA GLABRA. The systematic name of the rupture-wort. See Herniaria. HERNIOTOMY (Herniotomia; from hernia, and τεμνω, to cut.) The operation to remove the strangulated part in cases

of incarcerated herniæ.

(From ερπω, to creep; be-HERPES. cause it creeps and spreads about the skin.) Tetter. A genus of disease in the class locales, and order dialysis, of Cullen, distinguished by an assemblage of numerous little creeping ulcers, in clusters, itching very much, and difficult to heal, but termi-

nating in furfuraceous scales,

Mr. Bell, in his treatise on ulcers, arranges the herpes amongst the cutaneous ulcers, and says, that all the varieties of importance may be comprehended in the four following species: 1 Herpes farinosus, or what may be termed the dry tetter, is the most simple of all the species: it appears indiscriminately in different parts of the body; but most commonly on the face, neck, arms, and wrists, in pretty broad spots and small pimples; these are generally very itchy, though not otherwise troublesome; and, after continuing a certain time, they at last fall off in the form of a white powder, similar to fine bran, leaving the skin helow perfectly sound; and again returning in the form of a red efflorescence, they fall off, and are renewed as before. 2. Herpes pustulosus.

pears in the form of pustules, which originally are separate and distinct, but which afterwards run together in clusters. At first, they seem to contain nothing but a thin watery serum, which afterwards turns yellow, and, exuding over the whole surface of the part affected, it at last dries into a thick crust, or scab; when this falls off, the skin below frequently appears entire, with only a slight degree of redness on its surface; but on some occasions when the matter has probably been more acrid, upon the scab falling off, the skin is found slightly excoriated. Eruptions of this kind appear most frequently on the face, behind the ears, and on other parts of the head; and they occur most commonly in children. 3. Herpes miliaris. The miliary tetter. This breaks out indiscriminately over the whole body: but more frequently about the loins, breast, perinæum, scrotuin, and inguina, than in other parts. It generally appears in clusters, though sometimes in distinct rings, or circles, of very minute pimples, which, from their resemblance to the millet seed, has given rise to the denomination of the species. The pimples are at first, though small, perfectly separate, and contain nothing but a clear lymph, which, in the course of this disease, is excreted upon the surface, and there forms into small distinct scales; these, at last, fall off, and leave a considerable degree of inflamination below, that still continues to exude tresh matter, which likewise forms into cakes, and so falls off as before. The itching, in this species of complaint, is always very troublesome; and the matter discharged from the pimples is so tough and viscid, that every thing applied to the part adheres, so as to occasion much trouble and uneasiness on its being removed. 4. Herpes exedens, the eating and corroding tetter; so called from its destroying or corroding the parts which it attacks, appears commonly, at first, in the form of several small paintul ulcerations, all collected into larger spots, of different sizes and of various figures, with always more or less of an ervsipelatous-like inflammation. These ulcers discharge large quantities of a thin, sharp, serous matter; which sometimes forms into small crusts, that in a short time fall off; but most frequently the discharge is so thin and acrid as to spread along the neighbouring parts, where it soon produces the same kind of sores. Though these ulcers do not, in general, proceed farther than the cutis vera, yet sometimes the discharge is so very penetrating and corrosive as to destroy the skin, cellular substance, and, on some occasions, even the muscles themselves. It is this species that should be termed the depascent, or phagedenic ulcer, from the great destruction of parts which it This species ap- frequently occasions. See Phagedena.

HER

HERPES AMBULATIVA. A species of erysipelas which moves from one part to another.

Tetters about the HERPES COLLARIS. neck.

HERPES DEPASCENS. The same as herpes exedens. See Herpes. HERPES ESTHIOMENOS. Herpes destroy-

ing the skin by ulceration.

HERPES FACIEI. Red piniples common in the faces of adults.

See Herpes. HERPES FARINOSUS.

HERPES FERRUS. Common erysipelas. HERPES INDICA. A fiery, itchy herpes,

pecuiiar to India.

HERPES MILIARIS. See Herpes.

HERPES PERISCELIS. That species of erysipelas known by the name of shingles. See Erysipelas.

HERPES PUSTULOSUS. See Herpes.

HERPES RAPIENS. Venereal ulceration in

HERPES SERPIGO. A name given to the cutaneous affection popularly called a ringworm. See Psoriasis Till the recent observations of Dr. Willan, this disease has not been well discriminated by any author, though it is one with which few practitioners are unacquainted.

HERPES SICCUS. The dry, mealy, tetter

round the knees.

HERPES SYPHILITICUS. Herpes venereus. An herpetic venereal eruption on the skin.

HERPES ZOSTER. Shingles encircling

the body. See Erysipelas.

Herpetic eruptions. See Herpes.

HERPETON. (From εξπω, to creep.) oreeping pustule, or ulcer.

Нехарнанмасим. (From εξ, six, and фадианов, a medicine.) Any medicine, in

the composition of which are six ingredients. HIBERNICUS LAPIS. See Lapis hiberni-

Hibiscus. (From 1/315, a stork, who is said to chew it, and inject it as a clyster) The marsh-mallow.

The systema-HIBISCUS ABELMOSCHUS. tic name of the plant whose seeds are called musk-seed. See Abelmoschus.

Hiccoveн. Hiccup. A spasmodic affection of the diaphragm, generally arising from irritation produced by acidity in the stomach, error of diet, &c.

HIDROA. (From εδρως, sweat.) A pustular disease, produced by sweating in hot wea-

ther.

(From is pos, sweat, and HIDROCRISIS. upwa, to judge.) A judgment formed from the sweat of the patient.

HIDRONOSOS. (From ωρως, sweat, and νοσος, a disease.) The sweating sickness. HIDROPYRETUS. (From 18 pas, sweat, and rupalos, a fever.) The sweating fever, or

sickness. See Sudor Anglicanus. HIDROTICA. (From ideas, sweat.) Medicines which cause perspiration.

HIDROTOPOIETICA. (From ideas, sweat,

and ποιεω, to make.)
and ποιεω, to make.)
Pilvis aloe-HIERA PICRA. (From 1690s, 10ly, and τικρος, bitter) Holy bitter. Pulvis alocticus, formerly hiera logadii, made in the form of an electuary with honey. It is now kept in the form of dry powder, prepared by mixing socotorme alors, one pound, with three ounces of white canella.

HIERABOTANE. (From 1200s, holy, and Bolarn, an herb; so called from its supposed

virtues. A species of verbena.

HIERACANTHA. (From 1890\$, a hawk, and nanbos, a flower; so named because it seizes passengers as a hawk does its prev.)

A sort of thistle.

HIERACIUM. (From ιεχαξ, a hawk; so called because hawks feed upon it, or because it was said that hawks applied the inice of it to cleanse their eyes.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqualis. Hawk weed.

HEIRACIUM PILOCELLA. The systematic name of the auricula muris.

HIERACULUM. The hieracium, or hawkweed.

HIERANOSOS. (From 1880s, holy, and voros, a disease; so called because it was supposed to be that disorder which our Saviour cured, in those who were said to be possessed of devils.) The epilepsy.

(From 1200s, holy.) HIERATICUM. poultice for the stomach, so named from its

supposed divine virtues.

hangs down like a thong

Highmore'e antrum. See Antrum of Highmore

The calabash tree.

HIGUERO.

said to be febrifuge. HIMANTOSIS. (From 1 µas, a thong of leather.) A relaxation of the uvula, when it

HIMAS. A relaxation of the uvula.

HIN. Hindisch. Hing: Assafætida.
HIPPOCASTANUM (From 1770s, a horse, and ragarov, a chesnut; so called from its size.) Castanea equina, pavina. Common horse-chesnut. Æsculus hippocastanum; foliolis septennis of Linnæus. The fruit, when dried and powdered, is recommended as an errhine. The bark is highly esteemed on the Continent as a febrifuge; and is, by some, considered as being superior in quality to the Peruvian bark. The bark intended for medical use is to be taken from those branches which are neither very young nor very old, and to b exhibited under similar forms and doses as directed with respect to the cortex peruvianus. It rarely disagrees with the stomach; but its astringent effects generally require the occasional administration of a laxative-

During the late scarcity of grain, some attempts were made to obtain starch from the horse-chestnut, and not without success.

HIPPOCRATICUS. See Fucies hippocratica.

HILLIA LAPATHUM. (From 17770s, a horse, and namador, the lapathum: a species of lapatter, so named from its size.) See Rhubarbarum monachorum.

HI POSTARATURUM. (From 1770s, a horse, and pagabor, fermel; so named from its size.)

See Saxifraga vulgaris.

HIPPOSLLINUM. (From varos, a horse, and on wor, purslane; so named because it resembles a large kind of purstane.) Smyrnium. Macerona. Herba Alexandrina Grielum agrioselinum. Common Alexanders. This plant, Smyrmium olusatrum of Linnæus, was formerly cultivated in our gardens, for culinary use, but is now superseded by celery. These seeds are bitter and aromatic, and the roots are more powerfully bitter. They stand recommended as resolvents, dirretics, and emmenagogues, though seldom used in medical prescription.

HIPPS. The ripe fruit of the dog-rose. They are chiefly used as a sweet-meat, or in a preserved state, or to make up medi-

cines. See Confectio Rosa canina.

HIPPURIS. (From 177705, a horse, and 8ga, a tail.) 1. Some herbs are thus named, because they resemble a horse's tail.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Monandria. Or-der, Monogynia. Mare's tail.

The systematic HIPPURIS VULGARIS. name of the horse's tail. See Equisetum.

HIPPUS. (From 17770s, a horse; because those who labour under this affection are continually twinkling and trembling, as is usual with those who ride on horse-back.) A repeated dilatation and alternate constriction of the pupil, arising from spasm, or convulsion of the iris.

HIR. (From xug, the hand.) The palm

of the hand.

HIRA. (From hir, the palm of the hand; because it is usually found empty.) The intestinum jejunum.

HIRCUS BEZOAUTICUS. (Quasi hirtus; from his shaggy hair.) The goat which af-

fords the oriental bezoar.

Hinguus. (From egnos, a hedge; because it is hedged in by the eye-lash.) The angle of the eye.

HIRUDO. (Quasi haurudo; from haurio, to draw out; so named from its greedi-

ness to suck blood.) The leech.

HIRCNDINARIA. (From hirundo, swallow; so called from the resemblance of its pods to a swallow.) Swallow-wort, or asclepias. Sec Nummularia and Vincetoxicum.

HIRUNDO. (Ab herendo: from its sticking its nest to the eaves of houses.) The swallow. The cavity in the bend of the arm.

HISTINGLA. (From hispidus, rough; so named from the rough, woolly surface of its stalks.) See Gnaphalium.

Hog's fennel. See Peucedanum.

HOLCIMOS. (From ELKO, to draw.) It sometimes means a tumour of the liver.

HOLCUS. 1. The Indian millet-seed, which is said to be nutritive.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polygamia. Order, Monoecia.

Holly-knee. See Ruscus. Holly, sea. See Eryngium.

HOLMISCU. (Dim. of oxuos, a mortar.) A small mortar. Also the cavity of the large teeth, because they pound the food as in a mortar.

HOLOPBLYCTIDES. (From oxos, whole, and φλυκζις, a pustule.) Little pimples all over

the body.

HOLOSTES. See Holosteus.

Holosteus. (From oxog, whole, and oser, a bone.) Holostes. Holosteum. Gluebone, or osteocolla.

Holosteum. See Holosteus.

HOLOTONICUS. (From olos, whole, and πεινω, to stretch.) Applied to diseases accompanied with universal convulsion, or rigour.

Holy thistle. See Carduus benedictus.

HOLYWELL WATER. A mineral water, arranged under the class of simple cold waters, remarkable for its purity. It possesses similar virtues to that of Matvern. See Malvern water.

Homa An anasarcous swelling.

Homberg's sedative sult. See Boracic acid.

HOMOGENEOUS. (Homogeneus; from omos, like, and gevos, a kind.) Uniform, of a like kind, or species. A term used in contr. distinction to heterogeneous, when the parts of the body are of d fferent qualities.

HOMOPLATE OS. (Ωμοπλαλα: from aμος, the shoulder, and mala, the blade.) See

Scapula

HONEY. Mel. A substance collected by bees from the nectary of flowers, resembling sugar in its elementary properties. It has a white or yellowish colour, a soft and grained consistence, and a saccharine and aromatic smell. Honey is an excellent food, and a softening and slightly aperient remedy: mixed with venegar, it forms oxymel, and is exhibited in various torms, in medicine and pharmacy. Ia is particularly recommended to the asthmatic, and those subject to gravel complaints, from its detergent nature. Founded upon the popular opinion of honey, as a pectoral remedy, Dr. Hill's balsam of honey, a quack medicine, was once in demand; but this, besides honey, contained balsam of Tolu, or gum Benjamin, in solution.

Honey-suckle. See Lonicera pericleminum.

Hooping-cough. See Pertussis.

Hoplochi ISMA. (From other, a weapon, and xpioua, a slave.) A slave, which was ridiculously said to cure wounds by consent; that is, by anointing the instrument with which the wound was made.

Hops. See Lupulus.

Hor Tors The young sprouts of the lion-plant are so called, plucked when only a foot above the ground, and boiled, they are eaten with butter as a delicacy,

and are very wholesome

HORDEOLUM. (Diminutive of Lordeum, barley.) A little tumour on the eyelids, resembling a barley corn. A stye. Scarpa remarks, the stye is strictly only a little boil, which projects from the edge of the eye lids, mostly near the great angle of the eye. This little tumour, like the furuncul s, is of a dark red colour, much inflamed, and a great deal more painful than might be expected, considering its small size. The latter circumstance is partly owing to the vehemence of the inflammation producing the stye, and partly to the exquisite sensibility and tension of the skin which covers the edge of the eyelids. On this account, the hordeolum very often excites fever and restlessness, in delicate irmable constitutions; it suppurates slowly and impersectly; and, when suppurated, has no tendency to burst.

The stve, like other furunculous inflammations, forms an exception to the general rule, that the best mode in which inflammatory swellings can end is, resolution; for, whenever a forunculous inflammation extends so deeply as to destroy any of the cellular substance, the little tumour can never be resolved, or only imperfectly so. This event, indeed, would rather be burtful, since there would still remain behind a greater or smaller portion of dead cellular membrane; which, sooner or later, might bring on a renewal of the stye, in the same place as before, or else become converted into a hard indolent body, deforming the

edge of the eye-lid.

HORDEUM. (Ab horrore arista; from the unpleasantness of its beard to the touch ) 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Lim wan system. Class, Triandria.

Order, Digynia. Barley.
2. The pharmacopæial name of the common bariey. The seed called barley is obtained from several species of hordeum, but principally from the vulgare, or common or Scotch barley, and distiction, or hordeum gallicum vel mundatum, or French barley, of Linnæus. It is ex-remely nutritious and mucilaginous, and in common use as a drink, when boiled, in all inflammatery diseases and affections of the chest, especially when there is cough or irritation about the fances. A decoction of barley, with gum, is considered a useful diluent and demulcent in dysury and strangury; the gun maxing with the urms, sheaths the urinary canal from the acrim ny of the urine. Amongst the ancients, decoctions of barley, Keibn, were

the principal medicine, as well as aliment, in acute diseases. Barley is freed from its shells in mills, and in this state called Scotch and French barley. In Holland, they rub barley into small round grains, somewhat like pearls, which is therefore called pearl barley, or hordeum perlatum. See Ptisan.

HOBDEUM CAUSTICUM. See Cevadilla. HORDEUM DISTICHON.

This plant affords the barley in common use. See Hor-

Hordeum Perlatum. See Hordeum.

HORDEUM VULGARE. The systematic name of one of the plants which afford the barley See Hordeum

Horehound. See Manubium.

(From oguaw, to incite; HORMINUM. named from its supposed qualities of pro-Garden clary. The voking to venery. Sulvia sclara of Linnaus.

Horn, harts. See Cornu.

HORRIPILATIO. A sense of creeping in different parts of the body. A symptom of the approach of fever

Horse-chesnut. See Hippocastanum. See Raphanus rustica-Horse-radish.

Horse-tail. See Equisetum.

HORTUS. (From orior, to rise, as being the place where vegetables grow up.) 1. A garden.

2. The genitals or womb of a woman, which is the repository of the human se-

Hound's tongue. See Cynoglossum. House leek. See Sedum majus.

Human body. See Man.

HUMBETANTIA. (From humecto, to make moist.) Medicines which soften and make

moist the solids of the body.

HUMERAL ARTERY. Arteria humeralis. Brachial artery. The axillary artery, having passed the tendon of the great pectoral muscle, changes its name to the brachial or humeral artery, which name it retains in its course down the arm to the bend, where it divides into the radial and nlnar artery. In this course it gives off several muscular branches, three of which only deserve attention: 1 The arteria profunda superior, which goes round the back of the arm to the exterior muscle, and is often named the upper muscular artery. 2. Another, like it, called arteria profunda inferior, or the lower muscular artery. 3. Ramus anastomoticus major, which anastomoses round the elbow with the branches of the ulnar artery,

HUMERALIS MUSCULUS. See Deltoides. HUMERALIS NERVUS. The cervical

HUMERI OS. (Humerus; from apos,

the shoulder.) Os humeri. Os brachii. long cylindrical bone, situated between the scapula and fore arm. Its upper extremity is formed somewhat laterally and internally, into a large, round, and smooth head, which is admitted into the g'enoid cavity of the scapula. Around the basis of this head is observed a circular to sa, deepest anteriorly and externally, which forms what is called the neck of the bone, and from the edge of which arises the capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by a strong membrinous expansion, extending to the upper edge of the glenoid cavity, and to the coracoid process of the scanula; and likewise by the tendmous expansions of the muscles, inserted into the head of the humerus. This capsular hg ment is sometimes torn in luxation, and becomes an obstacle to the easy reduction of the bone. The articulating surf ce of the head is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin towards its edges; by which means it is more convex in the recent subject than in the skeleton. upper extremity, besides the round smooth head, affords two other smaller protuberances. One of these, which is the largest of the two, is of an irregular oblong shape, and is placed at the back of the head of the bone, from which it is separated by a kind of groove, that makes a part of the neck. This tuberosity is divided, at its upper part, into three surfaces; the first of these, which is the smallest and uppermost, serves for the insertion of the supraspinatus muscle; the second, or middlemost, for the insertion of the infraspinatus; and the third, which is the lowest and hindmost, for the insertion of the teres minor. The other smaller tuberosity is situated anteriorly, between the larger one and the head of the humerus, and serves for the insertion of the subscapularis mu-cle. Between these two tuberosities there is a deep groove, for lodging the tendinous head of the biceps brachii; the capsular ligament of the joint affording here a prolongation, thinner than the capsule itself, which covers and accompanies this muscle to its fleshy portion, where it gradually disappears in the adjacent cellular membrane. Immediately below its neck, the os humeri begins to assume a cylindrical shape, so that here the body of the bone may be said to commence. At its upper part is observed a continuation of the groove for the biceps, which extends downwards, about the fourth part of the length of the bone, in an oblique direction The edges of this groove are continuations of the greater and lesser tuberosities, and serve for the attachment of the pectoralis, latissimus dorsi, and teres major muscles. The groove itself is lined with a glistening substance like cartilage, but which seems to be nothing more than the remains of tendinous fibres. A little lower down, towards the external and anterior side of the middle

of the bone, it is seen rising into a rough ridge, for the insertion of the deltoid muscle. On each side of his ridge the bone is smooth and flat, for the lodgment of the brachialis internus mu-cle; and behind the middle part of the outermose side of the ridge is a channel, for the transmission of vessels into the sub-like of the bone. A little lower down, and near the inner side of the ridge, there is sometimes seen such another channel, which is intended for the same nurpose. The os homeri, at its lower extremey, becomes gradually broader and flatter, so as to have this end nearly of a triangular shape. The bone, thus expanded, affords two surfaces, of which the ane terior one is the broadest, and somewhat convex; and the poster or one narrower and smoother. The bone terminates in four large processes, the two autermost of which are called condyles, though not designed for the articulation of the bone. These condyles, which are placed at some distance from each other, on each side of the bone, are rough and irregular protuberances, formed for the insertion of muscles and ligaments, and differ from each other in size and shape. The external condyle, when the arm is in the most natural position, is found to be placed somewhat forwarder than the other. The internal condyle is longer; and more protuberant, than the external. From each of these processes, a ridge is continued upwards, at the sides of the bone. In the interval between the two condyles are placed the two articulating processes, contiguous to each other, and covered with cartilage. One of these, which is the smallest, is formed into a small, obtuse, smooth head, on which the rad us plays. This little head is placed near the external condyle, as a part of which it has been sometimes described. The other, and larger, process is composed of two lateral protuberances and a middle cavity, all of which are smooth, and covered with cartilage From the manner in which the ulnar moves upon this process, it has gotten the name of trochlea, or pulley. The sides of this pulley are unequal; that which is towards the little head, is the highest of the two; the other, which is contiguous to the external condule, is more slaning, being situated obliquely from within outwards, so that when the forearm is full extended it does not form a straight line with the os humeri, and, for the same reason, when we bend the elbow, the hand comes not to the shoulder, as it might be expected to do, but to the forepart of the breast. There is a cavity at the root of these processes, on each of the two surfaces of the bone. The cavity on the anterior surface is divided, by a ridge into two, the external of which receives the end of the radius, and the internal one lodges the coronoid process of the ulnar in the flexions of the fore-arm. The cavity on the posterior surface, at the basis of the pulley, is much larger, and lodges the olecranon when the arm is extended. The internal structure of the os humeri is similar to that of other long bones. In new-born infants, both the ends of the bone are cartilaginous, and the large head, with the two tubercles above, and condyles, with the two articulating processes below, become epiphyses before they are entirely united to the rest of the bone.

HUMERUS. (From a µos.) Adjutorium. The houlder, or joint which connects the rin to the body. In Hippocrates it is

call-d brachium

HUMILIS. (From humi, on the ground; so named because it turns the eye downwards, and is expressive of humility.) See Rectus inferior oculi.

HUMOR (Ab. humo, from the ground; because moisture springs from the earth.) A general name of any fluid of the body

HUMOR VITREUS. The vitreous humour of the eye, which takes its name from the resemblance to melted glass, is less dense than the chrystalline, but more than the aqueous humour: it is very considerable in the human eye, and seems to be formed by the small arteries that are distributed in cells of the hyaloid membrane; it is heavier than common water, slightly albuminous and saline.

Humour, Aqueous. See Aqueous humour

of the eye.

Humour, Vitreous. See Humor vitreus.

HUMOURS OF THE EYE. They are three in number: the aqueous humour, chrystalline lens, and vitreous humour. See Eye.

HUMULUS. (From humilis, the ground; so named, because without facticious support it creeps along the ground.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan Class, Dioecia. Order, Pentansystem. dria. The hop.

Humulus lupulus. The systematic name

of the hop-plant. See Lupulus.

Hurtsicle. The bluebottle, or cyanus, is so called, because it is troublesome to cut down, and sometimes notches the sickle.

(Membrana hyaloides; HYALOIDES. from vanos, glass, and esdos, likeness.) Membrana arachnoidea. Capsule of the vitreous humour. The transparent membrane enclosing the vitreous humour of the eye.

HYD ARTRUS. (From udwg, water, and agbeor, a joint.) Hydaithron. Hydarthros. Spina ventosa of the Arabian writers, Rhazes and Avicenna. White swelling. The white swelling, in this country, is a peculiarly common and exceedingly terrible disease. The varieties of white swelling are very numerous, and might usefully receive particular appellations. Systematic writers have generally been content with a

distinction into two kinds, viz. rheumatic and scrophulous. The last species of the disease they also distinguish into such tumours as primarily affect the bones, and then the ligaments and soft parts; and into other cases, in which the ligaments and soft parts become deceased, before there is any morbid affection of the bones.

These divisions, Mr. Samuel Cooper, in his treatise on the diseases of the joints, proves to be not sufficiently comprehensive; and the propriety of using the term rheumatic he thinks to be very questionable.

The knee, ankle, wrist, and elbow, are the joints most subject to white swellings. As the name of the disease implies, the skin is not at all altered in colour. In some instances, the swelling yields, in a certain degree, to pressure; but it never pits, and is almost always sufficiently firm to make an uninformed examiner believe that the bones contribute to the tumour. is sometimes vehement from the very first; in other instances, there is hardly the least pain in the beginning of the disease. In the majority of scrophulous whi e swellings, let the pain be trivial or violent, it is particularly situated in one part of the joint, viz. either the centre of the articulation, or the head of the tibia. Sometimes the pain continues without interruption; sometimes there are intermissions; and in other instances the pain recurs at regular times, so as to have been called, by some writers, periodical. Almost all authors describe the patient as suffering more uneasiness in the diseased part when he is warm, and particularly when he is in this condition in

At the commencement of the disease, in the majority of instances, the swelling is very inconsiderable, or there is even no visible enlargement whatever. little depressions, naturally situated on each side of the patella, a fulness first shews itself, and gradually spreads all over the af-

fected joint.

The patient, unable to bear the weight of his body on the disordered joint, in consequence of the great increase of pain thus created, gets into the habit of only touching the ground with his toes; and the knee, being generally kept a little bent in this manner, soon loses the capacity of becoming extended again. When white swellings have lasted awhile, the knee, is almost always found in a permanent state of flexion. In scropliulous cases of this kind, pain constantly precedes any appearance of swelling; but the interval between the two symptoms differs very much in different subjects.

The morbid joint, in the course of time, acquires a vast magnitude. Still the integuments retain their natural colour, and remain unaffected. The enlargement of the

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articulation, however, always seems greater than it really is, in consequence of the emacration of the limb both above and below the disease.

An appearance of blue distended veins, and a shining smoothness, are the only alterations to be noticed in the skin covering the enlarged joint. The shining smoothness seems attributable to the distension, which obliterates the natural forrows and wrinkles of the cutis. When the joint is thus swollen, the integuments cannot be pinched up into a fold, as they could in the state of health, and even in the beginning of the disease.

As the distemper of the articulation advances, collections of matter form about the part, and at length burst. The ulcerated openings sometimes heal up; but such abscesses are generally followed by other collections, which pursue the same course. In some cases, these abscesses form a few months after the first affection of the joint; on other occasions, several years elapse, and no suppuration of this

kind makes its appearance.

Such terrible local mischief must necessarily produce constitutional disturbance. The patient's health becomes gradually impaired; he loses both his appetite and natural rest and sleep; his pulse is small and frequent; and obstinate debilitating diarrhea and profuse nocturnal sweats ensue. Such complaints are sooner or later followed by dissolution, unless the constitution be relieved in time, either by the amendment or removal of the diseased part. In different patients, however, the course of the disease, and its effects upon the system, vary very much in relation to the rapidity with which they occur.

Rheumatic white swellings are very distinct diseases from the scropbulous distemper of large joints. In the first, the pain is said never to occur without being distended with swelling. Scrophulous white swellings, on the other hand, are always preceded by a pain, which is particularly confined to one point of the articulation. In rheumatic cases, the pain is more general,

and diffused over the whole joint.

With respect to the particular causes of all such white swellings as come within the class of rheumatic ones, little is known. External irritation, either by exposure to damp or cold, or by the application of violence, is often concerned in bringing on the disease; but very frequently no cause of this kind can be assigned for the complant. As for scrophulous white swellings, there can be no doubt that they are under the influence of a particular kind of constitution, termed a scrophulous or strumous liabit. In this sort of temperament, every cause capable of exciting inflammation, or any morbid and irritable state of a large joint, may bring such disorder as may end

HYD in the severe disease of which we are now speaking.

In a man of a sound constitution, an irritation of the kind alluded to might only induce common healthy inflammation of the

affected joint.

In scrophulous habits, it also seems probable that the irritation of a joint is much more easily produced than in the other constitutions; and no one can doubt that, when once excited in scrophulous habits, it is much more dangerous and difficult of

removal than in other patients.

HYDATID. (Hydatis; from vdwg, water.) A very singular animal, formed like a bladder, and distended with an aqueous fluid. These animals are sometimes formed in the natural cavities of the body, as the abdomen and ventricles of the brain, but more frequently in the liver, kidney, and lungs, where they produce diseased actions of those viscera. Cullen arranges these affections in the class locales, and order tumores. If the vires naturæ medicatrices are not sufficient to effect a cure, the patient mostly falls a sacrifice to their ravages. Dr. Baillie gives the following interesting account of the hydatids, as they are sometimes found in the liver :- There is no gland in the human body in which hydatids are so frequently found as the liver, except the kidneys, where they are still more common. Hydatids of the liver are usually found in the cyst, which is frequently of considerable size, and is formed of very firm materials. so as to give to the touch almost the feeling of cartilage. This cyst, when cut into, is obviously laminated, and is much thicker in one liver than another. In some livers it is not thicker than a shilling, and in others it is near a quarter of an inch in thickness. The laminæ which compose it are formed of a white matter, and on the inside there is a lining of a pulpy substance, like the coagulable lymph. The cavity of the cyst I have seen, in one instance, subdivided by a partition of this pulpy substance. In a cyst may be found one hydatid, or a greater number of them. They lie loose in the cavity, swimming in a fluid; or some of them are attached to the side of the cyst. They consist of a round bag, which is composed of a white, semi-opaque, pul-py matter, and contain a fluid capable of coagulation. Although the common colour of hydatids be white, yet I have occasionally seen some of a light amber colour-The bag of the hydatid consists of two laminæ, and possesses a good deal of contractile power. In one hydatid this coat, or bag, is much thicker and more opaque than in another; and even in the same hydatid, different parts of it will often differ in its thickness. On the inside of an hydatid, smaller ones are sometimes found, which are commonly not larger than the heads of pins, but sometimes they are even

larger in their size than a gooseberry. These are attached to the larger hydatid. either at scattered irregular distances, or so as to form small clusters; and they are also found floating loose in the liquor of the larger hydatids. Hydatids of the liver are often found unconnected with each other; but sometimes they have been said to enclose each other in a series, like pillboxes. The most common situation of hydatids of the liver is in its substance, and enclosed in a cyst: but they are occasionally attached to the outer surface of the liver, hanging from it, and occupying more or less of the general cavity of the abdomen. The origin and real nature of these hydatids are not fully ascertained: it is extremely probable, however, that they are a sort of imperfect animalcules. There is no doubt at all, that the hydatids in the livers of sheep are animalcules; they have been often seen to move, when taken out of the liver and put into warm water; and they retain this power of motion for a good many hours af er a slieep has been killed. The analogy is great between hydatids in the liver of a sheep, and those of the human subject. In both, they are contained in strong cysts, and in both they consist of the same white pulpy matter. There is undoubtedly some difference between them in simplicity of organization: the hydatid in the human liver being a simple uniform bag, and the hydatid in that of a sheep having a neck and mouth appending to the bag. This difference need be no considerable objection to the opinion above stated. Life may be conceived to be attached to the most simple form of organization. In proof of this, hydatids have been found in the brains of sheep, resembling almost exactly those in the human liver, and which have been seen to move, and therefore are certainly known to be animalcules. The hydatids of the human liver, indeed, have not, as far as I know, been found to move, when taken out of the body and put into warm water; were this to have happened, no uncertainty would remain. It is not difficult to see a good reason why there will hardly occur any proper opportunity of making this experiment. Hydatids are not very often found in the liver, because it is not a very frequent disease there; and the body is allowed to remain for so long a time after death before it is examined, that the hydatids must have lost their living principle, even if they were animalcules, however, it is very strong: and it appears even more difficult to account for their production, according to the common theory of generation, than for that of intestinal worms. We do not get rid of the difficulty by asserting, that hydatids in the hu- and constitutions, as an anthelmintic and man liver are not living animals, because in sheep they are certainly such, where the

difficulty of accounting for their production is precisely the same.

HYDRAGOGUES. (Medicamenta hydrogoga; from voog, water, and axa, to drive ont.) Medicines are so termed, which possess the property of increasing the secretions or excretions of the body, so as to cause the removal of water from any of its cavities, such as tonics, diuretics, cathartics, &c.

HYDRARGYRI NITRICO-OXYDUM

See Nitrico-oxydum hydrargyri.

HYDRARGYRIOXYDUM CINEREUM. See Oxydum hydrargyri cinereum.

HVDRARGYRI OXYDUM RUBRUM.

See Oxydum hydrargyri rubrum. HYDRARGYRI OXYMURIAS.

Oxymurias hydrargyri HYDRARGYRI SUBMURIAS. See

Sec

Submurias hydrargyri.

HYDRARGYRI SULPHURETUM RU-See Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum.

HVDRARGYRUS. useapyugos: from usug, water, and agruess, silver; so named from its having the resemblance to fluid silver.)

See Mercury

HYDRARGYRUS ACETATUS. Mercurius acetatus Pilulæ Keyseri. By this preparation of mercury, the celebrated Keyser acquired an immense fortune in curing the venereal disease. It is an acetite of quicksilver, and therefore termed acetis hydrargyri in the new chemical nomenclature. The dose is from three to five grains. Notwithstanding the encomium given to it by some, it does not appear to be so efficacious as some other

preparations of mercury. HYDRARGYRUS CUM CRETA. Mer-

cury with chalk, Mercurius alkalizatus. "Take of purified mercury, by weight, three ounces; prepared chalk, five ounces." Rub them together, until the metallic globules disappear. This prepiration is milder than any other mercurial, and does not so easily act upon the bowels; it is, therefore, used largely by many practitioners, and possesses alterative properties in cutaneous and venereal complaints, in obstructions of the viscera, or of the prostate gland, given in the dose of Ass to

3ss, two or three times a day.

HYDRARGYRUS CUM SULPHURE. Æthiops mineral. This is a black salphuret of mercury, and therefore called sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum in the new chemical nomenclature. The mercury and sulphur are triturated together; the blended mass thus obtained consists of sulphur and an imperfect oxyd of mercury. The mercury, by this admixture of the sulphur, is deprived of its salivating power, and may be administered with safety to all ages alterative.

HYDRARGYRUS PRECIPITATUS ALBUS. White precipitated mercury. Calx hydrargyri alba. " Take of oxymu- flavus. riate of mercury, muriate of ammonia, of each half a pound; solution of subcarbonate of potash, half a pint; distilled water, four pints." First dissolve the muriate of ammonia, then the oxymuriate of niercury, in the distilled water, and add thereto the solution of subcarbonate of potash. Wash the precipitated powder until it becomes tasteless; then dry it. It is only used externally, in the form of ointment, as an application in some cutaneous affections.

HYDRARGYRUS PRECIPITATUS CINEREUS. This preparation, ordered in the Edinburgh pharmacopæia, is an oxyd of mercury, and nearly the same with the hydrary yri oxydum cinereum of the London pharmacopæia; it is used s an alterative in cases of pains arising from an admixture of rheumatism with syphilis, may be substituted for the hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber, in fumigating ozena, and venereal ulcerated sore throat, on account of its not yielding any vapour offensive to the patient

HYDRARGYRUS PURIFICATUS. Purified inercury. Argentum vivum purificatum. "Take of mercury, by weight, six pounds; iron filings, a pound." Rub them together, and distil the mercury from an iron retort, by the application of heat to it. Purified quicksilver is sometimes administered in its metallic state, in doses of an ounce or more, in constipation

of the bowels.

HYDRARGYRUS PHOSPHORATUS, This remedy has been observed to heal inveterate venereal ulcers in a very short time, nay, in the course of a very few days, particularly those about the pudenda. In venereal inflammations of the eyes, chancres, rheumatisms, and chronic eruptions, it has proved of emment service. . Upon the whole, if used with necessary precaution, and in the hards of a judicious practitioner, it is a medicine mild and gentle in its operation. The cases in which it deserves the preference over other mercurial preparatio s ar these: in an inveterate stage of syphylis, particularly in persons of torpid insensible fibr.s; in cases of exostosis, as well as obstructions in the lymphatic system; in chronic complaints of the skin.

The following is the formula Be Hydrargyri phosphorati, gr iv. Corticis connamomi in pulverem triti, gr xiv. Sac-chai purif. 388. Misee. The whole to be divided into eight equal parts, one of which is to be taken every morning and evening, unless salivation takes place, when it ought to be discontinued. Some patients, however, will bear from one to two grains of the phosphat of quicksilver, without in a painful degree of distention in a few convenience

HYDRARGYRUS

Turpethum minerale. Mercurius emeticus Sulphas hydrargyri. Formerly this medicine was in more general use than in the present day. It is a very powerful and active alterative when given in small doses. Two grains act on the stomach so as to produce violent vomitings. It is recommended as an errhine in cases of amaurosis. In combination with antimony, it acis powerfull, on the skin.

HYDRELEUM. (From voug, water, and Exauor, oil.) A mixture of oil and water.

HYDRENTEROCELE. (From vdag, water, evilegov, an intestine, and known, a tumour.) A dropsy of the scrotum, attended with rupture.

HYDROA. (From usag, water.) A wa-

tery pustule.

HYDROGARDIA. (From udag, water, and nagona, the heart.) Hydrocordis. H, drops pericardii. Dropsy of the heart. Dropsy of the pericardium. A confection of fluid in the pericardium, which may be either coagulable lymph, serum, or a puriform fluid. It produces symptom similar to those of hydrothorax, with violent palpitation of the heart, and mostly an intermit ent pulse. It is incurable.

EARLY, a tumour.) The term below if used in a tumour. if used in a literal sense, means any tumour produced by water; but surgeons have always confined it to those which possess either the membranes of the scrotum, or the coats of the testicle and its vessels. The first of these, viz. that which has its seat in the membranes of the scrotum, anasarca integumentorum, is common to the whole bag, and to all the cellular substance which loosely envelopes both the testes. It is, strictly speaking, only a symptom of a disease, in which the whole habit is most frequently more or less concerned, and very seldom affects the part only. The latter, or those which occupy the coats immediately investing the testicle and its v. ssels, hydrocele tunicæ vaginalis, are absorutely local, very seldom affect the common membrane of the scrotum, generally attack one side only, and are frequently found in persons who are perfectly tree from all other complaints.

The anasarca integumentorum retains the impression of the finger. The vaginal

hydrocele is elastic.

The hydrocele of the tunica vaginalis testi is a morbid accumulation of the water separated on the internal surface of the tunica v ginalis, to moisten or lubricate the testicle.

From its first appearance, it seldom disappears, or diminishes, but generally continues to increase, sometimes rapidly, at others more slowly. In some, it grows to mosths; in others, it continues many years VITRIOLATUS .- with little disturbance. As it enlarges, it

becomes more tense, and is sometimes transparent; so that if a candle is held on the opposite a degree of light is perceived through the whole tumour; but the only certain distinction is the fluctuation, which is not found when the disease is an hernia of the omentum, or intestines, or an inflammatory or a schirrhous tumour of the testicle.

HYDROCELE CYSTATA. Encysted hydrocele of the spermatic cord resembles the common hydrocele; but the tumour does not extend to the testicle, which may be felt below or behind it, while, in the hydroeele of the vaginal coat, when large, the testicle cannot be discovered. In this disease, also, the penis is not buried in the tumour. Sometimes the fluid is contained in two distinct cells; and this is discovered by little contractions in it. It is distinguished from the anasarcous hydrocele by a sensible fluctuation, and the want of the inelastic pitting; from hernia, by its beginning below, from its not receding in an horizontal position, and not enlarging by coughing and sneezing.

Hydrocele funiculi spermatic, or hydrocele of the spermatic cord. Anasarcous hydrocele of the spermatic cord sometimes accompanies ascites, and at other times it is found to be confined to the cellular substance, in or about the spermatic cord. The causes of this disease may be, obstructions in the lymphatics leading from the part, in consequence of schirrous affections of the abdominal viscera, or the pressure of a truss applied for the cure of

hernia,

When the affection is connected with anasarca in other parts, it is then so evident as to require no particular description. When it is local, it is attended with a colourles tumour in the course of the spermatic cord, soft and inelastic to the touch, and unaccompanied with fluctuation. In an erect position of the body, it is of an oblong figure; but when the body is recumbent, it is flatter, and somewhat round. Generally, it is no longer than the part of the cord which lies in the groin; though sometimes it extends as far as the testicle, and even stretches the scrotum to an ancommon size. By pressure, a great part of the swelling can always be made to recede into the abdomen. It instantly, however, returns to its former situation, on the pressure being withdrawn.

HYDROCELE PERITONÆI. Ascites, or

common dropsy of the belly.

HYDROCELE SPINALIS. A watery swell-

ing on the vertebræ.

Hidrocelodes isenting. (From using water, and καλαδης, attended with tumour.) Applied to a suppression of urine, from a rupture of the urethra.

HYDROCEPHALUS. (From υδως, water, and κεφαλη, the head.) Hydrocepha-

lum. Dropsy of the brain. Dropsy of the head. A genus of disease arranged by Culten, in the class cachexia, and order intumescentia. It is distinguished by authors into external and internal: 1. Hydrocephalus externus, is a collection of water between the membranes of the brain. 2. Hydrocephalus internus, is when a fluid is collected in the ventricles of the brain, producing dilatation of the pupils, apoplexy, &c. See Apoplexia. It is sometimes of a chronic nature, when the water has been known to increase to an enormous quantity, effecting a diastasis of the bones of the head, and an absorption of the substance of the brain.

Pain in the head, particularly across the brow, stupor, ddatation of the pupils, nausea, vomiting, preternatural showness of the pulse, and convulsions, are the pathognomic symptoms of this disease, which have been laid down by the generality of

writers.

Hydrocephalus is almost peeuliar to children, being rarely known to extend beyond the age of twelve or fourteen; and it seems more frequently to grise in those of a scrophulous and ricketty habit than in others. It is an affection which has been observed to pervade families, affecting all or the greater part of the children at a certain period of their life; which seems to shew that, in many cases, it depends more on the general habit than on any local affection, or accidental cause.

The disease has generally been supposed to arise in consequence either of ujuries done to the brain itself, by blows, falls, &c. from seirrhous tumours or excrescences within the skull, from original laxity or weakness in the brain, or from general debility and an impoverished state of the

blood.

With respect to its proximate cause, very opposite opinions are still entertained by medical writers, which, in conjunction with the equivocal nature of its symptoms, prove a source of considerable embarrassment to the young practitioner.

Dr. Beddoes says, he believes it to belong to inflammations, and that, at an early period, he should be inclined to bleed as

largely as in pneumonia.

Dr. Withering observes that, in a great many cases, if not in all, congestion, or slight inflammation, are the precursors to

the aqueous aecumulation.

Dr. Rush thinks that, instead of its being considered an idiopathic drops, it should be considered only as an effect of a primary influmnation, or congestion of blood in the brain. It appears (says he) that the disease, in its first stage, is the effect of causes which produce a less degree of that inflammation which constitutes phrenitis; and that its second stage is a less degree of that effusion which produces

serous apoplexy in adults. partakes of the nature of the chronic in. over the eyes, soreness of the integuments flammation of Dr. Cullen, and the asthe-nic inflammation of Dr. Brown. There are others again, who view the subject in a very different light. Dr. Darwin supposes inactivity, or torpor of the absorbent vessels of the brain, to be the cause of hydrocephalus internus; but he confesses, in another part of his work, that the torpor of the absorbent vessels may often exist as a secondary effect.

Dr. Whytt, who has published an ingenious treatise on the disease, observes, the immediate cause of every kind of dropsy is the same, viz. such a state of the parts as makes the exhalent arteries throw out a greater quantity of flaids than the absorbents can take up. From what he afterwards mentions, he evidently considers

this state as consisting in debility.

As many cases are accompanied with an increased or inflammatory action of the vessels of the brain, and others again are observed to prevail along with general anasarca, it seems rational to allow that hydrocephalus is, in some instances, the consequence of congestion, or slight inflammation in the brain; and that, in others, it arises either from general debility or topical laxity. In admitting these as incontrovertible facts, Dr. Thomas is at the same time induced to suppose that the cases of it occurring from mere debility are by no means frequent.

The great analogy subsisting between the symptoms which are characteristic of inflammation, and those which form the first stage of the acute species of hydrocephalus, (for the disease, as already observed, has been divided into the chronic and acute by some writers,) together with the good effects often consequent on bloodletting, and the inflammatory appearance which the blood frequently exhibits, seem to point out strong proof of the disease being, in most instances, an active inflammation, and that it rarely occurs from mere debility, as a primary cause.

The progress of the disorder has, by some, been divided into three stages.

When it is accompanied by an increased or inflammatory action of the brain, as not uncommonly happens, its first stage is marked with many of the symptoms of pyrexia, such as languor, inactivity, loss of appetite, nausea, vomiting, parched tongue, hot, dry skin, flushing of the face, head-ach, throbbing of the temporal arteries, and quickened pulse; which symptoms always suffer an exacerbation in the evening, but towards morning hecome

When it is unaccompanied by any inflammatory action of the brain, many of these appearances are not to be observed. In these cases it is marked by a dejection

The former of countenance, loss of appetite, pains of the cranium to the touch, propensity to the bed, aversion to being moved, nansea, and costiveness. The disease, at length, makes a remarkable transition, which de-notes the commencement of its second stage. The child screams out, without being able to assign any cause; its sleep is much disturbed; there is a considerable dilatation of the pupils of the eyes, without any contraction on their being exposed to light; lethargic torpor, with strabismus, or perhaps double vision, ensues, and the pulse becomes slow and unequal.

In the third stage, the pulse returns again to the febrile state, becoming uncommonly quick and variable; and coma, with convulsions, ensue. When the accumulation of water is very great, and the child young, the sutures recede a considerable way from each other, and the head, towards the end, becomes much enlarged.

When recoveries have actually taken place in hydrocephalus, we ought probably to attribute more to the efforts of nathre than to the interference of art. In every instance it is to be regarded as of difficult cure.

An accumulation of water in the ventricles of the brain is one of the most common appearances to be observed on dissection. In different cases, this is accumulated in greater or less quantities. sometimes amounts only to a few ounces, and occasionally to some pints. When the quantity of water is considerable, the fornix is raised at its anterior extremity, in consequence of its accumulation, and an immediate opening of communication is thereby formed between the lateral ven-The water is of a purer colour, and more limpid than what it is found in the dropsy of the thorax, or abdomen. appears, however, to be generally of the same nature with the water that is accumulated in these cavities. In some instances the water in avdrocephalus contains a very small proportion of coagulable matter, and in others it is entirely free

When the water is accumulated to a very large quantity in the ventricles, the substance of the brain appears to be a sort of pulpy bag, containing a fluid. skull, upon such occasions, is very much enlarged in size, and altered in its shape; and it appears exceedingly large in proportion to the face. On removing the scalp, the bones are found to be very thin, and there are frequently broad spots of membrane in the bone. These appearances are, however, only to be observed where the disease has been of some years continuance.

In some cases, where the quantity of water coll cted is not great, the substance

of the brain has appeared to be indurated, and in others softened. At times, the organ has been found gorged with blood; collections also of a viscid tenacious matter have been discovered in cysts, upon its external surface, and tumours have been found attached to its substance.

HYDROCEPHALUS ACUTUS. See Hydroce.

phalus.

HYDROCEPHALUS EXTERNUS. Water between the brain and its membranes.

HYDROCEPHALUS INTERNUS. Water in

the ven ricles of the brain.

HYDROCOTYLE. (From vdap, water, and xolunn, the cotula.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman sys-Class, Pentandria. Order, Digy-

2. The name, in some pharmacopæias, for the common marsh or water cotula, or penny-wort, which is said to possess acrid qualities.

HYDROCYSTIS. (From usag, water, and uvsis, a vesicle,) An encysted dropsy.

HYDROGEN. from (Hydrogenium; usag, water, and zwomas, to become, or γενναω, to produce, because with oxygen it produces water.) Base of inflammable air.

Hydrogen is a substance not perceptible to our sensations in a separate state; but its existence is not at all the less certain. Though we cannot exhibit it experimentally uncombined, we can pursue it while it passes out of one combination into another; we cannot, indeed, arrest it on its passage, but we never fail to discover it, at least if we use the proper chymical means, when it presents itself to our notice

in a new compound.

Hydrogen, as its name expresses, is one of the constituent elements of water. Its existence was unknown till lately. It is plentifully distributed in nature, and acts a very considerable part in the processes of the animal and vegetable economy. It is one of the ingredients in the mixtures of bitumen, of oils, fats, ardent spirit, ether, and, in fact, of all the proximate component parts of all animal and vegetable bo-It forms a constituent part of all animal and vegetable acids. It is one of the bases of ammonia and of various other compound gases.

It possesses so great an affinity with caloric, that it can only exist in the state of gas; it is consequently impossible to procure it in the concrete or liquid state, inde-

pendent of combination.

Solid hydrogen, therefore, united to caloric and iight, forms HYDROGEN GAS.

Properties of Hydrogen Gas. This gas, which was formerly called inflammable air, was discovered by Mr. Cavendish, in the year 1768, though it had been noticed long before by the ancients. The famous philosophical candle attests the antiquity of this discovery.

Hydrogen gas, like oxygen gas, is a triple compound, consisting of the pon-derable base or hydrogen, caloric, and light It possesses all the mechanical properties of atmospheric air. It is the lightest substance whose weight we are able to estimate: when in its purest state, and free from moisture, it is about thirteen times lighter than atmospheric air. It is not fitted for respiration; animals, when obliged to breatne in it, die almost instantaneously. It is decomposed by living vegetables, and its basis becomes one of the constituents of oil, resin, &c. It is inflammable, and burns rapidly when kindled, in contact with atmospheric air or oxygen gas, by means of the electric spark, or by an inflamed body; and burns, when pure, with a blue lambent flame; but all burning substances are immediately extinguished when immersed in it. It is, therefore, incapable of supporting combustion. It is not injurious to growing vegetables. It is unabsorbable by most substances; but water absorbs about one-thirteenth of its bulk. It is capable of dissolving carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, arsenic, and many other bodies. When its basis combines with that of oxygen gas, water is formed; with nitrogen it forms ammonia. It does not act on earthy substances. It is decomposible by a great variety of bo-

Method of obtaining Hydrogen Gas .- A ready method of obtaining hydrogen gas consists in subjecting water to the action of a substance which is capable of decom-

posing this fluid.

1. For this purpose, let sulphuric acid, previously diluted with four or five times its weight of water, be poured on iron filings, or bits of zinc, in a small retort, or gas-bottle, called a pneumatic flask, or proof; as soon as the diluted acid comes in contact with the metal, a violent effervescence takes place, and hydrogen gas escapes without external heat being appled. It may be collected in the usual manner over water, taking care to let a certain portion escape, on account of the atmospheric air contained in the disengaging vessels.

The production of hydrogen gas in the above way is owing to the decomposition of water. The iron, or zinc, when in contact with this fluid, in conjunction with sulphuric acid, has a greater affinity to oxygen than the hydrogen has; the oxygen, therefore, unites to it, and forms an oxid of that metal, which is instantly attacked and dissolved by the acid; the other constituent part of the water, the hydrogen, is set free, which, by uniting with caloric, assumes the form of hydrogen gas, The oxygen is therefore the bond of union between the metal and the acid.

The hissing noise, or effervescence, ob-

servable during the process, is owing to the rapid motion excited in the mixture by means of the great number of air-bubbles quickly disengaged and breaking at the surface of the fluid.

We see also in this case, that two substances exert an attraction, and are even capable of decomposing, jointly, a third, which neither of them is able to do singly, viz. if we present sulphuric acid alone, or iron or zinc alone, to water, they cannot detach the oxygen from the hydrogen of that fluid; but if both are applied, a decomposition is instantly effected. This experiment, therefore, proves that the agency of chymical affinity between two or more bodies may be dormant, until it is called into action by the interposition of another body, which frequently exerts no energy upon any of them in a separate state. Instances of this kind

were formerly called predisposing affinities, 2. Iron, in a red heat, has also the property of decomposing water, by dislodging the oxygen from its combination with hy-

drogen, in the following manner.

Let a gun-barrel, having its touch-hole screwed up, pass through a furnace, or large crucible perforated for that purpose, taking care to incline the barrel at the narrowest part; adjust to its upper extremity a retort charged with water, and let the other extremity terminate in a tube, introduced under a receiver in the pneumatic trough. When the apparatus is thus disposed, and well luted, bring the gun-barrel to a red heat, and when thoroughly red-hot, make the water in the retort boil; the vapour, when passing through the red-hot tube, will yield hydrogen gas abundantly. In this experiment, the oxygen of the water combines with the iron at a red heat, so as to convert it into an oxyd, and the caloric applied combines with the hydrogen of the water, and forms hydrogen gas. It is, therefore, the result of a double affinity, that of the oxygen of the water with the metal, and that of its hydrogen with caloric.

The more caloric is employed in the experiment of decomposing water by means of iron, &c. the sooner is the water decom-

osed.

Hydrogen gas is frequently found in great abundance in mines and coal-pits, where it is sometimes generated suddenly, and becomes mixed with the atmospheric air of these subterraneous cavities. If a lighted candle be brought in, this mixture otten explodes, and produces the most dreadful effects. It is called, by miners, fire-damp. It generally forms a cloud in the upper part of the mine, on account of its levity, but does not mix there with atmospheric air, unless some agitation takes place. The miners frequently set fire to

it with a candle, laying at the same time flat on their faces, to escape the violence of the shock. An easier and more safe method of clearing the mine is, by leading a long tube through the shaft of it, to the ash-pit of a furnace; by this means the gas will be conducted to feed the fire.

Hydrogen gas, in whatever manner produced, always originates from water, either in consequence of a preceding decomposition, in which it had cen combined, in the state of solid or fixed hydrogen, with one of the substances employed, or from a decomposition of water actually taking place during the experiment.

There are instances recorded of a vapour issuing from the stomach of dead persons, which took fire on the approach of a candle. We even find accounts, in several works, of the combustion of living human beings, which appears to be spontaneous. Dr. Swediaur related some instances of porters at Warsaw, who, having drank abundantly of spirit, fell down in the street, with the smoke issuing out of their mouths; and people came to their assistance, saying they would take fire; to prevent which, they made them drink a great quantity of milk, or used a more singular expedient, by causing them to swallow the urine of the by-standers, immediately on its evacuation.

However difficult it may be to give credit to such narratives, it is equally difficult to reject them entirely, without refusing to admit the numerons testimonies of men, who were, for the most part, worthy of credit. Citizen Lair has collected all the circumstances of this nature which he found dispersed in different books, and has rejected those which did not appear to be supported by respectable testimony, to which he has added some others, related by persons still living. These narratives are nine in number; they were communicated to the Philomatic Society, at Paris, and inserted in the bulletin, Thermidor, An. 5, No. 29. The cause of this phenomenon has been attributed to a development of hydrogen gas taking place in the stomachs of these individuals.

Citizen Lair believes that the bodies of these people were not burned perfectly spontaneously, but it appeared to be owing to some very slight external cause, such as the fire of a candle, taper, or pipe.

HYDROGEN GAS, SULPHURATED. Sulphurated hydrogen gas possesses the properties of an acid; for when absorbed by water, its solution reddens vegetable blues; it combines also with alkalies, earths, and with several metallic oxyds. Sulphurated bydrogen gas possesses an extremely offensive odour, resembling that of putrid eggs. It kills animals, and extinguishes burning bodies. When mixed

with oxygen gas, or atmospheric air, it is inflammable. Mingled with nitrous gas, it burns with a yellowish green flame. is decomposed by ammonia, by oxygenated muriatic acid gas, and by sulphureous acid gas. It has a strong action on the greater number of metallic oxyds. Its specific gravity to common air is as 1106 to 1000. It is composed, according to Thenart, of 70.857 sulphur, and 29.143 hydrogen. It has the property of dissolving a small quantity of phosphorus.

Sulphurated hydrogen gas may be obtain-

ed in several ways :-

1. Take dry sulphuret of potash, put it into a tubulated retort, lodged in a sandbath, or supported over a lamp; direct the neck of the retort under a receiver placed in the pneumatic trough; then pour gra-dually upon the sulphuret diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid; a violent effervescence will take place, and sulphurated hydrogen gas will be liberated. When no more gas is produced spontaneously, urge the mixture with heat, by degrees, till it boils, and gas will again be liberated abundantly.

The water made use of for receiving it should be heated to about 80 or 90; at this temperature it dissolves little of the gas; whereas, if cold water be made use of, a vast quantity of it is absorbed.

Explanation. - Though sulphur makes no alteration on water, which proves that sulphur has less attraction for oxygen than hydrogen has, yet, if sulphur be united to an alkali, this combination decomposes water whenever it comes in contact with it, though the alkali itself has no attraction

either for oxygen or hydrogen.

The formation of this gas explains this truth. On adding the sulphuret of potash to the water, this fluid becomes decomposed, part of the sulphur robs it of its oxygen, and forms with it sulphuric acid; this generated acid unites to part of the alkali, and forms sulphate of potash. liberated hydrogen dissolves another part of the sulphur, and forms with it sulphurated hydrogen, the basis of this gas, which is retained by the separated portion of the alkali. The sulphuric acid added now extricates it from the alkali, and makes it fly off in the form of gas.

The mixture in the retort therefore contains an alkaline sulphure, properly so called, or the simple combination of sulphur with alkali; sulphate of potash, and, lastly, sulphurated hydrogen gas, dissolved in the alkaline sulphure, or an hydroge-

nated sulphuret.

Diluted muriatic acid seems best adapted for the production of sulphurated hydrogen gas from alkaline sulphurets. If nitric acid be made use of it, must be much diluted. Sulphuric acid yields little gas, unless assisted by heat. When the proportion of sulpur in the sulphuret exceeds that of the alkali, the dense sulphuric acid poured upon it emits sulphuric acid gas, much loaded with sulphur. All the rest of the acids may be made use of for decomposing the sulphurets.

2. When iron and sulphur are united together, they afford a large quantity of sulphurated hydrogen gas, on submitting them to the action of heat, in contact with

Melt together, in a crucible, equal parts of iron filings and sulphur; the product is a black brittle mass, called sulphuret of iron. Reduce this to powder, and put it, with a little water, into a tubulated retort; add diluted muriatic acid, and apply a gentle heat, till no more gas is disen-gaged. The philosophy of this experiment is analogous to the former. Part of the oxygen of the water unites to part of the sulphur, and forms sulphuric acid; another part oxydates the iron, which, dissolved by the acid, forms sulphate of iron: the hydrogen of the water unites to another part of the sulphur, and forms sulphurated hydrogen, which gazeous by the addition of caloric.

Sulphurated hydrogen gas may also be obtained by heating an alkaline sulphuret, with the addition of water, without the affusion of an acid. In this case, the water is also decomposed; its hydrogen unites with part of the sulphur, and forms sulphurated hydrogen; the oxygen of the water unites with another part of the sulphur, and produces sulphuric acid, which joins to the alkali and forms a sulphate. The sulphurated hydrogen becomes disengaged

by heat in the gazeous form.

4. Sulphurated hydrogen gas may be obtained by passing hydrogen gas through sulphur, in a state of fusion.

For this purpose, put sulphur into a gunbarrel, or Wedegwood's tube, and place it across a furnace; fit to the lower extremity a bent glass tube, which goes under a receiver placed in the pneumatic trough, and adapt to the upper extremity a tubulated retort, or other apparatus proper for producing hydrogen gas. The sulphur must then be heated, and, when melted, and the hydrogen gas evolved, must be made to pass over it, which, in this manner, will dissolve part of the sulphur, and become converted into sulphurated hydro-

5. It may likewise be procured in a direct manner; for that purpose, let a small quantity of sulphur be enclosed in a jar full of hydrogen gas, and melt it by means of a burning-glass. This method does not succeed, except the hydrogen gas be as dry as possible, for its affinity to sulphur is weakened in proportion to its

moisture.

HYDROGEN GAS, PHOSPHORA-TED. Phosphorated bydrogen gas consists of phosphorus dissolved in hydrogen

Properties.—It is the most combustible substance in nature, and it is particularly distinguished from all other gases, by the property of taking fire immediately when brought in contact with atmospheric When mixed with oxygen gas, or with oxygenated muriatic acid gas, it burns with great vehemence. When bubbles of it are suffered to pass through water, they explode in succession as they reach the surface of this fluid. It has an insupportable odour, similar to that of putrid fish. It is partly absorbable by distilled water, freed from atmospheric air at low temperatures. Distilled water absorbs about onefourth, and gives it out again without alteration by heat. Water containing atmospheric air decomposes it, when suffered to stand with it for some time. When exposed to vivid light, it deposits phosphorus in a crystalline form.

Methods of obtaining it.

1. Take a small retort; put into it one part of phosphorus and ten of a concentrated solution of potash, or soda; make the mixture boil, and receive the liberated gas over mercury; or, if it be intended for immediate use, it may be collected over water. In this experiment, a decomposition of the water takes place. Its oxygen unites to part of the phosphorus, and forms phosphoric acid, which joins to the potash, and forms phosphate of potash. The liberated hydrogen dissolves another part of the phosphorus, and becomes converted into phosphorated hydrogen gas.

In thus preparing this gas, the body of the retort should be filled as nearly as possible with the mixture, otherwise the first portion of gas which is produced inflames in the retort; a vacuum is formed, and the water forced up into the retort,

and endangers the bursting of it.

2 Phosphorated hydrogen gas is also obtained, if, by a direct exposure to a strong heat, we effect a combination of phosphorus and lime, and then throw this compound into water, a great quantity of phosphorated hydrogen gas will soon be formed, and may be collected in the usual manner, over water or mercury.

The production of phosphorated hydrogen gas in this manner, is analogous to the first, with the only difference that here the decomposition of the water takes place at

common temperatures.

3. Phosphorated hydrogen gas may also be obtained, according to Davy, in the

following manner:

Let water be decomposed in the usual manner, by means of zinc and sulphuric acid, and add to the mixture a quantity of phosphorus. The hydrogen evolved will dissolve part of the phosphorus; phosphorated hydrogen gas will be produced, and take fire at the surface of the fluid, so long as the decomposition of the water is made, with considerable rapidity. the gas produced in this process burns with a more lambent flame than that obtained in the usual manner, probably on account of containing a larger quantity of hydrogen. The experiment is nevertheless brilliant; for the gas is disengaged in small bubbles, which cover the whole surface of the fluid; they disengage themselves rapidly, new ones are produced, and the whole fluid resembles a well of fire.

For the success of this experiment, it is essential that the water, during the action of its decomposition, be considerably heated, which may be effected by a copious addition of sulphuric acid, and that the phosphorus be present in a considerable quantity. Half a part of phosphorus cut into small pieces, one of granulated zinc, three of concentrated sulphuric acid. and five of water, answer this purpose

exceedingly well.

Phosphorated hydrogen gas is also produced by nature. The air which burns at the surface of certain springs, and forms what is called burning-springs, and the ignis fatui (Jack o'lanterns), which glide along burying-grounds, or places where animal matter is putrefying, consists of hydrogen gas, holding phosphorus in solution.

Hydrogen gaz, light, carbonated.

Carbonated hydrogen gas.

Hydrogen gaz, heavy, carbonated. Carbonated hydrogen gas.

HYDROLAPATHUM. (From usug, water, and hanzelov, the dock ) Herba Brittanica. Lapathum aquaticum. The water-dock. Rumex hydrolapathum, of Linnaus:-floribus hermaphroditis, valvulis integris graniferis, foliis lanceolatis. The leaves of this plant manifest considerable acidity, and are said to possess a laxative quality. The root is strongly adstringent, and has been much employed, both externally and internally, for the cure of some diseases of the skin, as scurvy, lepra, lichen, &c. The root powdered is said to be an excellent den-

HYDROMELI. (From vdag, water, and μελ, honey.) Mulsum. Aqua mulsa. Melicratum. Braggat. Hydromel. Water impregnated with honey. After it is fermented, it is called vinous hydromel, or

mead.

HYDROMETRA. (From voag, water. and unter, the womb.) Hydrops uteri. Dropsy of the womb. A genus of disease in the class cachexie, and order intumes. centia, of Cullen. It produces a swelling of the hypogastric region, slowly and gradually increasing, resembling the figure of the

uterus, yielding to, or fluctuating on, pressure; without ischury or pregnancy. Sauvage enumerates seven species. It must be considered as a very rare disease, and one that can with difficulty be ascertained.

HYDROMPHALUM. (From υδως, water, and ομφαλος, the navel.) A tumour of the

nave! containing water.

Hydronosos. (From υδως, water, and νοσος, a disease.) The sweating-sickness, called Ephidrosis and Sudor anglicus.

HYDROPEDESIS. (From υδωρ, water, and πιδαω, to break out.) A breaking out into

a violent sweat.

HYDROPHOBIA. (From vswg, water, Rabes canna. Cynanand polew, to fear.) thropia. Cynolesia. Capine madness. This disease arises in consequence of the bite of a rabid animal, as a dog or cat, and sometimes spontaneously. It is termed hydrophobia, because persons that are thus bitten dread the sight or the falling of water when first seized. Cullen has arranged it under the class neuroses, and order spasmi, and defines it a loathing and great dread of drinking any liquids, from their creating a painful convulsion of the pharynx, occasioned most commonly by the bite of a mad animal.

There are two species of hydrophobia: 1. Hydrophobia rabiosa, when there is a

desire of biting.

2. Hydrophobia simplex, when there is

not a desire of biting.

Dr. James observes, that this peculiar affection properly belongs to the canine genus, viz. dogs, foxes, and wolves; in which animals only it seems to be innate and natural, scarcely ever appearing in any others, except when communicated from these. When a dog is affected with maduess, he becomes dull, solitary, and endeavours to hide himself, seldom barking, but making a murmuring noise, and refusing all kinds of meat and drink. He flies at strangers; but, in this stage, he remembers and respects his master; his head and tail hang down; he walks as if over-powered by sleep; and a bite, at this period, though dangerous, is not so apt to bring on the disease in the animal bitten as one afflicted at a later period. The dog at length begins to pant; he breathes quickly and heavily; his tongue hangs out; his mouth is continually open, and discharges a large quantity of froth. Sometimes he walks slowly, as if half asleep, and then runs suddenly, but not always directly, forward. At last he forgets his master; his eyes have a dull, watery, red appearance; he grows thin and weak, often falls down, gets up, and attempts to fly at every thing, becoming very soon quite furious. The animal seldom lives in this latter state longer than thirty hours; and it is said, that his bites, towards the end of his existence, are the most dangerous. The throat of a person suffering hydrophobia is always much affected; and, it is asserted, the nearer the bite to this part the more

perilous.

Hydrophobia may be communicated to the human subject from the bites of cats, cows, and other an mals, not of the canine species, to which the affection has been previously communicated. However, it is from the bites of those domestic ones, the dog and cat, that most cases of hydrophobia originate. It does not appear that the bite of a person affected can communicate the disease to another; at least the records of medicine furnish no proof of this circumstance.

In the human, species, the general symptoms attendant upon the the bite of a mad dog, or other rabid animal, are-the part bitten, at some indefinite period, and occasionally long after the bitten part seems quite well, a slight pain begins to be felt in it, now and then attended with itching, but generally resembling a rheumatic pain. Then come on wandering pains, with an uneasmess and heaviness, disturbed sleep, and frightful dreams, accompanied with great restlessness, sudden startings, and spasms, sighing, anxiety, and a love for solitude. These symptoms continuing to increase daily, pains begin to shoot from the place which was wounded, all along up to the throat, with a straitness and sensation of choaking, and a horror and dread at the sight of water, and other liquids, together with a loss of appetite and tremor. The person is, however, capable of swallowing any solid substance with tolerable ease; but the moment that any thing in a fluid form is brought in contact with his lips, it occasions him to start back with much dread and horror, although he labours perhaps under great thirst at the time.

A vomiting of bilious matter soon comes on, in the course of the disease, and an intense hot fever ensues, attended with continual watching, great thirst, dryness and roughness of the tongue, hoarseness of the voice, and the discharge of a viscid saliva from the mouth, which the patient is constantly spitting out; together with spasms of the genital and urinary organs, in consequence of which the evacuations are forcibly thrown out. His respiration is laborious and uneasy, but his judgment is unaffected, and, as long as he retains the power of speech, his answers are distinct.

In some few instances, a severe delirium arises, and closes the tragic scene; but it more frequently happens, that the pulse becomes tremulous and irregular, that convulsions arise, and that nature, being at length exhausted, sinks under the pressure of misery.

The appearances to be observed, on dis-

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section, in hydrophobia, are unusual aridity of the viscera and other parts; marks of inflammation in the fauces, gula, and laryux; inflammatory appearances in the stomach, and an accumulation or effusion of blood in the lungs. Some marks of inflammation are tikewise to be observed in the brain, consisting in a serious effusion on its surface, or in a redness of the pia mater; which appearances have also presented themselves in the dog.

hi some cases of dissection, not the teast morbid appearance has been observed, citterin the fances, diaphragm, stomach, or intestines. The poison has therefore been conceived by some physicians to act inport the nervous system, and to be so whilely confined to it, as to make it a matter of doubt whether the qualities of the blood

are altered or not.

HYDROPHTHALMIA. (From υδας, water, and οφθακμος, the eye. Hydrophthalmium. There are two diseases, different in their nature and consequences, thus termed. The one is a mere anasarcous or edematous swelling of the eyelid. The other, the true hydropthalmia, is a swelling of the bulb of the eye, from too great a collection of the vitreous or aqueous humours.

ΗΥDROPHTHALMIUM. (From υδως, water, and οφθαλμος, the eye.) See Hydrophthalmia.

Hydrophysocele. (From ωδας, water, φυση, flatulence, and κηλη, a tumour.) Hernia, combined with hydrocele.

HYDROPICA. (From object, the dropsy.) Medicines which relieve or cure dropsy.

Hydropiper, (From obag, water, and ririque, pepper; so called from its biting the tongue like pepper, and being a native of marshy places.) Biting arsmart Lakeweed. Water-pepper. Polygonum hydropiper of Linnaus. This plant is very common in our ditches; the leaves have an acrid burning taste, and seem to be nearly of the same nature with those of the arim. They have been recommended as possessing antiseptic, aperient, diuretic virtues, and given in scurvies and cachexies, asthmas, hypochondriacal and nephritic comptaints, and wandering gont. The fresh leaves have been applied externally, as a stimulating cataplasm.

Hypnopneumosanca. (From υδας, water, τουμα, wind, and σαςξ, flesh.) A tumour of air, water, and solid substances.

Hypnoronnes. (From object, a dropsy, and obse, likeness.) A term formerly applied to liquid and watery excrements.

IN DROPS. (From wwg, water.) Dropsy. A preternatural collection of serous or watery fluid in the cellular substance, or different cavities of the body. It receives

different appellations, according to the particular situation in which it is lodged.

When it is diffused through the cellular membrane, either generally, or partially, it is called anasarca. When it is deposited in the cavity of the cranium, it is called hydrocephalus; when in the chest, hydrothorax, or hydrops pectoris. When in the abdomen, ascites. In the uterus, hydrometra; and

within the scrotum, hydrocele.

The causes of these diseases are, a family disposition thereto, frequent salivations, excessive and long continued evacuations, a free use of spirituous liquors, (which never fail to destroy the digestive powers,) schurosities of the liver, spiecn, pancteas, mesentery, and other abdominal viscera; preceding diseases, as the jaindice, diarrhoa, dysentery, phthis s, asth-ma, gout, intermittents of long duration, scariet fever, and some of the exanthemata; a suppression of accustonicd evacuations, the sudden striking in of eruptive humours, ossification of the valves of the heart, polypi in the right ventricle, aneurism in the arterics, tumours making a considerable pressure on the neighbouring parts, permanent obstruction in the lungs, rupture of the thoracic duct, exposure a length of time to a moist atmosphere, laxity of the exhalents, defect in the absorbents, topical weakness, and general

HYDROPS AD MATULAM. Diabetes.

HYDROPS ARTICULI. A white swelling of a joint is sometimes so called.

HYDROPS CYSTICUS. Any dropsy enclosed

in bags or cysts.

Hydrops genu. An accumulation of synovia, under the capsular ligament of the knee. Hydrops medulae spinalis. See Hydrorachitis and Shina bifida.

Hydrops ovarii A dropsy of the ova-

rium. A species of ascites.

HYDROPS PECTORIS. See Hydrothorax.

HYDROPS PULMONUM. Water in the cellu-

lar interstices of the lings.

Hydrops cteri. See Hydrocele. Hydropetra.

HYDROPYRETUS. (From vdag, water, and mugilos, fever.) The sweating fever or sick-

ness. See Sudor Anglicus.

HYDRORACHITIS. (From ωως, water, and ραχω, the spine.) A fluctuating tumour, mostly situated on the lumbar vertebræ of new-born children. It is a genus of disease in the class cachexia, and order intumescentia of Cullen, and is always incurable. See Spina bifida.

Hyphosaccharum. (From ωδας, water, and σακχαςω, sugar.) A drink made of sugar and water.

II and water.

Hyprosanca. (From use, water, and

rage, the flesh.) Water in the cellular membrane. See Anasarca.

HYDROSARCOCELE. (From whag, water, rage, the flesh, and whin, a tumour.) Sarcocele, with an infusion of water into the cellular membrane.

HYDROSATUM. (From udwg, water, and godov, a rose.) A drink made of water, honey, and the juice of roses.

HYDROSELINUM. (From vdag, water, and GEANOV, purslane.) A species of purslane, growing in marshy places.

Hydrosulphuretum stibii luteum. See

Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum.

HYDROSULPHURETUM STIBII RUBRUM. Kermes mineralis. A sulphuret of antimony formerly in high estimation as an expectorant, sudorific and antispasmodic, in difficult respiration, rheumatism, diseases of the skin

and glands.

HYDROTHORAX. (From υδως, water, and θωςαξ, the chest.) Hydrops thoracis. Hydrops pectoris. Dropsy of the chest. A genus of disease in the class cachexia, and order intumescentia, of Cullen. Difficulty of breathing, particularly when in a horizontal posture; sudden startings from sleep, with auxiety, and palpitations of the heart; cough, paleness of the visage, anasarcous swellings of the lower extremities. thirst, and a scarcity of urine, are the characteristic symptoms of hydrothorax; but the one which is more decisive than all the rest is, a fluctuation of water being perceived in the chest, either by the patient himself or his medical attendant, on certain motions of the body.

The causes which give rise to the disease are pretty much the same with those which are productive of the other species of dropsy. In some cases, it exists without any other kind of dropsical affection being present; but it prevails very often as a part

of more universal dropsy.

It frequently takes place to a considerable degree before it becomes very perceptible; and its presence is not readily known, the symptoms, like those of hydrocephalus, not being always very distinct. In some instances, the water is collected in both sacs of the pleura; but at other times, it is only in one. Sometimes it is lodged in the pericardium alone; but, for the most part, it only appears there, when, at the same time, a collection is present in one or both cavities of the thorax. Sometimes the water is effused in the cellular texture of the lungs, without any being deposited in the cavity of the thorax. In a few cases, the water that is collected is enveloped in small cysts, of a membranous nature, known by the name of hydatids, which seem to float in the cavity; but more frequently they are connected with, and attached to, particular parts of the internal surface of the pleura.

Hydrothorax often comes on with a sense of uneasiness at the lower end of the sternum, accompanied by a difficulty of breathing, which is much increased by any exertion, and which is always most considerable during night, when the body is in an horizontal posture. Along with these symptoms there is a cough, that is at first dry, but which, after a time, is attended with an expectoration of thin mucus. There is likewise a paleness of the complexion, and an anasarcous swelling of the feet and legs, together with a considerable degree of thirst, and a diminished flow of urine. Under these appearances, we have just grounds to suspect that there is a collection of water in the chest; but if the fluctuation can be perceived, there can then remain no doubt as to the reality of its presence.

During the progress of the disease, it is no uncommon thing for the patient to feel a numbness, or degree of palsy, in one or both arms, and to be more than ordinarily sensible to cold. With regard to the pulse, it is usually quick at first, but, towards the end, becomes irregular and intermitting.

Our prognostic in hydrothorax must, in general, be unfavorable, as it has seldom been cured, and, in many cases, will hardly admit even of alleviation, the difficulty of breathing continuing to increase, until the action of the lungs is at last entirely impeded by the quantity of water deposited in the chest. In some cases, the event is suddenly fatal, but in others it is preceded, for a few days previous to death, by a spit-

ting of blood.

Dissections of this disease shew that, in some cases, the water is either collected in one side of the thorax, or that there are hydatides formed in some particular part of it; but they more frequently discover water in both sides of the chest, accompanied by a collection in the cellular texture and principal cavities of the body. The fluid is usually of a yellowish colour; possesses properties similar to serum, and, with respect to its quantity, varies very much, being from a few ounces to several quarts. According to the quantity, so are the lungs compressed by it; and, where it is very considerable, they are usually found much reduced in size. When universal anasarca has preceded the collection in the chest, it is no uncommon occurrence to find some of the abdominal viscera in a schirrous state.

HYGIENE. (From vytawa, to be well.) 'Hygiesis. Hygeia. Modern physicians have applied this term to that division of therapia which treats of the diet of the sick and the non-natural.

Hygiesis. See Hygiene.

Hrona. (From vygos, humid.) Liquid plasters.

HYGREMPLASTRUM. (From uyess, moist, and sundaseev, a plaster.) A liquid plas-

HYGHOBLEPHARICUS. (From vyeos, humid, and Exequeor, the eye-lid.) Applied to the emunctory ducts in the extreme edge, or inner part, of the eye-lid.

HYGROCINCOCELE. (From opens, moist, rigoos, a varix, and κηλη, a tumour.) Dilated spermatic veins, with dropsy of the

scrotum.

HYGROCOLLYRIUM. (From vygos, liquid, and κολλυgιον, a collyrium.) A collyrium composed of liquids.

HYGROLOGY. (Hygrologia; from υγςος, a humour or fluid, and λογος, a discourse.)

The doctrine of the fluids.

HYGROMA. (uzpoma: from uzeos, a liquid.) An encysted tumour, whose content- are either serum or a fluid like lymph. It sometimes happens that these tumours are filled with hydatids. Hygromatous tumours require the removal of the cyst, or the destruction of its secreted surface,

HYGROMETER. (Hygrometrum; from υρεος, moist, and μετεον, a measure.) Hydrometer. An instrument to measure the degrees of moisture in the atmosphere. It also means an infirm part of the body, affected by moisture of the atmosphere.

HYGROSCOPICS. Substances which have the property of absorbing moisture from the atmosphere. See Atmosphere.

HYGROMYHUM. (From vyeos, moist, and µugor, a liquid ointment.) A liquid ointment.

HYGHOPHOBIA. The same as hydrophobia.

(un, matter.) The materia medica, or matter of any kind which comes under the eognizance of a medical person.

HYMEN. (From Hymen, the god of marriage, because this membrane is supposed to be entire before marriage, or copulation.) The hymen is a thin membrane, of a semilunar or circular form, placed at the entrance of the vagina, which it partly eloses. It has a very different appearance in different women, but is generally, if not always, found in virgins, and is very properly esteemed the test of virginity, being ruptured in the first act of coition.

The remnants of the hymen are called the carunculæ myrtiformes. The hymen is also peculiar to the human species. There are two eircumstances relating to the hymen which require medical assistance, is sometimes of such a strong ligamentous texture, that it cannot be ruptured, and prevents the connection between the sexes. It is also sometimes imperforated, wholly closing the entrance into the vagina, and preventing any discharge from the uterus; but both these cases are extremely rare. If the hymen be of an unnaturally firm texture, but perforated, though perhaps with a very small opening, the inconve-

niencies thence arising will not be discovered before the time of marriage, when they may be removed by a crucial incision made through it, taking care not to injure the adjoining parts.

The imperforation of the lymen will produce its inconveniencies when the person begins to menstruate. For the menstrnous blood, being secreted from the, uterus at each period, and not evacuated the patient suffers much pain from the distention of the parts, many strange symptoms and appearances are occasioned, and suspicions injurious to her reputation are often entertained. In a case of this kind, for which Dr. Denman was consulted, the young woman, who was twenty-two years of age, having many uterine complaints, with the abdomen enlarged, was suspected to be pregnant, though she persevered in asserting the contrary, and had never menstruated. When she was prevailed upon to submit to an examination, the circumscribed tumour of the uterus was found to reach as high as the navel, and the external parts were stretched by a round soft substance at the entrance of the vagina, in such a manner as to resemble that appearance which they have when the head of a child is passing through them: but there was no entrance into the vagina. On the following morning, an ineision was carefully made through the hymen, which had a fleshy appearance, and was thickened in proportion to its distention. Not less than four pounds of blood, of the colour and consistence of tar, were discharged; and the tumefaction of the abdomen was immediately removed. Several stellated incisions were afterwards made through the divided edges, which is a very necessary part of the operation; and care was taken to prevent a re-union of the hymen till the next period of menstruation, after which she suffered no inconvenience. The blood discharged was not putrid or coagulated, and seemed to have undergoue no other change, after its secretion, but what was occasioned by the absorption of its more fluid parts Some caution is required, when the hymen is closed in those who are in advanced age, unless the membrane be distended by the confined menses; as Dr. Denman once saw an instance of inflammation of the peritonæum being immediately produced after the operation, of which the patient dicd as in the true puerperal fever, and no other reason could be assigned for the dis-

The carunculæ myrtiformes, by their elongation and enlargement, sometimes become very painful and troublesome.

HIMENEA COURBARIL (Hymenea, corrupt of anime, or animea.) The systematic nime of the tree which affords the resin anime. See . Inime.

HYO. Names compounded of this word

3 E \*

belong to muscles which originate from, or are inserted into, or connected with, the os hy ides; as, Hyo-glessus, Hyo pharyngeus,

Genio hyo glossus, &c.

HYO GLOSSUS. Cerato glossus of Douglas and Cowper. Basio-cerato chondroglossus of Albinus. Hyo-chondroglosses of Dumas. A muscle situated at the sides, between the os hyoides and the tongue. It arises srom he basis, but chiefly from the corner of the os hyoides, running laterally and forwards to the tongue, which its pulls inwards and downwards.

HYOIDES OS. (nosiges : from the Greek letter v, and ewos, likeness; so named from its resemblance.) This bone, which is situated between the root of the tongue and the larynx, derives its name from its supposed resemblance to the Greek letter v, and is, by some writers, described along with the parts contained in the mouth. Ruysch has seen the ligaments of the bone so completely ossified, that the os hyoides was joined to the temporal bones by anchylosis. In describing this bone, it may be distinguished into its hody, horns, and appendices. The body is the middle and broadest part of the bone, so placed that it may be easily felt with the finger in the fore part of the throat. Its fore-part, which is placed to-wards the tongue, is ir egularly convex, and its inner surface, which is turned towards the larynx, is unequally concave. The cornua, or horns, which are flat, and a little bent, are considerably longer than the body of the bone, and may be said to form the sides of the v. These horns are thickest near the body of the bone. the extremity of each is observed a round tubercle, from which a ligament passes to the thyroid cartilage. The appendices, or lesser horns, cornua minora, as they are called by some writers, are two small processes, which in their size and shape are somewhat like a grain of wheat. They rise up from the articulations of the cornua, with the body of the bone, and are sometimes connected with the styloid process on each side, by means of a ligament. It is not unusual to find small portions of bone in these ligaments; and Ruysch, as we have already observed, has seen them completely ossified. In the fœtus, almost the whole of the bone is in a cartilaginous state, excepting a small point of bone in the middle of ks body, and in each of its horns. The appendices do not begin to appear till after birth, and usually remain cartilaginous many years. The os hyoides serves to support the tongwe, and affords attachment to a variety of muscles, some of which perform the motions of the tongue, while others act on the larynx and

HYOPHARYNGEUS. (From voesd'in

the hyoid bone, and pagents, the pharynx.) A muscle so called from us origin in the os hyoides, and its insertion in the pharynx.

HYOPHTHALMUS. (From us, a swine, and οφθαλμος, an eye; so named from the supposed resemblance of its flower to a hog's-eye.) Golden starwort; hog's-eye

plant.

HYOSCIAMUS. (From vs, a swine, and nuamos, a bean; so n med because hogs eat it as a medicine, or it may be because the plant is hairy and bristly, like a swine.) 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia

2. The pharmacopoial name of the henbane, called also Faba suilla. Apollinaris altercum. Agone. Altercangenou. Common or black henbane. Hyosciamus niger; foliis amplexicanlibus sinuatis, floribus sessifoliis amplexicanlibus sinuatis, floribus sessifoliis.

libus of Linnæus.

The leaves of this plant, when recent, have a slightly footid smell, and a mucilaginous taste; when dried, they lose both taste and smell, and part also of their narcotic power. The root possesses the same qualities as the leaves, and even in a more

eminent degree.

Henbane resembles opium in its action, more than any other na cotic does. In a moderate dose, it increases at first the strength of the pulse, and occasions some sense of heat, which are followed by diminished sensibility and motion; in some cases by thirst, sickness, stupor, and dimness of vision-In a large quantity, it occasions profound sleep, hard pulse, and sometimes fierce delirium, ending in coma, or convulsions, with a remarkable dilatation of the pupil, distortion of the countenance, a weak tremulous pulse, and eruption of petechia. On dissection, gangrenous spots have been found on the internal surface of the stomach. Its baneful eff cts are best counteracted by a powerful emetic, and by drinking largely of the vegetable acids.

Henbane has been used in various spasmodic and painful diseases, as in epilepsy, hysteria, palpitation, head-ache, paralysis, mania, and scirrhus. It is given in the form of the inspissated juice of the fresh leaves, the dose of which is from one to two grains; which requires to be gradually increased. It is sometimes employed as a substitute for opium, where the latter, from idiosyncrasy, occasions any disagreeable symptom. The henbane also is free from the constipating quality of the opium.

HYOSCIAMUS ALIUS. This plant, a native of the south of Europe, possesses similar virtues to the hyosciamus niger. See Hyosciamus.

HYOSCIAMUS LUTÆUS. A species of to-

HYOSCIAMUS NIGER. The systematic name or henbane. See Hyosciamus.

HYOTHYROIDES. (From vouses, the hy-

vid bone, and dugousns, the thyroid cartilage.) A muscle named from its origin in the hvoide bone and insertion in the thyroid cartilage.

HYPACTICA. (From υπαγω, to subdue.)

Medicines which evacuate the fæces

HYPALEIPTRUM. (From υπαλειφω, to spread upon.) A spatula for spreading ointments with.

HYPELATA. (From υπέλαω, to move.) Cathartics

HYPEHÆSTHESIS. (From υπεραισθος, to feel excess.) Error of appetite, whether by excess or deficiency. It is synonymous with Dr Culien's order of Dysorexia.

HYPERCATHARSIS. (F: om unse, supra, over or above, and xx8xgw, to purge.) Hyperinesis Hyperinos. An excessive

purgi g from medicines.

HYPERC RYPHOSIS. (From unig, above, and модифи, the vertex.) A prominence, or pro oberance. Hippocrates calls the lobes of the liver and lungs Hypercoryphoses.

HYPERCRISIS. (From unsergious : from unse, over or above, and neww, to separate.) crit cal excretion above measure; as when a fever terminates in a looseness, the humours may flow off faster than the strength can ear, and therefore it is to be checked.

Hypendnosis. (From unig, in excess, and odag, water.) A great distention of any part from water collected in it.

Hyperemesis. (From une, in excess, and eueco, to vomit. An excessive evacuation by vom ting.

Hyperephobrosis. (From vire, excess, and ideac, sweat.) In modera e swearing.

HYPERICUM. (From varg over, and thay, an image, or specti; so named because it was thought to have power over and to drive away evil spirits.) I The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæin system. Class. Polyadelphia. Order, Po-

lyundria. St. John's wort

2. The pharmacopæial name of the perforated or common St. John's wort, called also fuga demonum, and androsemum. Hypericum perfoliatum of Linnaus:-floribus trigynis, caule ancipiti, foliis obtusis pellucido-punciatis. This indigenous plant was greatly esteemed by the ancients, internally in a great variety of diseases, and externally as an anodyne and discutient, but is now very rarely used. The flowers were formerly used in our pharmacopæia, on account of the great proportion of resinous only matter, in which the medical efficiety of the plant is supposed to reside, but are now omit ed.

Hypericum perfonatum. The systematic name of the St. John's wort. See

Hupericum.

HYPERICEM SAXATILE. Hypericoides. Co. ris lutea. Coris ligitima cretica. Bastard St. John's wort. The seeds are said to be diuretic, emmenagogue, and powerfully antispasmodic.

Hyperina. (From uneg, in excess, and www, to evacuate.) Medicines which purge excessively.

Hyperinesis. See Hypercatharsis.
Hyperines. See Hypercatharsis.
Hyperines. (From une, above, and ou, os.) The palate.

HYPLROPHARYNGAUS. (From ung, above and pagon &, he pharynx.) A muscle named from its situation above the pharynx.

HYPEROSTOSIS. (From uneg, upon, and

oseov, a bone. See Exostosis.
Hyperoum. (From urig, above, and wov, the roof, or palate.) A foramen in the upper part of the palate.

HYPERSARCOMA. (From uneg, in excess, and ragog, flesh.) Hypersarcosis. A polypus in the nose. A fleshy excrescence. A polypus.

Hypersarcosis. See Hypersarcoma.

HYPEYODOS. (unegodos: from uno, under, and egoc, passing out.) A flux of the

HYPNOBATES. (From vTvos, sleep, and Extra, to go.) Hypnobatasis. One who walks in his sleep. See Oneirodynia.

Hypnologia (From utros, sieep, and λογος.) A dissertation, or directions for the duc regulation of sleeping and wa-

HYPNOPOLETICA. (From υπνος, sleep, and ποικω, to cause.) Medicines which procure sleep. See Anodynes.

Hypnotics (Hypnotica, sc. medicamenta, υπνωτικα; from υπνος, to sleep.) Adnodynes.

HYPOÆMA. (From uno, under, and aima, blood; becan e the blood is under the cornea.) An effusion of red blood into the chambers of the eye. 5" "

Hypocanones. (From una and nagos, a carus.) Hepocarothis. One who labours

under a low degree of carus.

Hypocathausis. (From viw, under. and xabaiew, to purge.) It is when a medieme does not work so much as expected, or but very little. Or a slight purging, when it is a disorder.

HYPOCAUSTHUM. (From vTo, sub, under, and xaiw, to burn.) A stove, or hot-house, or any such-like contrivance; or place to sweat in, or to preserve plants from cold

HTPOCERCHALEON. (From wow and use y vos, an a perity of the fauces. A striduious kind of asperity of the fauces.

Hypocheomenos. (From 070, under, and χω, to pour.) One who labours under a cataract.

Hypocheorosis. (From uno, and xxxxgaous, the green sickness.) A light degree of chlorosis

HYPOCHONDRIAC REGIONS. giones hupochindriace; from was nuder, and xordeos a cartilage.) Hypochondria. The spaces in the abdomen that are under the cartilages of the spurious ribs on each side of the epigastrium.

HYPOCHONDRIASIS. From υποκρόδρισκος, one who is hipped.) Hypochondriacus morbus. Affectio hypochondriaca. Passio hypochondriaca. The hypochondriac affection. Vapours, spleen, &c. A genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order adynamie, of Cullen, characterized by dyspepsia; languor, and want of energy; sadness and fear, from uncertain causes; with a melancholic te. perament.

The state of mind peculiar to hypochondriacs is thus described by Cullen :- "A languor, listlenesss, or want of resolution and activity, with respect to all undertakings; a disposition to seriousness, sadness, and timidity, as to all future events, and apprehension of the worst or most inhappy state of them; and, therefore, often upon slight grounds, an apprehension of great evil. Such persons are particularly attentive to the state of their own health, to every the smallest change of feeling in their bodies, and from any unusual sensation, perhaps of the slightest kind, they appreliend great danger, and even death itself. In respect to these feelings and fears, there is commonly the most obstinate belief and persuasion." He adds, that it is only when the state of mind just described is joined with indigestion, in either sex, somewhat advanced in years, of a melancholic temperament, and a firm and rigid habit, that the disease takes the name of Hopochondriacism.

The seat of the hypochondriac passion is in the stomach and bowels; for first these parts are disordered, then the others suffer from the connection.

The causes are, sorrow, fear, or excess of any of the passions; too long continued watching; irregular diet. Those habitually disposed to it, (and these causes have little effect in other constitutions,) have generally a sallow or brown complexion, and a down-cast look; a rigidity of the solids, and torpor of the nervous system. Whatever may occasion nervous disorders in general, may be the cause of this in particular.

The signs of this complaint are so various, that to describe them is to describe almost every other disease; but, in general, there is an insurmountable indolence, dejected spirits, dread of death, costiveness, a slow and somewhat difficult inspiration, flatulencies in the prime viæ, and various spasmodic affections. It is seldom fatal; but if neglected, or improperly treated, may bring on incurable melancholy, jaundice, madness, or vertige, palsy, and apoplexy.

madness, or vertigo, palsy, and apoplexy. On dissections of hypochondriacal persons, some of the abdominal viscera (particularly the liver and spleen) are usually found considerably enlarged. In some few instances, effusion and a turgescence of

the vessels have been observed in the brain.

HYPOCHONDRIUM. (From υπο) under, and χοπόρος, a cartilage.) That part of the body which lies under the cartilages of the spurious ribs.

HYPOCHYMA. (From v70, and  $\chi v u$ , to pour; because the ancients thought that the opacity proceeded from something running under the chrystaline humour.) Hypochysis. A cataract.

Hypocistis. (From vito, under, and xisis, the cistus.) A plant called by Linneus Asarum hypocistis, a parasitical plant, growing in warm climates, from the roots of the cistus. The juice, succus hypocisticis, is a mild astringent, of no particular smell nor flavour. It is seldom used.

HYPOCLEPTICUM. (From υπο, under, and κλεπτω, to steal.) A chymical vessel for separating liquors, particularly the essential oil of any vegetable from the water; and named because it steals, as it were, the water from the oil.

HYPOCOELON. (From v70, under, and κοιλον, the cavity above the upper eye-lid.)
The cavity under the lower eye-lid.

Hypocornosis. Cophosis, but in a less degree.

Hypogranium. (From 1270, under, and 2gaver, the skull.) A kind of abscess, so called because situated under the cranium, between it and the dura mater.

HYPODEIRIS. In Rufus Ephesius, it is the extremity of the fore-part of the neck.

Hypodermis. (From  $\nu\pi\sigma_0$ , under, and  $\delta\epsilon_0\mu\alpha$ , the skin.) The cuticle under the chtoris, which covers it like a prepuce. The clitoris.

Hypodesis. (From  $\nu\pi 0$ , under, and  $\delta \epsilon \omega$ , to bind.) An underswathe, or bandage.

HYPODESMUS. A bandage like the former.

HYPOGALA. (From  $u\pi o$ , under, and  $\gamma a\lambda \alpha$ , milk; because it is a milk-like effusion, under the cornea.) A collection of white humour, like milk, in the chambers of the eye. There are two species of this disease: the one takes place, it is said, from a deposition of the milk, as is sometimes observed in women who suckle; the other from a depression of the milky cataract.

HYPOGASTRIC ARTERIES. See Ilia ac arteries.

HYPOGASTRIC REGION. (Regio hypogastrica; from vno, under, and vasne, the stomach.) The region of the abdomen that reaches from above the pubis to within three fingers' breadth of the navel.

HYPOGASTRIUM. (From uno, under, and yasne, the stomach.) The lower region of the part of the belly.

HYPOGASTROCELE. (From uncyasgiov, the hypogastrium, and war, a tumour.)

A tumour, or herma, in the hypogastric

Hypoglossis. (From vao, under, and γλωσσα, the tongue.) The under part of the tongue, which adheres to the lower

Hypoglossus, (From wto, under, and λωσσα, the tongue.) A nerve which goes

to the under part of the tongue.

Hypoglottibes. (From υπο, under, and γλωτία, the tongue.) They are a kind of medicine to be held under the tongue until

they are dissolved.

HYPOGLUTIS. (From υπο, under, and γλετος, the nates.) It is the fleshy part under the nates towards the thigh. say it is the flexure of the coxa, under the

HYPOMIA. (From vno, under, and whos, shoulder. In Galen's Exegesis it is the

part subjacent to the shoulder.

HYPONOMOS. (From υσονομος, a phagedenic ulcer.) A subterraneous place. A

deep phagedenic ulcer.

Hyporedium. (From 1970, under, and wee, the foot.) A cataplasm for the sole of the foot.

(From υποφερομαι, to be HYPOPHORA. carried or conveyed underneath.) A deep

fistulous ulcer.

and οφθαλμος, the eye.) The part under, the eye which is subject to swell in a cachexy, or dropsy.

(From umo, under, and Hypophysis. φυω, to produce.) A disease of the eyelids, when the hairs grow so much as to ir-

ritate and off and the pupil.

HYPOPIUM. (From uno, under, and Tuoy, pus; because the pus is under the Mypopyon. Pyosis. Abscessus
An accumulation of a glutinous cornea.) Hypopyon. Pyosis. vellow fluid, like pus, which takes place in the anterior chamber of the aqueous humour, and frequently also in the posterior one, in consequence of severe, acute ophthalmy, particularly the internal spe-

This viscid matter of the hypopium is commonly called pus; but Scarpa contends that it is only coagulating lymph. The symptoms portending an extravasation of coagulable lymph in the eye, or an hypopium, are the same as those which occur in the highest stage of violent acute ophthalmy, viz. prodigious tumefaction of the eye-lids; the same swelling and redness as in chemosis; burning heat and pain in the eye; pains in the eye-brow and nape of the neck; fever, restlessnesss, aversion to the faintest light, and a contracted state of the pupil.

Hypoulnion. (From vmo, under, and en, the nose.) A name for the parts of the

upper lip below the nostrils.

Hyposarca. (From uno, under, and rage, flesh.) Hyposarcidios. An anasarca.

In Dr. Cullen's Nosology, it is synonymous with Physconia.

HYPOSPADIÆOS. (From υπο, under, and σπαω, to dr w.) The urethra terminating

under the glans.

Hypospathismus. (From υπο, under, and σπαθη, a spatula.) The name of an operation formerly used in surgery, for removing defluxions in the eyes. It was thus named from the instrument with which it was performed.

(From uno, under, and HYPOSPHAGMA. σφαζω, to kill.) Aposphazma. An extravasation of blood in the tunica adnata of the eye, from external injury.

(From uno, under, and HYPOSPLENIA. A small tumour of the  $\sigma\pi\lambda n\nu$ , the spicen.)

spleen.

HYPOSTAPHYLE. (From uno, and σαφυλλ, the uvula.) Relaxation of the uvula.

Hypostasis. (From voiskui, to subside.) A sediment, as the sediment in urine.

HYPOTHENAR. (From υπο, under, and θενας, the palm of the hand.) A muscle which runs on the inside of the hand. Also that part of the hand which is opposite to the palm.

HYPOTHESIS. A system of general rules, founded partly on fact and partly on conjecture. A theory explains every fact: an hypothesis explains only a certain number of facts, leaving some unaccounted for, and others in opposition to it.

ΗΥΡΟΤΗΕΤΟΝ. (From υπο, under, and τιθημι, to put.) A suppository, or medicine introduced into the rectum, to pro-

cure stools.

HYPOXYLON. (From υπο, and ξυλον, wood.) A species of clavaria, which grows under

HYPOZOMA. (From υπο, and ζωννυμι, to bind round.) The diaphragm.

HYPSIGLOSSUS. (From sufinosedes, the hypsitoid bone, and yawoox, the tongue.) A muscle named from its origin in the os hyordes, and its insertion in the tongue.

HYPSILOIDES. A name of the Os Hyoides; also of the Basioglossus muscle. See

Hyoglossus.

HYPTIASMOS. (From υπλιαζω, to lie with the face upwards.) A supine decubiture, or a nausea, with inclination to vomit.

HYPULUS. (From umo, under, and sax. a cicatrix.) An ulcer which lies under a cicatrix.

Hyssop. See Hyssopus.

Hyssop, hedge. See Gratiola.

HYSSOPITES. (From υσσωπος, hyssop.) Wine impregnated with hyssop.

HYSSOPUS. (veromos: from Azob, Heb.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia. Hyssop.

2 The pharmacopæial name of the common hyssop. Hyssopus officinalis of Linnæus :- spicis secundis, foliis lanceolatis. This exotic plant is esteemed as an aromatic and stimulant, but is chiefly employed as a pectoral, and has long been thought useful in humoral asthmas, coughs, and catarrhal affections; for this purpose, an infusion of the leaves, sweetened with honey, or sugar, is recommended to be drank as tea.

HYSSOPUS CAPITATA. Wild thyme.

HYSSORUS OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the common hyssop: See Hyssopus.

HYSTERA. (From vsegos, behind; so called because it is placed behind the other

parts.) The uterus, or womb.

HYSTERALGIA. (From υςτίζα, the womb, and αλγος, pain.) A pain in the womb. HYSTERIA. (From υςτίζα, the womb, from which the disease was supposed to arise.) Passio hysterica. Hysterics. Dr. Cullen places this disease in the class neuroses, and order spasmi. There are four species:

1. Hysteria chlorotica, from a retention

of the menses.

2. Hysteria à leucorrhaa, from a flucr albus.

3. Hysteria à menorrhagia, from an immoderate flow of the menses.

4. Hysteria libidinosa, from sensual de-

The complaint appears under such various shapes, imitates so many other diseases, and is attended with such a variety of symptoms, which denote the animal and vital functions to be considerably disordered, that it is difficult to give a just character or definition of it; and it is only by taking an assemblage of all its appearances, that we can convey a proper idea of it to others.

The disease attacks in paroxysms, or fits. These are sometimes preceded by dejection of spirits, anxiety of mind, effusion of tears, difficulty of breathing, sickness at the stomach, and palpitations at the heart; but it more usually happens, that a pain is felt on the left side, about the flexure of the colon, with a sense of distention advancing upwards, till it gets into the stomach, and removing from thence into the throat, it occasions, by its pressure, a sensation as if a ball was lodged there, which by authors has been called globus hystericus. The disease having arrived at this height, the patient appears to be threatened with suffocation, becomes faint, and is affected with stupor and insensibility; whilst, at the same time, the trunk of the body is turned to and fro, the limbs are variously agitated, wild and irregular actions take place in alternate fits of laughter, crying, and screaming; incolierent expressions are uttered, a temporary delirium prevails, and a frothy saliva is discharged from the mouth. The -pa.ms at length abating, a quantity of wind is evacuated upwards, with frequent sighing

and sobbing, and the woman recovers the exercise of sense and motion without any recollection of what has taken place during the fit, feeling, however, a severe pain in her head, and a soreness over her whole body.

In some cases, there is little or no convulsive motion, and the person lays seemingly in a state of profound sleep, without

either sense or motion.

Hiccup is a symptom which likewise attends in some instances, on hysteria; and now and then it happens, that a fit of hysteria consists of this alone. In some cases of this nature, it has been known to continue for two or three days, during which, it frequently seems as if it would suffocate the patient, and proceeds, gradually weakening her, till it either goes off, or else occasions death by suffocation; but this last is extremely rare. Besides hiccup, other slight spasmodic affections sometimes wholly form a fit of hysteria, which perhaps continue for a day or two, and then either go off of themselves, or are removed by the aid of medicine.

In some cases, the patient is attacked with violent pains in the back, which extend from the spine to the sternum, and at length become fixed upon the region of the stomach, being evidently of a spasmodic nature, and often prevaiting in so high a degree as to cause clammy sweats, a pale cadaverous look, coldness of the extremities, and a pulse hardly perceptible.

Hysteric affections occur more frequently in the single state of life than in the married; and that most usually between the age of puberty and that of thirty-five years; and they make their attack oftener about the period of menstruation than at any other.

They are readily excited in those who are subject to them, by passions of the mind, and by every considerable emotion, especially when brought on by surprise; hence sudden joy, grief, fear, &c. are very apt to occasion them. They have also been known to arise from imitation

and sympathy.

Women of a delicate habit, and whose nervous system is extremely sensible, are those who are most subject to hysteric affections; and the habit which predisposes to their attacks is acquired by inactivity and a sedentary life, grief, anxiety of mind, a suppression or obstruction of the menstrual flux, excessive evacuations, and a constant use of a low diet, or of crude unwholesome food.

Hysteria differs from hypochondriasis in the following particulars, and, by paying attention to them, may always readily be dis inguished from it. Hysteria attacks the sanguine and plethoric; comes on soon after the age of puberty; makes its onset suddenly and violently, so as to deprive the

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patient of all sense and voluntary motion; is accompanied with the sensation of a ball rising upwards in the throat, so as to threaten suffocation; is attended usually with much spasmodic affection; is more apt to terminate in epilepsy than in any other disease; and, on dissection, its morbid appearances are confined principally to the uterus and ovaria.

The reverse happens in hypochondriasis. It attacks the melancholic; seldom occurs till after the age of thirty five; comes on gradually; is a tedious disease, and difficult to cure; exerts its pernicious effects on the membranous canal of the intestines, as well by spasms as wind; is more apt o terminate in melancholy, or a low fever, than in any other disease; and, on dissection, exhibits its morbid effects principally on the liver, spleen, and pancreas, which are often found in a hard, schirrhous, or corrupted state.

Another very material difference might be pointed out betwixt these two diseases, which is, that hysteria is much relieved by advancing in age, whereas hypochondriasis

usually becomes aggravated.

The two diseases have often been confounded together; but, from considering the foregoing circumstances, it appears that a proper line of distinction should be drawn

between them.

The hysteric passion likewise differs from a syncope, as in this there is an entire cessation of the pulse, a contracted face, and a ghastly countenance; whereas, in the uterine disorder, there is often something of a colour, and the face is more expanded; there is likewise a pulse, though languid; and this state may continue two or three days, which never happens in a syncope.

It also differs from apoplexy, in which the abolition of sense and voluntary motion is attended with a sort of snoring, great difficulty of breathing, and a quick puise; which do not take place in hysteric cases.

It differs from epilepsy, in that this is supposed to arise in consequence of a distention of the vessels of the brain; wher as, in hysteria, the spasmodic and convulsive motions arise from a turgescence of blood in the uterus, or in other parts of the gental system.

However dreadful and alarming an hysteric fit may appear, still it is seldom accompanied with danger, and the disease never terminates fatally, unless it changes into epilepsy, or that the patient is in a very weak reduced state.

HYSTERIA CILOROTICA Hysterics from obstructed menses. See Hysteria.

HYSTERIA FEBRICOSA. A tertian fever, with spisms and convulsions.

Hysteria a Leucorum Ea. Hysterics from fluor albus. See Hysteria.

HYSTERIA LIBIDINOSA. Nymphomania, or female libidinous propensity. See Hysteria.

HYSTERIA A MENORRHAGIA. Hysterics from profuse menses. See Hysteria.

HYSTERIALGES. (From v518ga, the womb, and any os, pain.) An epithet for any thing that excites pain in the uterus. Hippocrates applies this word to vinegar; and others signify by it the pains which resemble labour-pains, generally called false pains.

HYSTERITIS. (From v5:62, the womb.) Metritis. Inflammation of the womb. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia, and order phlegmusia, of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, heat, tension, tumour, and pain in the region of the womb; pain in the osuteri when touched, and vomiting.

In natural labours, as well as those of a laborious sort, many causes of injury to the nterus, and the peritonæum which covers it, will be applied. The long continued action of the uterus on the body of the child, and the great pressure made by its head on the soft parts, will farther add to the chance of injury. Besides these, an improper application of instruments, or an officiousness of the midwife in hurrying the labour, may have contributed to the violence. To these causes may be added exposure to cold, by taking the woman too early out of bed after delivery, and thereby throwing the circulating fluids upon the internal parts, putting a stop to the secretion of milk, or occasioning a suppression of the lochia.

An inflammation of the womb is sometimes perfectly distinct, but is more frequently communicated to the peritoneum, Fallopian tubes, and ovaria; and having once begin, the natural functions of the organ become much disturbed, which greatly adds to the disease.

It is oftener met with in women of a robust and plethoric habit than in those of lax fibres and a delicate constitution, particularly where they have indulged freely in food of a heating nature, and in a use of spirituous liquors. It never prevails as an epidemic, like puerperal fever, for which it has probably often been mostaken; and to this we may, with some reason, ascribe the difference in the mode of treating the disease, which has taken place among physic ans.

An inflammation of the uterus shews itself usually about the second or third day after delivery, with a painful sensation at the bottom of the belly, which gradually increases in violence, without any kind of intermission. On examining externally, the uterus appears much increased in size, is hard to the feel, and, on making a pressure upon it, the patient experiences great soreness and p in.

Soon afterwards there eusues an increase

in heat over the whole of the body, with pains in the head and back, extending into the groins, rigors, considerable thirst, nausea, and vomiting. The tongue is white and dry, the secretion of milk is usually much interrupted, the lochial discharge is greatly diminished, the urine is high-coloured and scanty, and if the inflammation is extended to the bladder, is then so totally obstructed as to render the use of a catheter necessary; the body is costive, and the pulse is hard, full, and frequent.

These are the symptoms which usually present themselves, when the inflammation does not run very high, and is perfectly distinct; but when it is so extensive as to affect the peritonæum, those of irritation then generally succeed, and soon destroy

the patient.

Uterine inflammation is always attended with much danger, particularly where the symptoms have ran high, and the proper means for removing them have not been timely adopted. In such cases, it may terminate either in suppuration, scirrhus,

or gangrene.

Frequent rigors, succeeded by flushings of the face, quickness and weakness of the pulse, great depression of strength, delirium, and the sudden cessation of pain and soreness in the region of the abdomen, denote a fatal termination: on the contrary, the ensuing of a gentle diarrhæa, the lochial discharge returning in due quantity and quality, the secretion of milk recommencing, and the uterus becoming gradually softer and less tender to the touch, with an abatement of heat and thirst, prognosticate a favourable issue.

When shiverings attack the patient, after several days continuance of the symptoms, but little relief can be afforded by medicine, the event being generally fatal. In this case, the woman emaciates and loses her strength, becomes hectic, and sinks under colliquative sweating, or purging.

Upon opening the bodies of women who have died of this disease, and where it existed in a simple state, little or no extravasated fluid is usually to be met with in the cavity of the abdomen. In some instances, the peritonmal surfaces have been discovered free from the disease; whilst

in others, that portion which covers the uterus and posterior part of the bladder has been found partially inflamed. The inflammation has been observed, in some cases, to extend to the ovaria and Fallopian tubes, which, when cut open, are often loaded with blood. The uterus itself usually appears of a firm substance, but is larger than in its natural state, and, when cut into, a quantity of pus is often found. Gangrene is seldom, if ever, to be met with.

HYSTEROCELE, (From usea, the womb, and knan, a tumour.) An hernia of the womb. This is occasioned by violent muscular efforts, by blows on the abdomen at the time of gestation, and also by wounds and abscesses of the abdomen which permit the uterus to dilate the part. Ruysch relates the case of a woman, who, becoming pregnant after an ulcer had been healed in the lower part of the abdomen, the tumid uterus descended into a dilated sac of the peritonæum in that weakened part, till it hung, with the included fœtus, at her knees. Yet, when her full time was come, the midwife reduced this wonderful hernia, and in a natural way she was sately delivered of a son.

HYSTEROCISTICUS. (From usiga, the womb, and wusis, the bladder.) Applied to a suppression of urine from the pressure of the uterus against the neck of the blad-

der.

Hysteron. (From v5:gos, afterwards; so named because it comes immediately after the fœtus.) The placenta.

HYSTEROPHYSA. (From υσεξα, the womb, and φυσα, flatus.) The womb distended

with air.

HYSTEROPTOSIS. (From υσεφα, the womb, and πιπίω, to fall.) A bearing down of the w mb.

HYSTEROTOMY. (From υσειζα, the womb, and σεμνω to cut.) See Casarian

operation.

HYSTRICIASIS. (From vsgiz, a hedgehog, or porcupine.) A disease of the hairs, in which they stand erect, like, porcupine quills. An account of this rare disease is to be seen in the *Philosophical Transactions*, No. 424.

HYSTRICIS LAPIS. See Bezoar porcinum. HYSTRITIS. See Hysteritis.

BERIS. (So named from Iberia, the place being but partially diffused, and in having of its natural growth.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Order, Siliculosa.

2. The pharmacopeial name of the plant

which is also called Cardinantica. The Lepidinm iberis of Linnæus. Sciatica cresses. It possesses a warm, penetrating, pungent taste, like unto other cresses, and is recommended as an antiscorbutic, antiseptic, and stomachic.

IBIRACE. See Guaiacum.
IBIRACUM. A wild species of liquorice found in Brasil.

IBIRA PATANGA. Logwood.

IBIS. Ific was a bird much like our kingfisher, taken notice of by the Egyptians, because, when it was sick, it used to inject with its long bill the water or the Nile into its fundament, whence Langius, lib. ii. ep. ii. says they learned the use of clysters.

(From isis, the stork, who was IBISCUS. said to chew it, and inject it as a clyster.)

Marshmallow.

IBIXUMA. (From ιζισκος, the mallow, and ιζος, glue; so named from its having a glutinous leaf, like the mallow.) The soaptree, or Supmaria Arbor.

ICE. Glacis. Water made solid by the application of cold. It is frequently applied by surgeons to resolve external inflamma-

tory diseases,

ICHOR. (Ixag.) A thin, aqueous, and

acrid discharge

ICTHYA. (1χθυες, a fi-li-liook; from ιχθυς, a fish.) The skin of the Squatina, or monkfish: also the name of an instrument like a

fish-hook, for extracting the fætus.

ICHTHYOCOLLA. (From ιχθυς, a fish, and MANA, glue ) Colla piscium. Isinglass. Fish-glue. A substance, partly gelatinous, and partly lymphatic, which is prepared by rolling up the air-bladder of the Accipenser strurio of Linnæus, and several other fishes, and drying it in the air, after it has been twisted into the form of a short cord, as we receive it. It affords a viscid jelly by ebullition in water, which is used in medicine as an emollient in disorders of the throat, intestines, &c

ICHTHYOSIS-(From ιχθυα, the scale of a fish; from the resemblance of the scales to those of a fish.) A genus of disease of the second order of Dr Willan's diseases of the skin. The characteristic of ichthyosis is a permanently harsh, dry, scaly, and, in some cases, almost horny texture of the integuments of the body, unconnected with internal disorder. Psoriasis and Lepra differ from this affection, in

deciduous scales. The arrangement and distribution of the scales in itcthyosis are peculiar. Above and below the decranon on the arm, says Dr. Willan, and in similar situation with respect to the petella on the thigh and leg they are small, rounded, prominent, or papillary, and of a black colour; some of the scaly papillæ have a short narrow neck, and broad irregular tops. On some part of the extremilies, and on the trunk of the body, the scales are flat and large often placed like tiling, or in the same order as scales on the back of a fish; but, in a few cases, they have appeared separate, being intersected by whitish furrows. There is usually in this complaint a dryness and roughness of the soles of the feet; sometimes a thickened and brittle state of the skin in the palms of the hands, with large painful fissures, and, on the face, an appearance of the scurf rather than of scales. The inner part of the wrists, the hams, the inside of the elbow, the furrow along the spine, the inner and upper part of the shigh, are perhaps the only portions of the kin always exempt from the scaliness. Patients affected with ichthyosis are occasionally much harassed with inflamed pustules, or with large painful boils on different parts of the body: it is also remarkable, that they never seem to have the least perspiration or moisture of the skin. This disease did not, in any case, appear to Dr. Willan to have been transmitted hereditarily; nor was more than one child from the same parents affected with it. Dr. Willan never met with an instance of the horny rigidity of the integaments, Ichthyosis cornea, impeding the motion of the muscles or joints It is, however, mentioned by authors as affecting the lips, prepuce, toes, fingers, &c. and sometimes as extending over nearly the whole body.

ICTERITIA. (From icterus, the jaundice.) An eruption of yellowish spots. Also a yellow discoloration of the skin, without

ICTERUS. (Named from its likeness to the plumage of the golden thrush, of which Pliny relates, that if a jaundiced person looks on one, the bird dies, and the patient recovers.) Morbus arcuatus, or arquaius. Aurigo. Morbius regius. Morbus lescoli. The jaundice. A genus of disease in the class cachexia, and order im. petigines, of Cullen; characterized by yel. lowness of the skin and eyes; faces white, and urine of a high colour. There are six species :-

3 F \*

1. Icterus calculosus, acute pain in the epigastric region, increasing after eating; gall-stones pass by tools.

2. Icterus spasmodicus, without pain, after spasmodic diseases and passions of the

mind.

3. Icterus mucosus, without either pain, gall-stones, or spasm, and relieved by the discharge of tough phlegm by stool.

4. Icterus hepaticus, from an induration

in the liver.

5. Icterus gravidarum, from pregnancy and disappearing after delivery.

6. Icterus infantum, of infants.

It takes place most usually in consequence of an interrupted excretion of bile, from an obstruction in the ductus communis choledochus, which occasions its absorption into the blood-vessels. In some cases it may, however, be owing to a redundant secretion of the bile.

The causes producing the first of these are, the pressure of biliary calculi in the gall-bladder and its ducts; spasmodic constriction of the ducts themselves; and, lastly, the pressure made by tumours situated in adjacent parts; hence jaundice is often an attendant symptom on a scirrhosity of the liver, pancreas, &c. and frequently like-

wise on pregnancy.

Chronic bilious affections are frequently brought on by drinking freely, but more particularly by spirituous liquors; hence they are often to be observed in the debauchee and the drinker of drams. They are likewise frequently met with in those who lead a sedentary life, and who indulge much in anxious thoughts.

A slight degree of jaundice often proceeds from the redundant secretion of the bile, and a bilious habit is therefore constitutional to some people, but more particularly to those who reside long in a warm

climate.

By attending to the various circumstances and symptoms which present themselves, we shall in general be able to ascertain, with much certainty the real nature of the cause which has given rise to disease.

We may be assured, by the long continuance of the complaint, and by feeling the liver and other parts externally, whether or not it arises from any tumour in this viscus, or the pancreas, mesentery, or

omentum.

Where passions of the mind induce the disease, without any hardness or enlargement of the liver, or adjacent parts, and without any appearance of calculi in the faces, or on dissection after death, we are naturally induced to conclude that the disorder was owing to a spasmodic affection of the biliary ducts.

Where gall-stones are lodged in the fatal, we ducts, acute lancinating pains will be felt sucking.

in the region of the parts, which will cease for a time, and then return again; great irritation at the stomach and frequent vomiting will attend, and the patient will experience an aggravation of the pain after eating. Such calculi are of various sizes, from a pea to that of a walnut; and, in some cases, are voided in a considerable number, being, like the gall, of a yellowish, brownish, or green colour.

The jaundice comes on with langour, inactivity, loathing of food, flatulency, acidities in the stomach and bowels, and costiveness. As it advances in its progress, the skin and eyes become tinged of of a deep yellow; there is a bitter taste in the mouth, with frequent nausea and vomiting; the urine is very high coloured; the stools are of a grey or clayey appearance, and a dull obtuse pain is felt in the right hypochondrium, which is much aggravated by pressure with the fingers:

Where the pain is very acute, the pulse is apt to become hard and full, and other

febrile symptoms to attend.

The disease, when of long continuance, and proceeding from a chronic affection of the liver, or other neighbouring viscera, is often attended with anasarcous swellings,

and sometimes with ascites.

Where jaundice is recent, and is occasioned by concretions obstructing the biliary ducts, it is probable that, by using proper means, we may be able to effect a cure; but where it is brought on by tumours of the neighbouring parts, or has arisen in consequence of other diseases, attended with symptoms of obstructed viscera, our endeavours will most likely not be crowned with success. Arising during a state of pregnancy, it is of little consequence, as it will cease on parturition.

On opening the bodies of those who die of jaundice, the yellow tinge appears to pervade even the most interior part of the body; it is diffused throughout the whole of the cellular membrane, in the cartilages and bones, and even the substancee of the brain is coloured with it. A diseased state of the liver, gall-bladder, or adjacent viscera, is usually to be met with.

The Icterus infantum, or yellow gum, is a species of jaundice, which, for the most part, affects all children at, or soon after, their birth, and which usually continues for

some days.

It has generally been supposed to arise from the meconium impacted in the intestines, preventing the flow of bile into

The effects produced by it are, languor, indolence, a yellow tinge of the skin, and a tendency to sleep, which is sometimes fatal, where the child is prevented from sucking.

leterus albus. The white jaundice, The chlorosis, or green-sickness, is some-

times thus called.

ICTUS. A stroke, or blow. Hence ictus solis means a stroke of the sun, or that affection which takes place from too great an influence of the sun's heat. It signifies also the pulsation of an artery, and the sting of a bee, or other insect.

IDEUS. (From Bn, a mountain in Phrygia, their native place.) A name of the

pæony, and blackberry.

IDIOCRASIA. See Idiosyncrasia.

IDIOPATHIC. (Idiopathicus; from idios, peculiar, and mados, an affection.) A disease which does not depend on any other disease, in which respect it is opposed to a symptomatic disease, which is

dependant on another.

IDIOSYNCRASY. (Idiosyncrasia; from perament.) A peculiarity of constitution, in which a person is affected by certain agents, which, if applied to a hundred other persons, would produce no effect. thus some people cannot see a finger bleed without fainting; and thus violent inflammation is induced on the skin of some persons by substances that are perfectly innocent to others.

IDIOTROPIA. (From Bus, peculiar, and TRETO, to turn.) The same as Idiosyn-

crasia.

IGNATIA AMARA. The systematic name of the plant which affords St. Ignatius's bean. See Faba indica.

IGNATII FABA. See Faba indica. Ignatius's bean. See Faba indica.

IGNIS CALIDUS. A hot fire: so some call a gangrene: also a violent inflammation, just about to degenerate into a gangrene.

IGNIS FRIGIDUS. A cold fire. A sphacelus hath been thus called, because the parts that are so affected become cold as

the surrounding air.

A name of the ery-IGNIS PERSICUS. sipelas, also of the tumour called a car-

Fire for fusion. It is IGNIS ROTE. when a vessel which contains some matter for fusion is surrounded with live, i. e. red hot coals.

IGNIS SACER. A name of erysipelas, and of a species of Herpes.

IGNIS SAPIENTIUM. Heat of horse-dung. IGNIS SILVATICUS. A name of the Im-

petigo. Ignis volagrius. A name of the Impe-

sigo. IGNIS VOLATICUS. See Erysipelas.

IKAN RADIX. A somewhat oval, oblong, compressed root, brought from China. It is extremely rare, and would appear to be the root of the orchis tribe.

ILAPHIS. A name in Myrepsus for the burdock.

ILECH. By this word, Paracelsus seems to mean a first principle.

ILEIDOS. In the Spagyric language it is

the elementary air.

ILEON CRUENTUM Hippocrates describes it in lib De Intern. Affect. In this disease, as well as in the scurvy, the breath it fetid, the gums recede from the teeth, hæmorrhages or the nose happen, and sometimes there are ulcers in the legs, but the patient can move about his business very well.

ILEUM. (From ωλω, to turn about; from its convolusions.) Ileum intestinum. The last portion of the small intestines, about fifteen hands' breadth in length, which terminates at the valve of the ca-

cum. See Intestines.

ILEX. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Tetrandria. Order, Tetragynia.

ILEX AQUIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the common holly. See Aquifolium.

ILIA. (The plural of Ile, unn.) The flanks, or that part in which is enclosed the small intestines.

ILIAC ARTERIES. Arteriæ iliacæ. The arteries so called are formed by the bifurcation of the aorta, near the last Inmbar vertebra. They are divided into internal and external. The internal iliac, also called the hypogastric artery, is distributed in the fœtus into six, and in the adult into five branches, which are divided about the pelvis, viz. the little iliac, the gluteal, the ischiatic, the pudical, and the obturatory; and in the fœtus the umbilical. The external iliac proceeds out of the pelvis through Poupart's ligament, to form the femoral artery.

ILIAC PASSION. (EIXEDS, IXEDS, EIXELDS, is described as a kind of nervous colic, whose seat is the ilium.) Passio iliaca. Convolvuius. Volvulus. Miserere mer. Chordapsus. Tormentum. A violent vomiting, in which the facal portion of the food is voided by the mouth.

ILIAC REGION. The side of the hypogastric region, just above the hips.

ILIACUS INTERNUS. Iliacus of Wins-Iliaco trachanten of Dumas. thick, broad, and radiated muscle, which is situated in the pelvis, upon the inner surface of the ilium. It arises fleshy from the inner lip of the ilium, from most of the hollow part, and likewise from the edge of that bone, between its anterior superior spinous process and the acetabulum. It joins with the psoas magnus, where it begins to become tendinous, and passing under the ligamentum Fallopii, is inserted in common with that muscle.

tendon of this muscle has been seen distinct from that of the psoas, and, in some subjects, it has been found divided into two portions. The iliacus internus serves to assist the psoas magnus in bending the tligh, and in bringing it directly forwards.

ILIADUM. Riadus. It is the first matter of all things, consisting of mercury, salt, and sulphur. These are Paracelsus's three principles. His iliadus is also a mineral spirit, which is contained in every element, and is the supposed cause of diseases.

ILIASTER. Paracelsus says it is the occult virtue of nature, whence all things

have their increase.

ILINGOS. (Ιλιγγος: from ιλιγξ, a vortex.) A giddiness, in which all things appear to turn round, and the eyes grow dim.

ILISCUS. Avicennna says it is madness

caused by love.

ILIUM OS. (From ilia, the small intestines: so named because it supports the ilia.) The haunch-bone The superior portion of the os innominatum, which, in the fætus, is a distinct bone. See Innominatum 05.

ILLECEBRA. (From ειλεω, to turn; because its leaves resemble worms.) Vermicularis. Piper murale Sedum minus. Wall pepper. Stone-crop The plant thus called is the Sedum acre of Linnæus; in its recent state it is extremely acrid, like the hydropiper; hence, if taken in large doses, it acts powerfully on the primæ viæ, proving both emetic and cathartic; applied to the skin as a cataplasm, it frequently produces vesications and erosions. Boerhave therefore imagines that its internal employment must be unsafe; but experience has discovered, that a decoction of this plant is not only safe, but of great efficacy in scorbuic complaints. which purpose, a handful of the herb is directed, by Below, to be boiled in eight pints of beer, till they are reduced to four, of which three or four ounces are to be taken every, or every other, morning. Milk has been found to answer this purpose better than beer. Not only ulcers simply scorbutic, but those of a scrophulous, or even cancerous tendency have been cured by the use of this plant; of which Marquet relates several instances. He likewise found it useful as an external application in destroying fungous flesh, and in promoting a discharge in gangrenes and carbuncles. Another effect, for which this plant is esteemed, is that of stopping intermittent fevers.

ILLICIUM. The name of a genus of

plants in the Linnæan system.

ILLICUM ANISATUM. The systematic name of the plant, the seeds of which are called the star aniseed. See Anisum stellatum.

ILLOSIS. (From shaes, the eye.) A distortion of the eyes.

an external medicine, like the Ceroma, with which the limbs of wrestlers, and others delighting in like exercises, were rubbed, especially after bathing; an account of which may be met with in Baccius de Thermis.

ILLUTATIO. (From in, upon, and lutum, mud) Illutation. A besmearing any part of the body with mud, and renewing it as it grows dry, with a view of heating, drying and discussing. It was chiefly done with the mud found at the bottom of mineral springs.

ILLYS. (From ιλλος, the eye.) A person who squints, or with distorted eyes.

ILYS. (From  $\iota \lambda \nu \iota_5$ , mud.) The faces of wine. Also an epithet for sediment in stools which resemble faces of wine; also the sediment in urine, when it resembles the same.

IMBECILLITAS OCULORUM. Celsus speaks

of the Nyctalopia by this name.

IMBIBUTIO. (From imbibo, to receive into.) In chymistry it is a kind of cohobation, when the liquor ascends and descends upon a solid substance, till it is fix e therewith.

Immersus. A term given by Bartholine, and some other anatomists, to the Subscapularis muscle, because it was hidden, or, as it were sunk.

IMPATIENS. (From in, not, and putior, to suffer; because its leaves recede from the hand with a crackling noise, as impatient of the touch.) A species of persicaria.

IMPERATORIA. (From impero, to overcome; so named because, its leaves exend and overwhelm the lesser herbs which grow near it.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the Imperatoria ostruthium of Linnæus. Magistrantia. Master-wort. The roots of this plant are imported from the Alps and Pyrences, notwithstanding it is indigenous to this island: they have a fragrant smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. The plant, as its name imports, was formerly thought to be of singular efficacy; and its great success, it is said, caused it to be distinguished by the name of divinum remedium. At present it is considered merely as an aromatic, and consequently is superseded by many of that class which possess superior quadities.

IMPERATORIA OSTRUTHIUM. The systematic name of the master-wort. See

Imperatoria

impertion impeto, to infest.) An order in the class cachexia of Cullen, the genera of

which are characterized by cachexia, deforming the external parts of the body with

tumours, eruptions, &c.

IMPETIGO. This affection, as described by authors, is a disease in which several red, hard, dry, prurient spots arise in the face and neck, and sometimes all over the body, and disappear by furfuraceous or t nder scales.

IMPIA HERBA. (From in, not, and pius, good; because it grows only on barren ground.) A name given to cudweed.

IMPLICATED. Celsus, Scribonius, and some others, call those parts of physic so, which have a necessary dependence on one another: but the term has been more significantly applied, by Bellini, to such fevers, where two at a time afflict a person, either of the same kind, as a double tertian; or of different kinds, as an intermittent tertian, and a quotidian, called a Semitertian.

IMPLUVIUM. (From impluo, o hower The shower-bath. An embro-

cation.

IMPREGNATION. See Conception and Generation.

INANITIO. (From inanio, to empty.) Inanition. Applied to the body, it means evacuation; applied to the mind, it means a defect of its powers

INCANTATION. Incantatio. Incantamen-A way of curi g diseases by charms, defended by Paracelsus, Helmont, and some other chymical enthusiasts.

INCENDIUM. (From incendo, to burn.) A burning fever, or sometimes any burning heat.

INCENSIO. The same as Incendium.

Also a hot inflammatory tumour.

INCERNICULUM. (From incerno, to sift.) A strainer, or sieve. In anatomy, it is a name for the polvis of the kidney, from its office as a strainer.

INCIDE. (From incido, to cut.) Medicines were formerly so called which consist of pointed and sharp particles, as acids, and most salts, which are said to incide or cut the phlegm, when they break it so as to occasion its discharge.

INCIDENTIA. (From incido, to cut.) Al-Medicines supposed to cut viscid terantia.

humours.

INCINERATIO. (From incinero, to reduce to ashes.) Incineration. The reducing of any thing to ashes by fire.

Incisivus inferior. Sce Levator labii

inferioris.

Incisivus LATERALIS. See Levator labii superioris alaque nasi. See Depressor labii

Incisivus Medius. superioris alæque nasi.

INCISORIUM. (From incido, to cut.) table whereon a patient is laid for an ope-

INCISORIUM FORAMEN. A name of the foramen, which lies behind the dentes incisores of the upper jaw.

INCISORS. (Dentes incisores; from incido, to cut, from their use in cutting the The four front teeth of both jaws are so called, because they cut the food. See Teeth.

INCONTINENTIA. (From in and contineo, to contain ) Inability to retain the natural evacuations.

INCRASSANTIA. (From incrasso, to make thick.) Medicines thickening the .

fluids. INCUBUS. (From incubo, to lie upon; because the patient fancies that something

lies upon his chest.) See Night-mare, and Oneirodynia

INCUS. (A smith's anvil, from incudo, to smite upon; so named from its likeness in shape to an anvil.) The largest and strongest of the bones of the ear in the tympanein. It is divided into a body and two crura. Its body is situated anteriorly, is rather broad and thick, and has two eminences and two depressions, both covered with cartilage, and intended for the recept on of the head of the malleus. Its shorter crus extends no farther than the cells of the mastoid apophysis. Its longer crus, together with the mainibrium of the malleus, to which it is connected by a ligament, is of the same extent as the shorter, but its extremity is curved inwards, to receive the os orbiculare, by the intervention of which it s united with the stapes.

INDEX (From indico, to point out; because it is generally used for such purposes.) The fore-finger.

Indian arrow-root. See Maranta.

Indian cress. See Nasturtium indicum. INDIAN DATE-PLUM. The fruit of the Diospyrus lotus of Linnaus. When ripe it has an agreeable taste, and is very nutritious.

Indian leaf. See Cassia lignea. Indian pink. See Spigelia.

INDIAN RUBBER. The substance known by the names Indian rubber, Elasiic gum, Cayenne resin, Cautchuc, and by the French Caoutchouc, is prepared from the juice of the Siphonia elastica; -foliis ternatis elleptisis integerrimis subtus canis longe peliolatis. Suppl. plant. The man ner of obtaining this juice is by making incisions through the bark of the lower part of the trunk of the tree, from which the fluid resin issues in great abundance, appearing of a milky whiteness as it flows into the vessel placed to receive it, and into which it is conducted by means of a tube or leaf fixed in the incision, and supported with clay. On exposure to the air, this milky juice gradually inspissates into a soft, reddish, elastic resin. It is formed by the Indians in South America into various figures, but is commonly brought to Europe in that of speer-shaped bottles, which are said to be formed by spreading

the juice of the Siphonia over a proper mould of clay; as soon as one layer is dry. another is added, until the bottle be of the thickness desired. It is then exposed to a thick dense smoke, or to a fire, until it becomes so dry as not to stick to the fingers, when, by means of certain instruments of iron, or wood, it is ornamented on the outside w th various figures. This being done, it remains only to pick out the mould, which is easily effected by softening it with water. Indian rubber may be subjected to the action of some of the most powerful menstrua, without suffering the least change, while its pliability and elasticity are eminently peculiar to itself. Its proper menstruum is known to some persons in England, who keep it a profound sccret, and prepare the gum into beautiful catheters, bougies, syringes, pessaries, &c.

Indian wheat. See Zea mays.
Indiana Radix. Ipeca uanha.
Indica camores. Potatoes.

INDICANS. Indicant. The proximate cause of a disease, or that from which the indication is drawn.

INDICATING DAYS, are the same as criti-

cal days.

INDICATION (Indicatio; from indico, to shew.) An indication is that which demon trates in a disease what ought to be donc. It is three-fold: preservation, which preserves health; curative, which expels a present disease; and vital, which respects the powers and reasons of dict. The scope from which indications are taken, or determined, is comprehended in this distich;

—— Ars, ætas, regio, camplexio, virtus,
Mos et symptoma, repletio, tempus et

INDICATOR. (From indico, to point; so named from its office of extending the index, or fore-finger.) Extensor indicis of Cowper. Extensor secundi internodii indicis, proprius vulgo indicator of Douglas, and Cubito-sus phalangettien de l'indix of Dumas. An extensor muscle of the forefinger, situated chiefly on the lower and posterior part of the fore-arm. It arises, by an acute fleshy beginning, from the middle of the posterior part of the ulna; its tendon passes under the same ligament with the extensor digitorum communis, with part of which it is inserted into the posterior part of the fore-finger.

Indicum Lignum. Logwood.
Indicus. Sweet and bitter costus.

Indicus morbus. The venereal disease.

INDIGENOUS. (Indigenus; from indu, within, and gigno, to beget.) Applied to diseases which are local, or peculiar to any coun'ry.

INDURANTIA. (From induro, to harden.)

Medicines which harden.

INDUSIUM. (From induo, to put on.)

A shirt. Also the name of the amnior, from its covering the fœtus like a shirt.

Inesis. (From man, to evacuate.) Inchus. An evacuation of the humours.

INFECTION. See Contagion.

INFERNAL. A name given to a caustic, lapis infernalis, from its strong burning property.

INFIBULATIO. (From infibulo, to button together.) An impediment to the retraction

of the prepuce.

INFLAMMABLE. Chymists distinguish by this term such bodies of the mineral kingdom only as burn with facility, and flame in an increased temperature.

INFLAMMATION. (Inflammatio; from inflammo, to burn.) Phlogosis. Phlegmasia, A genus of discase in the class pyrexia, and order phlegmasia, of Cullen.

This disease is characterized by heat, pain, redness, attended with more or less of tumefaction and fever. Inflammation is divided into two species, viz. phlegmonous and erysipelatous.

Besides this division, inflammation is either acute or chronic, local or general, simple, or complicated with diseases.

Phlegmonous inflammation is known by its bright red colour, tension, heat, and a circumscribed, throbbing, painful tume faction of the part, tending to suppuration. Phlegmon is generally used to denote an inflammatory tumour, situated in the skin, or cellular membrane. When the same disease affects the viscera, it is usually called phlegmonous inflammation.

Erysipelatous inflammation is considered as an inflammation of a dull red colour, vanishing upon pressure, spreading unequally, with a burning pain and tumour scarcely perceptible, ending in vesicles, or desquamation. This species of inflammation admits of a division into erythema, when there is merely an affection of the skin alone, with very little of the whole system, and erysipelas, when there is general affection of the system.

The fever attending erysipelatous inflanmation is generally synochus, or typhus, excepting when it affects very vigorous habits, and then it may be synocha.

The fever attending phlegmonous inflammation is almost always synocha. Persons in the prime of life, and in full vigour, with a plethoric habit of body, are most hable to the attacks of phlegmonous inflammation; whereas those advanced in years, and those of a weak habit of body, irritable, and lean, are most apt to be attacked with erysipelatous inflammation.

Phlegmonous inflammation terminates in resolution, suppuration, gangrene, and

scirrhus, or induration.

Resolution is known to be about to take place when the symptoms gradually abates suppuration, when the inflammation does not readily yield to proper remedies; the

throbbing increases, the tumour points and is external, and rigors come on. Gangrene is about to take place when the pain abates, the pulse sinks, and cold perspirations come on. Scirrhus, or inducation, is known by the inflanmation continuing a longer time than usual; the tuniefaction continues, and a considerable hardness remains. This kind of tumour gives little or no pain, and, when it takes place, it is usually the sequel of inflammation, affecting glandular parts. It sometimes, however, is accompanied with lancinating pains, ulcerates, and becomes cancerous.

Erythematous inflammation terminates in resolution, suppuration, or gangrene. The symptoms of inflanimation are account-

ed for in the following way.

The redness arises from the dilatation of the small vessels, which become sufficiently large to admit the red globules in large quantities; it appears also to occur, in some case, from the generation of new vessels. The swelling is caused by the dilatation of the vessels, the phlethoric state of the arteries and veins, the exudation of coagulable lymph into the intestices of the cellular membrane, and the interruption of absorption.

In regard to the augmentation of heat, as the thermometer denotes, very little increase of temperature; it appears to be accounted for from the increased sensibility of the nerves, which convey false impressions to the sensorium. The pain is occasioned by a deviation from the natural state of the parts, and the unusual condition into which the nerves are thrown, The throbbing depends on the increased

action of the arteries.

Blood taken from a person labouring under active inflammation, exhibits a yellowish white crust on the surface; this is denominated the buffy coriaceous, or inflammatory coat. This consists of a layer of coagulable lymph, almost destitute of red globules. Blood, in this state, is often termed sizy. The colouring part of the blood is its heaviest constituent: and, as the blood of a person labouring under in-flammation is longer coagulating than healthy blood, it is supposed that the red globules have an opportunity to descend to a considerable depth from the surface before they become entangled. The buffy coat of blood is generally the best criterion of inflammation; there are a few anomalous constitutions in which this state of blood is always found, but these are rare.

The occasional and exciting causes of imflammation are very numerous; they, however, may generally be classed under external violence, produced either by mechanical or chemical irritation, changes of temperature and stimulating foods. Fever often seems to be a remote cause; the inflammation thus produced is generally considered as critical. Spontaneous inflam-

mation sometimes occurs when no perceptible cause can be assigned for its production. Scrofula and syphillis may be considered as exciting causes of inflammation.

With regard to the proximate cause, it has been the subject of much dispute. Galen considered phlegmon to be produced by a superabundance of the humor sanguineus. Boerhaave referred the proximate cause to an obstruction in the small vessels, occasioned by a viscosity or lenton of the blood. Cullen and others attributed it rather to an affection of the vessels than a change of the fluids.

The proximate cause, at the present period, is generally considered to be a mor-bid dilatation, and increased action of such arteries as lead and are distributed to the

inflamed part.

Inflammation of the brain. See Phrenitis, Inflammation of the bladder. See Cys-

Inflammation of the eyes. See Ophthalmia. Inflammation of the intestines. See En-

Inflammation of the kidneys. See Ne-

Inflammation of the liver. See Hepatitis. Inflammation of the lungs. See Perip-

Inflammation of the peritoneum.

Inflammation of the plenra. See Pleuritis. Inflammation of the stomach, See Gas-

Inflummation of the testicle. See hernia

Inflammation of the uterus. See Hyste-

INFLATIO. (From inflo, to puff up.) A windy tumour, or swelling. See Em-

INFLATIVA. (From inflo, to puff up with wind.) Medicines, or food, which cause flatulence.

INFLUENZA. (The Italian word for influence. The disease is so named because it was supposed to be produced by a peculiar influence of the stars.) See Catarrhus à contagione.

INFRASCAPULARIS. (From infra, beneath, and scapula, the shoulder-blade.) A muscle named from its position beneath

the scapula.

INFRASPINATUS. (From infra, be-

nea h, and spina, the spine )

INFUNDIBULUM (From infundo, to pour in.) 1. A canal that proceeds from the vulva of the brain to the pituitary gland in the sella turcica.

2. The beginnings of the excretory duct of the kidney, or cavities into which the urine is first received, are called infundibula.

INFUSION. (Infusum; from infundo, to pour in.) Infusio. A process that consists in pouring water of any required degree of temperature on such substances as

have a loose texture, as thin bark, wood in shavings, or small pieces, leaves, flowers, &c. and suffering it to stand a certain time. The liquor obtained by the above process is called an infusion. The following are among the most approved infusions.

INFUSUM ANTHEMIDIS. Infusion of chamomile. " Take of chamomile flowers, half an ounce; boining water, a pint" Macerate for ten minutes, in a covered vessel, and strain. For its virtues see Chamemelum.

INFUSUM ARMORACIÆ COMPOSITUM. Compound infusion of horse-radish. "Take of fresh horse-radish-root, sliced, mustardseeds bruised, of each one ounce; boiling water, a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain; then add compound spirit of horse-radish, a fluid ounce. See Ruphanus rusticanus.

INFUSUM AURANTII COMPOSITUM. Compound infusion of orange-peel. "Take of orange peel, dried, two drachms; lemonpeel, fresh, a drachm; cloves, bruised, half a drachm; boiling water, half a pint."
Macerate for a quarter of an hour, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Auran-

INFUSUM CALUMBE. Infusion of calumba. "Take of calumba-root, sliced, a drachm; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Columba.

INFUSUM CARYOPHYLLORUM. Infusion of cloves. "Take of cloves, bruised, a drachm and a half; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Caryophyllum.

INFUSUM CASCARILLE. Infusion of cascarilla. " Take of cascarilla-bark, bruised, half an ounce; boiling water, half a pint."
Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Cascarilla.

INFUSUM CATECHU. Infusion of catechu. " Take of extract of catechu, two drachms and a half; cinnamon bark, bruised, half a drachm; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for an hour, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Catechu.

INFUSUM CINCHONA. Infusion of cinchona. "Take of lance-leaved cincliona bark, half an ounce; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Cinchona.

INFUSUM CUSPARIE. Infusion of cusparia. "Take of cusparia bark, bruised, two drachms; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Augustura.

INFUSUM DIGITALIS. Infusion of foxglove. "Take of purple fox-glove leaves, dried and powdered, a drachm; boiling water, half a drachm." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain; then add spirit of cinnamon, half a fluid ounce. See Digitalis.

INFUSUM GENTIANÆ COMPOSITUM. Compound infusion of gentian. "Take of gentian-root, sliced, orange-peel, dried, of each a drachm; lemon-peel, fresh, two drachms; boiling water, twelve ounces."
Macerate for an horr, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Gentiana.

Infusion of linseed. INFUSUM LINI. "Take of linseed, an ounce; liquorice-root, sliced, half an ounce; boiling water, two pints." Macerate for two hours, near the fire, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Linum.

INFUSUM QUASSIÆ, Infusion of quassia. " Take of quassia wood, a scruple; boiling water, half a pint." Maccrate for two hours, and strain. See Quassia.

INFUSUM RHÆ1. Infusion of rhubarb. "T ke of rhubarb root, sliced, a drachm; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, and strain. See Rhab irbarum.

INFUSUM ROSE. "Take of the petals of red rose, dried, half an ounce; boiling water, two pints and a half; delute sulphuric acid, three fluid drachms; double-refined sugar, an ounce and a half." Pour the water upon the petals of the rose in a covered glass vessel; then add the acid, and macerate for half an hour. Lastly, strain the infusion and add the sugar to it,

INFUSUM SENNÆ. Infusion of senna. "Take of senna-leaves, an ounce and half; ginger-root, sliced, a drachm; boiling water, a pint." Macerate for an hour, in a covered vessel, and strain the liquor.

INFUSUM SIMAROUBE. Infusion of simarouba. "Take of simarouba-bark, bruised, half a drachm; boiling water, half a pint." Macerate for two hours, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Simarouba.

INFUSUM TABACI. Infusion of tobacco. "Take of tobacco-leaves, a drachm; boiling water, a pint" Macerate for an hour, in a covered vessel, and strain. See Nicotiana. INGLUVIES. The claw, crop, or gorge of

a bird. Also gluttony.

INGRAVIDATION. (From ingravidor, to be great with child.) The same as impregnation, or going with child.

INGUEN. The groin. The lower and lateral part of the abdomen, above the thigh

Inguinal ligament. See Poupart's liga-

Inguinal hernia. See Hernia.

INHUMATION. (From inhumo, to put into the ground.) The burying a patient in warm or medicated earth. Some chymists have tancied thus to call that kind of diges. tion, which is performed by burying the materials in dung, or in the earth.

INION. (From 15, a nerve; as being the place where nerves originate.) The occiput. Blancard says it is the beginning of the spinal marrow: others say it is the back part of the neck.

INJACULATIO. (From injaculor, to shoot into.) So Helmont calls a disorder largest of the two. The ends of this spine which consists of a violent spasmodic pain in the stomach, and an immobility of the body.

INJECTION. (From injicio, to cast into.) A medicated liquor, to throw into a natural or preternatural cavity of the body by means of a syringe.

INNOMINATA ARTERIA. The first branch given off by the arch of the aorta. It soon divides into the right carotid and

right subclavian arteries.

INNOMINATUM OS. (Innominatus; from in, priv. and nomen, a name; so called because the three bones of which it originally was formed grew together, and formed one complete bone, which was then left nameless.) A large irregular bone, situated at the side of the pelvis. It is divided into three portions, viz. the iliac, ischiatic, and pubic, which are usually described as three distinct bones.

The os ilium, or haunch bone, is of a very irregular shape. The lower part of it is thick and narrow; its superior portion is broad and thin, terminating in a ridge, called the spine of the ilium, and more commonly known by the name of the haunch. This spine rises up like an arch, being turned somewhat outward, and from this appearance, the upper part of the pelvis, when viewed together, has not been improperly compared to the wings of a phacton. This spine, in the recent subject, appears as if tipped with cartilage; but this appearance is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. Externally, this bone is unequally prominent, and hollowed for the attachment of muscles; and internally, at its broadest fore-part, it is smooth and concave. At its lower part, there is a considerable ridge on its inner surface. This ridge, which extends from the os sacrum, and corresponds with a similar prominence, both on that bone and the ischium, forms, with the inner part of the ossa pubis, what is called the brim of the pelvis. The whele of the internal surface, behind this ridge, is very unequal. The os ilium has likewise a smaller surface posteriorly, by which it is articulated to the sides of the os sacrum. This surface has, by some, been compared to the human ear, and by others, to the head of a bird; but neither of these comparisons seem to convey any just idea of its form or appearance. Its upper part is rough and porous; lower down it is more solid. It is firmly united to the os sacrum by a cartilaginous sub-stance, and likewise by very strong l.gamentous fibres, which are extended to that bone from the whole circumference of this irregular surface. The spine of this bone, which is originally an epiphysis, has two considerable tuberosities, one anteriorly, and the other posteriorly, which is the

too, from their projecting more than the parts of the bone below them, are called spinal processes. Before the anterior spinal process the spine is hollowed, where part of the Sartorius muscle is placed; and below the posterior spinal process there is a very large niche in the bone, which, in the recent subject, has a strong ligament stretched over its lower part, from the os sacrum to the sharp-pointed process of the ischium; so that a great hole is formed, through which pass the great sciatic nerve and the posterior crural vessels under the pyriform mu-cle, part of which is likewise lodged in this hole. The lowest, thickest, and narrowest part of the ilium, in conjunction with the other two portions of each os innominatum, helps to form the acetabulum for the os femoris.

The os ischium, or hip bone, which is the lowest part of the three portions of each os innominatum, is of a very irregular figure, and usually divided into its body, tuberosity, and ramus. The body, externally, forms the inferior portion of the acetabulum, and sends a sharp-pointed process backwards, called the spine of the ischium, This is the process to which the ligament is attached, which was just now described as forming a great foramen for the passage of the sciatic nerve. The tuberosity is large and irregular, and is placed at the inferior part of the bone, giving origin to several muscles. In the recent subject it seems covered with a cartilaginous crust; but this appearance, as in the spine of the ilium, is nothing more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. This tuberosity, which is the lowest portion of the trunk, supports us when we sit. Between the spine and the tuberosity is observed a sinuosity, covered with a cartilaginous crust, which serves as a pulley, on which the obturator muscle plays. From the tuberosity, the bone, becoming narrower and thinner, forms the ramus, or branch, which, passing forwards and up-wards, makes, with the ramus of the os pubis, a large hole of an oval shape, the foramen magnum ischii, which affords, through its whole circumference, attachment to muscles. This foramen is more particularly noticed in describing the os pubis.

The os pubis, or share-bone, which is the smallest of the three portions of the os innominatum, is placed at the upper and fore part of the pelvis, where the two ossa pubis meet, and are united to each other by means of a very strong cartilage, which constitutes what is called the symphysis pubis. Each os pubis may be divided into its body, angle, and ramus. The body, which is the outer part, is joined to the os ilium. The angle comes forward to form the symphysis, and the ramus is a thin

apophysis, which, uniting with the ramus of the ischium, forms the foramen magnum ischii, or thyroideum, as it has been sometimes called, from its resemblance to a door, or shield. This foramen is somewhat wider above than below, and its greatest diameter is, from above downwards, and obliquely from within outwards. In the recent subject it is almost completely closed by a strong fibrous membrane, called the obdurator ligament. Upwards and outwards, where we observe a niche in the bone, the fibres of this ligament are separated, to allow a passage to the posterior crural nerve, an artery, and vein. The great uses of this foramen seem to be to lighten the bones of the pelvis, and to afford a convenient lodgment to the obturator muscles. The three bones now described as constituting the os innominatum on each side, all concur to form the great acetabulum, or cotyloid cavity, which receives the head of the thigh-bone; the os ilium and os ischium making each about two-fifths, and the os pubis one-fifth of the cavity. This acetabulum, which is of considerable depth, is of a spherical shape. Its brims are high, and, in the recent subject, is tipped with cartilage. These brims, however, are higher above and externally than they are internally and below, where we observe a niche in the bone (which is the ischium), across which is stretched a ligament, forming a hole for the transmission of blood-vessels and nerves to the cavity of the joint. The cartilage, which lines the acetabulum, is thickest at its circumference, and thinner within, where a little hole is to be observed, in which are placed the apparatus that serves to lubricate the joint, and facilitate its motions. We are likewise able to discover the impression made by the internal ligament of the os femoris, which, by being attached both to this cavity and to the head of the os femoris, helps to secure the latter in the acetabulum. The bones of the pelvis serve to support the spine and upper parts of the body, to lodge the intestines, urinary bladder, and other viscera; and likewise to unite the trunk to the lower extremities. But besides these uses, they are destined, in the female subject, for other important purposes; and the accoucheur finds, in the study of these bones, the foundation of all midwifery knowledge. Several eminent writers are of opinion that in difficult parturition, all the bones of the pelvis undergo a certain degree of separation. It has been observed likewise, that the cartilage uniting the ossa pubis is thicker, and of a more spongy texture, in women than in men, and therefore more likely to swell and enlarge during pregnancy. That many instances of a partial separation of these bones, during labour, have happened, there can be no

doubt; such a separation, however, ought by no means to be considered as an uniform and salutary work of nature, as some writers seem to think, but as the effect of disease. But there is another circumstance, in regard to this part of Osteology, which is well worthy of attention; and this is, the different capacities of the pelvis in the male and female subject. It has already been observed, that the os sacrum is shorter and broader in women than in men; the ossa ilia are also found more expanded; whence it happens, that in women the centre of gravity does not fall so directly on the upper part of the thigh as in men, and this seems to be the reason why, in general, they step with less firmness, and move their hips forwards in walking. From these circumstances also, the brim of the female pelvis is nearly of an oval shape, being considerably wider from side to side, than from the symphysis pubis to the os sacrum; whereas, in man it is rounder, and every where of less diameter The inferior opening of the pelvis is likewise proportionably larger in the female subject, the ossa ischia being more separated from each other, and the foramen ischii larger, so that, where the os ischium and os pubis are united together, they form a greater circle; the os sacrum is also more hollowed, though shorter, and the os coccygis more loosely connected, and therefore capable of a greater degree of motion than in men.

INNOMINATI NERVI. A name of the fifth

pair of nerves.

INOCULATION. The insertion of a poison into any part of the body. It is mostly practised with that of the small-pox, because we have learnt, from experience, that by so doing we shall generally procure fewer pustules, and a much milder disease, than when the small-pox is taken in a natural way. Although the advantages are evident, yet objections have been raised against inoculation, on the notion that it exposes the person to some risk, when he might have passed through life without ever taking the disease naturally; but it is well known that he will be exposed to much greater danger, from the intercourse which he must have with his fellowcreatures, by taking the disorder in a natural way. It has also been adduced, that a person is liable to take the small-pox a second time, when produced at first by artificial means; but such instances are very rare, besides not being sufficiently authentic. We may conjecture that, in most of those cases, the matter used was not variolous, but that of some other eruptive disorder, such as the chicken-pox, which has often been mistaken for the small pox.

To illustrate the benefits arising from inoculation, it has been calculated that a third of the adults die who take the disease

in a natural way, and about one-seventh of the children; whereas, of those who are inoculated, and are properly treated afterwards, the proportion is probably not greater than one in five or six hundred.

Inoculation is generally thought to have been introduced into Britain from Turkey, by Lady Mary Wortley Montague, about the year 1721, whose son had been inuoculated at Constantinople, during her residence there, and whose infant daughter was the first that underwent the operation in this country. It appears to have been well known before this period, both in the South of Wales and Highlands of Scotland. Mr. Mungo Park, in his travels into the interior of Africa, found that inoculation had been long practised by the negroes on the Guinea coast; and nearly in the same manner, and at the same time of life, as in Europe.

It is not clearly ascertained where inoculation really originated. It has been ascribed to the Circassians, who employed it as a mean to preserve the beauty of their women. It appears more probable that accident first suggested the expedient among the different nations, to whom the small-pox had long been known, independent of any intercourse with each other; and what adds to the probability of this conjecture is, that in most places where inoculation can be traced back, for a considerable length of time, it seems to have been practised chiefly by old women, before it was adopted by regular meetitioners.

ed by regular practitioners.

Many physicians held inoc

Many physicians held inoculation in the greatest contempt at first, from its supposed origin; others again discredited the fact, while others, on the testimony of the success in distant countries, believed in the advantages it afforded, but still did not think themselves warranted to recommend it to the families they attended; and it was not until the experiment of it had been made on six criminals (all of whom recovered from the disease, and regained their liberty,) that it was practised, in the year 1726, on the royal family, and afterwards adopted as a general thing.

To insure success from inoculation, the following precautions should strictly be at-

tended to,

1. That the person should be of a good habit of body, and free from any disease, apparent or latent, in order that he may not have the disease and a bad constitution, or perhaps another disorder, to struggle with at the same time.

2. To enjoin a temperate diet and proper regimen; and, where the body is plethoric, or gross, to make use of gentle purges, together with mercurial and antimonial

medicines.

3 That the age of the person be as little advanced as possible, but not younger, if it can be avoided, than four months.

4. To choose a cool season of the year, and to avoid external heat, either by exposure to the sun, sitting by fires, or inwarm chambers, or by going too warmly clothed, or being too much in bed.

5. To take the matter from a young subject, who has the small pox in a favourable way, and who is otherwise healthy, and free from disease; and, when fresh matter can be procured, to give it the preference.

Where matter of a benign kind cannot be procured, and the patient is evidently in danger of the casual small-pox, we should not, however, hesitate a moment to inoculate from any kind of matter that can be procured, as what has been taken in malignant kinds of small-pox has been found to produce a very mild disease.

The mildness or malignity of the d sease appears, therefore, to depend little at all on the inoculating matter. Variolous matter, as well as the vaccine, by being kept for a length of time, particularly in a warm place, is apt, however, to und rgo decomposition, by purrefaction; and then another kind of contagious material has

been produced.

In inoculating, the operator is to make the slightest puncture or scratch imaginable in the arm of the person, rubbing that part of the lancet which is besmeared with matter repeatedly over it, by way of insuring the absorption; and in order to prevent its being wiped off; the shirt sleeve ought not to be pulled down until the part

is perfectly dry.

A singular circumstance attending inoculation is, that when this fails in producing the disease, the inoculated part nevertheless sometimes inflames and suppurates, as in cases where the complaint is about to follow; and the matter produced in those cases is as fit for inoculation as that taken from a person actually labouring under the disease. The same happens very frequently in inoculation for the cow-pox.

If, on the fourth or fifth day after the operation, no reduess, or inflammation, is apparent on the edge of the wound, we ought then to inoculate in the other arm, in the same manner as before; or, for greater certainty, we may do it in both.

Some constitutions are meapable of having the disease in any form. Others do not receive the disease at one time, however freely exposed to its contagion, even though repeatedly insculated, and yet receive it afterwards by merely approaching those labouring under it.

On the coming on of the febrile symptoms, which is generally on the seventh day in the inoculated small pox, the patient is not to be suffered to lie a bed, but should be kept cool, and partake freely of antiseptic cooling drinks.

INOSCULATION. (From in, and osculum, a little mouth.) The running of

the veins and arteries into one another, or the interunion of the extremities of arteries

and veins.

INSANIA. (From in, not, and sanus, sound.) Insanity, or deranged imagination. A genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order vesania, characterized by erroneous judgment, from imaginary perceptions, or recollections, attended with agreeable emotions in persons of a sangume temperament. See Mania.

Insessus. (From insideo, to sit upon.) A vapour-bath, over which the patient sits. Instity.ns. (From insidior, to deceive.) A name for diseases which betray no previous symptoms, but are ready to break out

by surprise.

INSIPIENTIA. (From in, and sapientia, wisdom.) A low degree of delirium, with-

out fever.

INSOLATIO. (From in, upon, and sol, the sun.) A disease which arises from a too great influence of the sun's heat upon the head

INSPIRATION. (From in, and spiro, to breathe.) The act of drawing the air into

the lungs. See Respiration.

INTERCOSTAL ARFERIES. Arteriæ intercostales. The arteries which run between the ribs. The superior intercostal artery is a branch of the subclavian. The other intercostal arteries are given off from the aorta.

INTERCOSTAL MUSCLES. Intercostales externi et interni. Between the ribs, on each side, are eleven double rows of muscles. These are the intercostales externi and interni. Galen has very properly observed, that they decussate each other like the strokes of the letter X. The intercostales externi arise from the lower edge of each superior rib, and, running obliquely downwards and forwards, are inserted into the upper edge of each inferior rib, so as to occupy the intervals of the ribs, from as far back as the spine to their cartilage; but from their cartilages to the sternum, there is only a thin aponeurosis covering the internal intercostales. The intercostales interni arise and are inserted in the same manner as the external. They begin at the sternum, and extend as far as the angles of the ribs, their fibres running obliquely backwards. These fibres are spread over a considerable part of the inner surface of the ribs, so as to be longer than those of the external intercostals. Some of the posterior portions of the internal intercostals pass over one rib, and are inscrted into the rib below. Verheyen first described these portions as separate muscles, under the name of infra costales. Winslow has adopted the same name. Cowper, and after him Douglas, calls them costarum depressores proprii. These distinctions, however,

are altogether superfluous, as they are evi-

dently nothing more than appendages of

the intercostals. The number of these portions varies in different subjects. Most commonly there is only four, the first of which runs from the second rib to the fourth, the second from the third rib to the fifth, the third from the fourth rib to the sixth, and the fourth from the fifth rib to The internal intercostals of the seventh. the two inferior false ribs are frequently so thin, as to be with difficulty separated from the external; and, in some subjects, one or both of them seem to be altogether wanting. It was the opinion of the ancients, that the external intercostals serve to elevate, and the internal to depress the ribs. They were probably led to this opinion, by observing the different direction of their fibres; but it is now well known, that both have the same use, which is that of raising the ribs equally during inspiration. Fallopius was one of the first who ventured to call in question the opinion of Galen on this subject, by contending that both layers of the intercostals serve to elevate the ribs. In this opinion he was followed by Hieroymus Fabricius, our countryman Mayow and Borelli. But, towards the close of the last century, Bayle, a writer of some eminence, and professor at Toulouse, revived the opinon of the ancients by the following arguments. He observed, that the oblique direction of the fibres of the internal intercostals is such, that, in each inferior rib, these fibres are nearer to the vertebræ than they are at their superior extremities, or in the rib immediately above; and that, of course, they must serve to draw the rib downwards, as towards the most fixed point. This plausible doctrine was ad pted by several eminent writers, and, amongst others, by Nicholls, Hoadley, and Shreiber; but, above all, by Hamberger, who went so far as to assert, that not only the ribs, but even the sternum, are pulled downwards by these muscles, and constructed a particular instrument to illustrate this doctrine. He pretended, likewise, that the intervals of the ribs are increased by their elevation, and diminished by their depression; but he allowed that, while those parts of the internal intercostals that are placed between the bony part of the ribs pull them downwards, the anterior portions of the muscle, which are situated between the cartilages, concur with the external intercostals in raising them upwards. These opinions gave rise to a warm and interesting controversy, in which Hamberger and Haller were the principal disputants. The former argued chiefly from theory, and the latter from experiments on living animals, which demonstrate the fallacy of Hamberger's arguments, and prove, beyond a doubt, that the internal intercostals perform the same functions as the external.

INTERCOSTAL NERVE. Acrous in-

tercostalis. Great intercostal nerve. Sym- of the hand .- The interossei interni are pathetic nerve. The great intercostal nerve arises in the cavity of the cranium, from a branch of the sixth and one of the fifth pair, uniting into one trunk, which passes out of the cranium through the carotid canal, and descends by the sides of the bodies of the vertebræ of the neck, thorax, loins, and os sacrum: in its course it receives the small accessory branches from all the thirty pair of spinal nerves. In the neck, it gives off three cervical ganglions, the upper, middle, and lower; from which the cardiac and pulmonary nerves arise. In the thorax, it gives off the splanclinic or anterior intercostal, which perforates the diaphragm, and forms the semilunar ganglious, from which nerves pass to all the abdominal viscera. They also form in the abdomen ten peculiar plexuses, distinguished by the name of the viscus to which they belong, as the coliac, splenic, hepatic, superior, middle, and lower, mesenteric, two renal, and two spermatic plexuses. The posterior intercostal nerve gives accessory branches about the pelvis and ischiatic nerve, and at length terminates.

INTERCOSTAL VEINS. The intercostal veins empty their blood into the vena

INTERCURRENT FEVERS. Those which happen in certain seasons only, are called stationary; but others are called, by Sydenham, intercurrents.

INTERCUS. (From inter, between, and cutem, the skin.) A dropsy between the skin and the flesh. See Anasarca.

INTERDENTIUM. (From inter, between, and dens, a tooth.) The intervals between teeth of the same order.

INTERDIGITUM. (From inter, between, and digitus, a toe, or finger.) A corn betwixt the toes, or wart betwixt the fingers.

INTERFAMINEUM. (From inter, tween, and femen, the thigh.) The perinæum, or space between the anus and pudendum.

(From inter, INTERLUNIUS MORBUS, between, and luna, the moon; because it was supposed to affect those who were born in the wane of the moon. The epilepsy.

Intermittent fever. See Febris intermit-

INTERNUNTII DIES. (From internuncio, to go between.) Applied to critical days, or such as stand between the increase of a disorder and its decrease.

INTEROSSEI MANUS. (Interosseus musculus; from inter, between, and os, the bone.) There are small muscles situated between the metacarpal bone, and extending from the bones of the carpus to the fingers. They are divided into internal and external; the former are to be seen only on the palm of the hand, but the latter

three in number. The first, which Albinus names posterior indicis, arises tendinous and fleshy from the basis and inner part of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewise from the upper part of that which supports the middle-tinger. Its tendon passes over the articulation of this part of these bones with the fore-finger, and, uniting with the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensor digitorum communis, is inserted into the posterior convex surface of the first phalanx of that finger. The second and third, to which Albinus gives the names of prior annularis, and interosseus auricularis, arise, in the same manner, from the basis of the outsides of the metacarpal bones that sustain the ring-finger and the little-finger, and are inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis that covers each of those fingers. These three muscles draw the fingers into which they are inserted, towards the thumb. The interossei externi are four in number, for among these is included the small muscle that is situated on the outside of the metacarpal bone that supports the fore-finger. Douglas calls it extensor tertii internodii indicis, and Winslow semi interosseus indicis. Albinus, who describes it among the interossei, gives it the name of prior indicis. This first interesseus externus arises by two tendinous and fleshy portions. One of these springs from the upper half of the inner side of the first bone of the thumb, and the other from the ligaments that unite the os trapezoides to the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewise from all the outside of this latter bone. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted into the outside of that part of the tendinous expansion from the extensor digitorum communis that is spread over the poserior convex surface of the fore-finger. The second, to which Albinus gives the name of prior medii, is not quite so thick as the last-described muscle. It arises by two heads, one of which springs from the inner side of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, chiefly towards its convex surface, and the other arises from the adjacent ligaments, and from the whole outer side of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle-finger. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted, in the same manner as the preceding muscle, into the outside of the tendinous expansion that covers the posterior part of the middle finger. The third belongs likewise to the middle-finger, and is therefore named pos-terior medii by Albinus. It arises, like the last-described muscle, by two origins, which spring from the roots of the metaare conspicuous both on the palm and back carpal bones of the ring and middle fingers,

and from the adjacent ligaments, and is inserted into the inside of the same tendinous expansion as the preceding muscle. The fourth, to which Albinus gives the name of posterior annularis, differs from the two last only in its situation, which is between the metacarpal bones of the ring and little fingers. It is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis, that covers the posterior part of the ring-finger. All these four muscles serve to extend the fingers into which they are inserted, and likewise to draw them inwards, towards the thumb, except the third, or posterior medii, which, from its situation and insertion, is calculated to pull the middle finger outwards.

INTEROSSEI PEDIS. These small muscles, in their situation between the metatarsal bones, resemble the interossei of the hand, and, like them, are divided into internal and external. The interossei pedis interni are three in number. They arise tendinous and fleshy, from the basis and inside of the metatar al bones of the middle, the third, and the little toes, in the same manner as those of the hand, and they each terminate in a tendon that runs to the inside of the first joint of these toes, and from thence to their upper surface, where it loses itself in the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensors. Each of these three muscles serves to draw the toe into which it is inserted towards the great-toe. The interessei externi are four in number. The first arises tend nous and fleshy from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, from the os cuneiforme internum, and from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe, Its tendon is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion that covers the back part of the toes. The second is placed in a similar manner between the metatarsal bones of the fore and middle toes, and is inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion on the back part of the fore-toe. The third and fourth are placed between the two next metatarsal bones, and are inserted into the outside of the middle and third toes. The first of these muscles draws the fore-toe inwards towards the great-toe. The three others pull the toes, into which they are inserted, outwards. They all assist in extending the

INTERPELLATUS MORBUS. (From inpello, to interrupt.) In Paracelsus it is a disease attended with irregular or uncertain paroxysms.

INTERPOLATUS DIES. (From interpolo, to renew.) In Paracelsus, these are the days interpolated betwixt two paroxysms.

INTERSCAPULIUM. (From inter, be-

tween, and scapula, the shoulder-blade.) That part of the spine which lies between the shoulders.

INTERSEPTUM. (From inter, between, and septum, an inclosure.) The uvula and the

septum narium.

INTERSPINALES COLLI. (Interspinales musculi; from inter, between, and spina, the spine.) The fleshy portions between the spinous processes of the neck, that draw these processes nearer to each other.

INTERSPINALES DORSI ET LUM- BORUM. These are rather small tendons than muscles, that connect the spinal and

transverse processes.

INTERTRANSVERSALES LUMBO-RUM. Four distinct small bundles of flesh, which fill up the spaces between the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the loins, and serve to draw them towards each other.

INTERTRIGO. (From inter, between, and tero, to rub) An excoriation about the anus, groins, axilla, or other parts of the body, attended with inflammation and moisture. It is most commonly produced by the irritation of the urine, from riding, or

some acrimony in children.

INTESTINES (Intestina; from intus, within.) The convoluted membranous tube that extends from the stomach to the anus; receives the ingested food; retains it a certain time; mixes with it the bile and pancreatic junces; propels the chyle into the lacteals, and covers the faces with mucus; is so called. The intestines are situated in the cavity of the abdomen, and are divided into the small and large, which have, besides their size, other circumstances of distinction.

The small intestines are supplied internally with folds, cailed valvulæ conniventes, and have no bands on their external surface. The large intestines have no folds internally, and are supplied externally with three strong muscular bands, which run parallel upon the surface, and give the intestines a saccated appearance; and they have also small fatty appendages, called

appendiculæ epiploicæ.

The first portion of the intestinal tube, for about the extent of twelve fingers' breadth, is called the duodenum; it lies in the epigastric region; makes three turnings, and between the first and second flexure receives, by a common opening, the parcreatic duct, and the ductus communis choledo hus. It is in this portion of the intestines that chylification is chiefly performed. The remaining portion of the small intestines is distinguished by an imaginary division into the jejunum and ileum.

The jejunum, which commences where the duodenum ends, is situated in the umbilical region, and is mostly found empty; hence its name; it is every where covered with red vessels, and, about an hour and an

half after a meal, with lacteals.

The *ileum* occupies the hypogastric region and the pelvis; is of a more pallid colour than the former, and terminates by a transverse opening into the large intestines, which is called the valve of the deum, valve of the excum, or the valve of Tulpius.

The beginning of the large intestines is firmly tied down in the right iliac region, and for the extent of about four fingers' breadth is called the cæcum, having adhering to it a worm-lke process, called the processus ceci vermiformis, or appendicula The great intestine c.eci vermiformis. then commences colon, ascends towards the liver, passes across the abdomen, under the stomach, to the left side, where it is contorted like the letter S, and descends to the pelvis: hence it is divided in this course into the ascending portion, the transverse arch, and the sigmoid flexure. When it has reached the pelvis, it is called the rectum, from whence it proceeds in a straight line to the anus.

The intestinal canal is composed of three membranes, or coats; a common one from the peritoneum, a muscular coat, and a villous coat, the vill being formed of the fine terminations of arteries and nerves, and the origins of lacteals and lymphatics. The intestines are connected to the body by the mysentery; the duodenum has also a peculiar connecting cellular substance, as has likewise the colon and rectum, by whose means the former is firmly accreted to the back, the colon to the kidneys, and the latter to the os coccygis, and in women to the vagina. The e naming portion of the tube is loose in the cavity of the abdomen. The arteries of this canal are branches of the superior and inferior mesenteric, and the dundenal. The veins evacuate their blood into the vena portæ. The nerves are branches of the eighth pair and intercostals. The lacteal vessels, which origmate principally from the j junum, proceed to the glands in the mesentery.

Intuicatus (From intrico, to entangle; so cath d from its intricate folds.) A mus-

cle of the ear.

INTRINSECT. (From intra, within, and cecus, towards) Painful disorders of the intern I parts.

INTROCESSIO. (From introcedo, to go in.)
Depressio. A depression or sinking of any

part inwards.

INTUS-SUSCEPTION. (Intus-susceptio and intro-susceptio; trom intus, within, and susceptio, to receive.) A disease of the intestinal tube, and most frequently of the small intestines; it consists in a portion of gut passing for some length within another portion.

INTERES. (From in, and tuba, a hollow

instrument, so named from the hollowness of its stalk.) See Endivia.

INULA. (Contracted or corrupted from helenium, nasser, fabled to have sprung from the tears of Helen.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Lunnan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua.

2. The herb elecampane.

Inula, common. See Enula campana.

INULA DYSENTERICA. The systematic name of the lesser mula. See Conyza media.

INULA HELENIUM. The systematic name of the elecampane. See *Enula cambana*.

INUSTION. (From in, and ure, to burn.) Is sometimes used for hot and dry seasons; but most commonly by surgeons for the operation of the cautery.

INVERECUNDUM os. (From in, not, and verecundus, modest.) A name of the os frontis, from its being regarded as the seat

of impudence.

Inversion of the uterus. See Uterus, in-

version of.

INVOLUCRUM. (From in, and volvo, to wrap up; because parts are enclosed by it.) A name of the pericardium; also a name of the membrane which covers some of the viscera.

lodge. (From 105, brass.) Verdigrise. Green matter thrown off by vomiting.

IONIS. (From 129, a violet.) A carbuncle of a violet colour.

INSTRUCE. (From 109, a violet, and  $\alpha y$ - $\theta y$ , a flower.) A hard pimple in the face,
of a violet colour.

lotacismus. (From 1672, the Greek letter 1) A defect in the tongue, or organs of speech, which renders a person incapable of pronouncing his letters.

lovi. A restorative alimentary liquor, prepared in Japan. It is made from the gravy of half-roasted beef; but, as to the

rest, it is kept a secret.

The plant from which this valuable root is obtained was long unknown; it was said by some writers to be the Psychotria emetica; class Pentandria; order Monogyma: by others, the Ivola ipecacuanha, a syngenesious plant of the order Monogymia. It is now ascertained to be neither, but a small plant called Collicocca ipecacuanha. There are three sorts of ipecacuan to be met with in our shops, viz. the ash-coloured or grey, the brown, and the white.

The ash-coloured is brought from Peru, and is a small wrinkled root, bent and contorted into a great variety of figures, brought over in short pieces, full of wrinkled and deep circular fissures, down to a small white woody fibre that runs in the middle of each piece: the cortical part is compact, brittle, looks smooth, and re-

sinous upon breaking: it has very little smell; the taste is bitterish and subacrid, covering the tongue, ss it were, with a kind of mucilage.

The brown is small, somewhat more wrinkled than the foregoing; of a brown or blackish colour without, and white within:

this is brought from Brazil.

The white sort is woody, and has no wrinkles, nor any perceptible bitterness in taste. The first, the ash-coloured or grey ipecacuan, is that usually preferred for medicinal use. The brown has been some-times observed, even in a small dose, to produce violent effects. The white, though taken in a large one, has scarce any effect Experience has proved that this at all. medicine is the safest emetic with which we are acquainted, having this peculiar advantage-that, if it does not operate by vomit, it readily passes off by the other Ipecacuan was first introemunctories. duced as an infallible remedy against dysenteries and other inveterate fluxes, as diarrhoa, menorrhagia, leucorrhoa, &c. and also in disorders proceeding from obstructions of long standing; nor has it lost much of its reputation by time: its utility in these cases is thought to depend upon its restoring perspiration. It has also been successfully employed in spasmodic asthma, catarrhal and consumptive cases. Nevertheless, its chief use is as a vomit, and in small doses, joined with opium, as a diaphoretic. The officinal preparations are the pulvis ipecacuanha compositus, and the vinum ipecacuanha.

IQUETAIA. The inhabitants of the Brazils give this name to the Scrophularia aquatica, which is there celebrated as a correc-

tor of the ill flavour of senna.

IRACUNDUS. (From ira, anger; so called because it forms the angry look.) A mus-

cle of the eye.

IRIS. (Á rainbow; so called because of the variety of its colours.) 1. The anterior portion of the choroid membrane of the eye, which is perforated in the middle by the pupil. It is of various colours. The posterior surface of the iris is termed the arma.

2. The flower de-luce is also called iris, from the resemblance of its flowers to the

ainbow.

3. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Triandra. Order,

Monogynia.

IRIS FLORENTINA. Florentine orris, or iris. The root of this plant, Iris florentina of Linnæus:—corollis barbatis, canle foliis altiore subbifloro, floribus sessilibus; which is indigenous to Italy, in its recent state is extremely acrid, and, when chewed, excites a pungent heat in the mouth, that continues several hours: on being dried, this acrimony is almost wholly dissipated;

the taste is slightly bitter, and the smell agreeable, and approaching to that of violets. The fresh root is cathartic, and for this purpose has been employed in dropsies. It is now chiefly used in its dried state, and ranked as a pectoral and expectorant, and hence has a place in the trochissi amyli of the pharmacopæias.

Iris, Florentine. See Iris Florentina.
IRIS GERMANICA. The systematic name of the flower-de-luce. See Iris nostras.

IRIS NOSTRAS. Common iris, or orris. Flower-de-luce. This plant is the Iris germanica of Linnœus:—corollis barbatis, caude folis altioni multifloro, floribus inferioribus pedunculatis. The fresh roots have a strong disagreeable smell, and an acrid nauseous taste. They are powerfully cathartic, and are given in dropsical diseases, where such remedies are indicated.

IRIS PALUSTRIS. Gladiolus luteus. Acorus vulgaris. Yellow water flag. This indigenous plant, Iris pseudacorus :- imberbis, foliis ensiformibus, petalis alternis, stigmatibus minoribus, is common in marshes, and on the banks of rivers. It formerly had a place in the London Pharmacopæia, under the name of gladiolus luteus. root is without smell, but has an acrid styptic taste, and its juice, on being snuffed up the nostrils, produces a burning heat in the nose and mouth, accompanied by a copious discharge from these organs; hence it is recommended both as an errhine and sialagogue. Given internally, when perfectly dry, its adstringent qualities are such as to cure diarrhoas The expressed juice is likewise said to be an useful application to serpiginous eruptions and scrofulous tumours.

IRIS PSEUDACORUS. The systematic name of the yellow water-flag. See Iris Pa-

Irish slate. See Lapis Hybernicus.

IRON. Ferrum. Of all the metals, there is none which is so copiously and so variously dispersed through nature as iron. In animals, in vegetables, and in all parts of the mineral kingdom, we detect its presence. Mineralogists are not agreed with respect to the existence of native iron, though immense masses of it have been discovered, which could not have been the products of art; but there is much in favour of the notion that these specimens have been extracted by subterraneous fire. A mass of native iron, of 1600 pounds weight, was found by Pallas, on the river Denisei, in Siberia; and an-other mass of 300 pounds was found in Paraguay, of which specimens have been distributed every where. A piece of native iron, of two pounds weight, has been also met with at Kamsdorf, in the territories of Neustadt, which is still preserved These masses evidently did not there.

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originate in the places where they were found.

There are a vast variety of iron ores; they may, however, be all arranged under the following genera; namely, sulphurets, carburets, oxyds, and salts of iron. The surphurets of iron from the ores, called pyrites, of which there are many varieties. Their colour is, in general, a straw-yellow, with a metallic lustre. They are often amorphous, and often also crystallized. Iron ores of this kind are known by the name of mundick. Iron, in the state of a carburet, forms the graphite of Werner, (plumbago.) This mineral occurs in kidney-form tumps of various sizes. Its colour is a dark iron-grey, or brownish black; when cut, blueish grey. It has a metallic lustre. Its texture is fine grained. It is very brittle. The combination of iron with oxygen is very abundant. The common magnetic iron stone, magnetical pyrites, or load-stone, belongs to this class: as does specular iron ore, and all the different ores called hematites, or blood-stone. Iron, combined with silex, constitutes emery. Iron, united to carbonic acid, exists in the sparry iron ore. Joined to arsenic acid it exists in the ores called arseniate of iron, and arseniate of iron and copper.

Properties of iron.-Iron is distinguished

from every other metal by its magnetical properties. It is attracted by the magnet, and acquires, under various conditions, the property of magnetism. Pure iron is of a whitish grey, or rather blueish colour, very slightly livid; but when polished, it has a great deal of brilliancy. Its texture is either fibrous, fine grained, or in dense plates. Its specific gravity varies from 76 to 7.8 It is the hardest and most elastic of all the metals. It is extremely ductile, and may therefore be drawn into wire as fine as a human hair; it is also more tenacious than any other metal, and consequently yields with equal facility to pressure. It is extremely infusible, and, when not in contact with the fuel, it cannot be melted by the heat which any furnace can excite; it is, however softened by heat, still preserving its ductility; this constitutes the valuable property of welding. It is very dilatable by heat. It is the only metal which takes fire by the col-I sion of flint. Heated by the contact of air it becomes oxydated. If intensely and briskly heated, it takes fire with scintillation, and becomes a black oxyd. It combines with carbon, and forms what is called steel. It combines with phosphorus in a direct and in an indirect manner. and unites with sulphur readily, by mixture in the cold with water, and by fusion. It decomposes water in the cold slowly, but

of the metallic oxyds. All acids act upon

Very concentrated sulphuric acid

has little or no effect upon it, but when diluted it oxydates it rapidly. The tric acid oxydates it with great vehemence. Murrate of ammonia is decomposed by it. Nitrate of potash detonates very vigorously with it. Iron is likewise dissolved by alkaline sulphurets. It is capable of combining with a number of metals. It does not unite with lead or bismuth, and very feebly with mercury. It detonates by percussion with the oxygenated muriates.

Method of obtaining iron.-The general process, by which iron is extracted from its ores, is first to roast them by a strong heat, to expel the sulphur, carbonic acid, and other mineralizers, which can be separated by heat. The remaining ore, being reduced to small pieces, is mixed with charcoal, or coke; and is then exposed to an intense heat, in a close fornace, excited by bellows; the oxygen then combines with the carbon, forming carbonic acid gas during the process, and the oxyd is reduced to its metallic state. There are likewise some fluxes necessary, in order to facilitate the separation of the melted metal. The matrix of the iron ore is generally either argillaceous or calcarcous, or sometimes a portion of silecious earth; but whichever of these earths is present, the addition of one or both of the others makes a proper flux. These are therefore added in due proportion, according to the nature of the orcs; and this mixture, in contact with the fuel, is exposed to a heat sufficient to reduce the oxyd to its metallic state.

The metal thus obtained, and called smelted, pig, or cast, iron, is far from being pure, always retaining a considerable quantity of carbon and oxygen, as well as several heterogeneous ingredients. According as one or other of these predominates, the property of the metal differs. Where the oxygen is present in a large proportion, the colour of the iron is whitish grey, it is extremely brittle, and its fracture exhibits an appearance of crystallization: where the carbon exceeds, it is of a dark grey, inclining to blue, or black, and is less brittle. The former is the white, the latter the black, crude iron of commerce. The grey is intermediate to both. In many of these states, the iron is much more fusible than when pure; hence it can be fused and cast into any form; and when suffered to cool slowly, it crystalizes in octahedra; it is also much more bratle, and cannot therefore be either flattened under the hammer, or by the laminating

To obtain the iron more pure, or to free it from the carbon with which it is combined in this state, it must be refined, by subjecting it to the operations of melting and forging. By the former, in which the metal is kept in fusion for some time, and constantly kneaded and stirred, the quan-

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tity of carbon and oxygen it contains are combined, and the produced carbonic acid gas is expelled: the metal at length becomes viscid and stiff; it is then subjected to the action of a very large hammer, or to the more equal, but less forcible, pressure of large rollers, by which the remaining oxyd of iron, and other impurities, not consumed by the fusion, are pressed out. The iron is now no longer granular nor crystalized in its texture; it is fibrous, soft, ductile, malleable, and totally infusible. It is termed forged, wrought, or bar, iron, and is the metal in a purer state, though far from being absolutely pure.

The general medicinal virtues of iron, and the several preparations of it, are to constringe the fibres, to quicken the circulation, to promote the different secretions in the remoter parts, and at the same time to repress inordinate discharges into the intestinal tube. By the use of chilybeates, the pulse is very sensibly raised; the colour of the face, though before pale, changes to a florid red; the alvine, urinary, and cuticular excretions, are increased. Fetid eructations, and black coloured faces, are marks of their taking due effect.

When given improperly, or to excess, iron produces head-ache, anxiety, heats the body, and often causes hæmorrhages, or even vomiting, pains in the stomach,

spasms, and pains of the bowels.

Iron is given in most cases of debility and relaxation. In passive hamorrhages. In dyspepsia, hysteria, and chlorosis. In most of the cachexia; and it has lately been recommended as a specific in cancer. In general debility, produced by disease, or excessive hamorrhages. Where either a preternatural discharge, or suppression of natural secretions, proceeds from a langour, or sluggishness of the fluids, and weakness of the solids, this metal, by increasing the motion of the former and the strength of the latter, will suppress the flux, or remove the suppression; but where the circulation is already too quick, the solids too tense and rigid, where there is any stricture, or spasmodic contraction of the vessels, iron, and all thepreparations of it, will aggravate both diseases. Iron probably has no action on the body when taken into the stomach, unless it be oxydized. But during its oxydisement, hydrogen gas is evolved, and accordingly we find that fœtid eructations are considered as a proof of the medicine having taken effect. It can only be exhibited internally in the state of filings, which may be given in doses from five to twenty grains. Iron wire is to be preferred for pharmaceutical preparations, both because it is the most convenient form, and because it is the

The medicinal preparations of iron now

in use are :-

- 1. Carbonas ferri. See Ferri carbonas.
- Sulphas ferri. See Ferri sulphas.
   Ferrum tartarizatum. See Ferrum tar-
- arizatum.
  4. Liquor ferri alkalina. See Liquor ferri
- alkalini
  5. Tinctura acetatis ferri. See Tinctura
- ferri actetatis.
  6. Tinctura muriatis ferri. See Tinctura
- ferri muriatis.
  7. Tinctura ferri ammoniati. See Tinctura ferri ammoniati.
  - 8. Vinum ferri. See Vinum ferri.
- 9. Ferrum ammoniatum. See Ferrum ammoniatum.
- 10. Oxidum ferri rubrum. See Oxidum ferri rubrum,

11. Oxidum ferri nigrum. See Oxidum

ferri nigrum.

IRRITABILITY. (From irrito, to provoke.) Vis insita of Haller. Vis vitalis of Goeter. Oscilliation of Boerhaave. Tonic power of Stahl. Muscular power of Bell. Inherent power of Cullen. The contractility of muscular fibres, or a property peculiar to muscles, by which they contract upon the application of certain stimuli, without a consciousness of action. This power may be seen in the tremulous contraction of muscles when lacerated, or when entirely separated from the body in operations. Even when the body is dead to all appearance, and the nervous power is gone, this contractile power remains till the organization yields, and begins to be dissolved. It is by this inherent power that a cut muscle contracts, and leaves a gap; that a cut artery shrinks and grows stiff after death. This irritability of muscles is so far independent of nerves, and so little connected with feeling, which is the province of the nerves, that, upon stimulating any muscle by touching it with caustic, or irritating it with a sharp point, or driving the electric spark through it, or exciting with the metallic conductors, as those of silver, or zinc, the muscle instantly contracts, although the nerve of that inuscle be tied; although the nerve be cut so as to separate the muscle entirely from all connection with the system; although the muscle be separated from the body; although the creature upon which the experiment is performed may have lost all sense of feeling, and have been long apparently dead. Thus a muscle, cut from the limb, trembles and palpitates a long time after; the heart, separated from the body, contracts when irritated; the bowels, when torn from the body, continue their peristaltic motion, so as to roll upon the table, ceasing to answer to stimuli only when they become stiff and cold,; and too often, in the human body, the vis insita loses the ex-citing power of the nerves, and then palsy ensues; or, losing all governance of the nerves, the vis insita, acting without the regulating power, falls into partial or general convulsions. Even in vegetables, as in the sensitive plant, this contractile power lives. Thence comes the distinction between the irritability of muscles and the sensibility of nerves; for the irritability of the irritabi tability of muscles survives the animal, as when it is active after death; survives the life of the part of the feelings of the whole system, as in universal palsy, where the vital motions continue entire and perfect, and where the muscles, though not obedient to the will, are subject to irregular and violent actions; and it survives the connection with the rest of the system, as when animals, very tenacious of life, are cut into parts: but sensibility, the property of the nerves, gives the various modifications of sense, as vision, hearing, and the rest; gives also the general sense of pleasure or pain, and makes the system, according to its various conditions, feel vigorous and healthy, or weary and low. And thus the eye feels and the skin feels: but their appointed stimuli produce no motions in these parts; they are sensible, but not irritable. The heart, the intestines, the urinary bladder, and all the muscles of voluntary motion, answer to stimuli with a quick and forcible contraction; and yet they hardly feel the stimuli by which these contrac-tions are produced, or, at least, they do not convey that feeling to the brain. There is no consciousness of present stimulus in those parts which are called into action by the impulse of the nerves, and at the command of the will: so that muscular parts have all the irritability of the system, with but little feeling, and that little owing to the nerves which enter into their substance; while nerves have all the sensibility of the system, but no motion.

The discovery of this singular property belongs to our countrymen Glysson; but Baron Haller must be considered as the first who clearly pointed out its existence, and proved it to be the cause of muscular

motion.

The laws of irritability, according to Dr. Crichton, are, 1. After every action in an irritable part, a state of rest, or cessation from motion, must take place before the irritable part can be again incited to action. If, by an act of volition, we throw any of our muscles into action, that action can only be continued for a certain space of time; the muscle becomes relaxed, notwithstanding all our endeavours to the contrary, and remains a certain time in that relaxed state, before it can be again thrown into action. 2. Each irritable part lias a certain portion or quantity of the principle of irritability which is natural to it, part of which it loses during action, or from the application of stimuli. 3. By a process wholly unknown to us, it regains

this lost quantity, during its repose, or state of rest. In order to express the different quantities of irritability in any part, we say that it is either more or less redundant, or more or less defective. It becomes redundant in a part when the stimuli which are calculated to act on that part are withdrawn or withheld for a certain length of time, because then no action can take place; while, on the other hand, the application of stimuli causes it to be exhausted, or to be deficient, not only by exciting action, but by some secret influence, the nature of which has not yet been detected; for it is a circumstance extremely deserving of at ention, that an irritable part, or body, may be suddenly deprived of its irritability by powerful stimuli, and yet no apparent cause of muscular or vascular action takes place at the time. A certain quantity of spirits, taken at once into the stomach, kills almost as instantaneously as lightning does: the same thing may be observed of some poisons, as opium, distilled laurel-water, the juice of the cerbera ahova, &c. 4. Each irritable part has stimuli which are peculiar to it; and which are intended to support its natural action: thus, blood, which is the stimulus proper to the heart and arteries, if, by any accident, it gets into the stomach, produces sickness, or vomiting. the gall, which is the natural stimulus to the gall-bladder, duct and duodenum, is by any aecident effused into the cavity of the peritoneum, it excites too great action of the vessels of that part, and induces inflammation. The urine does not irritate the tender fabric of the kidneys, ureters, or bladder, except in such a degree as to preserve their healthy action; but if it be. effused into the cellularimembrane, it brings on such a violent action of the vessels of these parts, as to produce gangrene. Such stimuli are called habitual stimuli of parts. 5. Each irritable part differs from the rest in regard to the quantity of irritability which it possesses. This law explains to us the reason of the great diversity which we observe in the action of various irritable parts; thus the muscles of voluntary motion can remain a long time in a state of action, and if it be continued as long as possible, another considerable portion of time is required before they regain the irritability they lost; but the heart and arteries have a more short and sudden action. and their state of rest is equally so. The circular muscles of the intestines have also a quick action and short rest. The mrinary bladder does not fully regain the irritability it loses during its contraction for a considerable space of time; the vessels which separate and throw out the menstrual discharge act, in general, for three or four days, and do not regain the irritability they lose for a lunar month. 6. All stimul iproduce action in proportion to their irritating powers. As a person approaches his hand to the fire, the action of all the vessels in the skin is increased, and it glows with heat; if the hand be approached still nearer, the action is increased to such an unusual degree as to occasion redness and pain; and if it be continued too long, real inflammation takes place; but if this heat be continued, the part at last loses its irritability, and a sphacelus or gangrene ensues. 7. The action of every stimulus is in an inverse ratio to the frequency of its application. A small quantity of spirits taken into the stomach, increases the action of its muscular coat, and also of its various vessels, so that digestion is thereby facilitated. If the same quantity, however, be taken frequently, it loses its effect. In order to produce the same effect as at first, a larger quantity is necessary: and hence the origin of dramdrinking. 8 The more the irritability of a part is accumulated, the more that part is disposed to be acted upon. It is on this account that the activity of all animals, while in perfect health, is much livelier in the morning that at any other part of the day; for, during the night, the irritability of the whole frame, and especially that of the muscles destined for labour, viz. the inuscles for voluntary action, is re-accumul.ted. The same law explains why digestion goes on more rapidly the first hour after food is swallowed, than at any other time; and it also accounts for the great danger that accrues to a famished person upon first taking in food, 9. If the stimuli which keep up the action of any irritable body be withdrawn for too great a length of time, that process on which the formation of the principle depends is gradually diminished, and at last entirely destroyed. When the irritability of the system is too quickly exhausted by heat, as is the case in certain warm climates, the application of cold invigorates the frame, because cold is a mere diminution of the overplus of that stimulus which was causing the rapid consumption of the principle. Under such or similar circumstances, therefore, cold is a tonic remedy; but if, in a climate naturally cold, a person were to go into a eld bath, and not soon return into a warmer atmosphere, it would destroy life just in the same manner as many poor people who have no comfortable dwellings are often destroyed from being too long exposed to the cold in winter. Upon the first application of cold the irritability is accumulated, and the vascular system therefore is exposed to great action; but, after a certain time, all action is so much diminished, that the process, whatever it be, on which the formation of eases are, an inflammation of the urethra,

the irritable principle depends, is entirely lost. For further information on this interesting subject, see Dr. Crichton on Mental Derangement,

IRRITATION. Irritatio. The action

produced by any stimulus.

Isca. A sort of fungous exerescence of the oak, or of the hazel, &c. The antients used it as the moderns used mova.

ISCHÆMON. (From 15χω, to restrain, and aima, blood.) A name for any medicine which restrains or stops bleeding.

ISCHEMUM, A species of Andropogon, ISCHIAS. (Ioxias: from ioxior, the hip.) Sciatica. A rheumatic affection of the Inp-joint. See Rl.eumatismus.

ISCHIATOCELE. (From 10x10), the hip, and waxa, a rupture.) Ischiocele. intestinal rupture, through the sciatic liga-

ments.

Ischio-cavernosus. See Erector penis.

ISCHIUM. (From 1721s, the loin; so named because it is near the loin.) A bone of the pelvis of the fœtus, and a part of the os innominatum of the adult. See Innominatum os.

ISCHNOPHONIA. (From 15xvos, slender, and own, the voice.) A shrillness of the voice; but more frequently an hesitation of speech, or stammering; it is the psellismus hæsitans of Cullen.

Iscauretica. (From 10x8g1x, a suppression of the urme.) Mediemes which relieve

a suppression of the urine,

ISCHURIA. (From 1000, to restrain, and sgov, the urine.) A suppression of urine. A genus of disease in the clsss locales and order epischeses of Cullen. There are four species of ischuria.

1. Ischuria renalis, coming after a disease of the kidneys, with a troublesome sense

of weight in that part.

2. Ischuria ureterica, a disease of the kidneys, a sense of pain or uneasines in the course of the ureters.

3. Ischuria vesicalis, a frequent desire to make water, with a swelling of the hypogastrium, and pain at the neek of the bladder.

4. Ischuria urethralis, a frequent desire to make water, with a swelling of the hypogastrium, and pain of some part of the nrethra.

When there is a frequent desire of making water, attended with much difficulty in voiding it, the complaint is called a dysury, or strangury; and when there is a total suppression of urine, it is known by the name of an ischury. Both ischuria and dysuria are distinguished into acute, when arising in consequence of inflammation, and chronic, when proceeding from any other eause, such as calenlus, &c.

The causes which give rise to these dis-

occasioned either by venereal sores, or by a use of aerid injections, tumour or ulcer of the prostate gland, inflammation of the bladder or kidneys, considerable enlargements of the hamorrhoidal veins, a lodgement of indurated faces in the rectum, spasm at the neck of the bladder, the absorption of cantharides applied externally, or taken internally, and excess in drinking either spirituous or vinous liquors; but particles of gravel sticking at the neck of the bladder, or lodging in the urethra, and thereby producing irritation, prove the most frequent cause. Gouty matter falling on the neck of the bladder will sometimes

occasion these complaints. In dysury there is a frequent inclination to make water, attended with a smarting pain, heat, and difficulty in voiding it, together with a sense of fulness in the region of the bladder. The symptoms often vary, however, according to the cause which has given rise to it. If it proceeds from a calculus in the kidney, or ureter, besides the affections mentioned, it will be accompanied with nausea, vomiting, and acute pains in the toins and region of the ureter and kidney of the side affected. When a stone in the bladder, or gravel in the urethra, is the cause, an acute pain will be felt at the end of the penis, particularly on voiding the last drops of urine, and a stream of water will either be divided into two, or be discharged in a twisted manner, not unlike a cork-screw. If a scirrhus of the prostate gland has occasioned the suppression or difficulty of urine, a hard indolent tumour, imattended with any acute pain, may readily be felt in the perinaum, or by introducing the finger in ano.

Dysury is seldom attended with much danger, unless, by neglect, it should terminate in a total obstruction. Ischury may always be regarded as a dangerous complaint, when it continues for any length of time, from the great distention and often consequent inflammation which cusue. In those cases, where neither a bouger ner a catheter can be introduced; the event, in all probability, will be fatal, as few

patients will submit to the only other means of drawing off the urine before a considerable degree of inflammation and tendency to gangrene have taken place.

Isinglass. See Ichthyocolla.

ISLANDICUS MUSCUS. See Lichen islandicus.

ISOCHRONOS. (From 1005, equal, and X50005, time.) Preserving an equal distance of time between the beats; applied to the pulse.

Isochates. (From 1505, equal, and xegarromi.) Wine mixed with an equal quantity of water.

Isonronus. (From 1000, equal, and Ser-180 run.) The same as Isochronos. Isopraus. (From 1000, equal, and 1000,

lsorraum. (From 1005, equal, and 709, fire, so named from its flame-coloured flower.) The herb aquilegia.

Isoronus. (From 1005, equal, and 70005, extension.) Applied to fevers which are of equal strength during the whole of the

paroxysm.

ISSUE. Fonticulus. An artificial ulcer, intended as a remedy on certain morbid affections, by producing a discharge of purulent matter from different parts of the body.

Istimion. (From 1σθμος, a narrow piece of land between two seas.) The narrow passage between the mouth and

gullet : the fances.

ISTINUS VIEUSSENII. The ridge surrounding the oval lossa, or remains of the foramen ovale, in the right auricle of the human heart.

ITHMOIDES. Falsely, for Ethmoides. ITHMERARIEM. (From itinero, to travel.) The catheter; also a staff used in cutting for the stone; it is thus named by Hildanus.

IVA PECANGA. See Sarsaparilla.

Ivy. See Hedera arborea.

Ivy, ground. See Hedera terrestris. Ivy-gum. See Gummi hederæ.

IXIA. (From 1500, glue.) A name of the carlina, from its viscous jnice. Also a preternatural distention of the veins, from 150,000, to proceed from.

IXINE. See Carlina gummifera.

J.

JACEA. (Quia prodest hominibus tristitia jacentibus; because it resists sorrow; or from 120,021, to heal.) The herb pansey, or hear's-case.

Jack by the hedge. See Alliaria.

Jeonnea. (Named because it was dedicated to St. James, or because it was directed to be gathered about the teast of

St. James.) St. James's wort. Ragwort. Senecto jacobea of Linnaus. The leaves of this common plant have a roughish, bitter, sub-acrid taste, extremely nauseous. A decoction is said to have been of infinite service in the circ of epidemic camp dysentery.

Jalap. See Jalapium. JALAPA. See Jalapium.

JALAPIUM. (From Chalapa, or Xala-

pa, in New Spain, whence it is brought.) Mechoacanna nigra. Jalap. The plant from which this root is obtained is the Convolvulus jalapa :-- caule volubili ; foliis ovatis, subcordatis, obtusis, obsolete repandis, subtus vilosis; pedunculis unifloris: ana ive of South America. In the shops, the root is found both cut into slices and whole, of an oval shape, solid, ponderous, blackish on the outside, but grey within, and marked with several dark veins, by the number of which, and by its hardness, heaviness, and dark colour, the goodness of the root is to be estimated. It has scarcely any smell, and very little taste, but to the tongue, and to the throat, manifests a slight degree of pungency. The medicinal activity of jalap resides principally, if not wholly, in the resin, which, though given in small doses, occasions violent tormina. The root, powdered, is a very common, efficacious, and safe purgative, as daily experience evinces; but, according as it contains more or less resin, its effects must of course vary. In large doses, or when joined with calomel, it is recommended as an anthelmintic and hydrogogue. In the pharmacopæias, this root is ordered in the form of tincture and extract; and the Edinburgh College directs it also in powder, with twice its weight of ohrystals of tartar.

JALAPA ALBA. See Mechoacanna. Jamaica bark. See Chinchini caribaa. Jamaica pepper. See Pimenta.

JAMBLICI SALES. A preparation with sal-ammoniac, some aromatic ingredients, &c. so called from Jamblichus, the inventor

JANITOR. (From janua, a gate.) pylorus, so called from its being, as it were, the door or entrance of the intestines.

Japan earth. See Catechu.

JARGON. Terra circona. Te Terra zerconia. A primitive earth, lately found in the precious stone called jargon, or hyacinth of the island of Ceylon. When calcined, it has a white colour, is exceedingly heavy, and rough to the touch, has no taste, and is insoluble in water.

JASMINUM. Jasminum; 120 µ1005: from jasmen, Arab. or from 101, a violet, and 152san, odour, on account of the fine odour of the flowers.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Di-

andria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the jessaminc. The flowers of this beautiful plant, the Jasminum officinale of Linnæus, have a very fragrant smell, and a bitter taste. They afford, by distillation, an essential oil, which is much esteemed in Italy to rub paralytic limbs, and in the cure of rheumatic pains.

JASMINUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the jessamine-tree. See Jas-

minum.

JATRALEIPTES. (From 12700s, a physician, and αλειφω, to anoint.) One who undertakes to cure distempers by external unction and friction: Galen makes mention of such in his time, particularly one Diotas; and Priny informs us, that this was first introduced by Prodicus of Selymbria, who was a disciple of Esculapius.

(From 127gos, a phy-JATROCHYMICUS. sician, and xumia, chymistry.) Chymiaster. A chymical physician, who cures by means

of chymical medicines.

JATROLIPTICE. (From ιατρος, a physician, and λειτω, to anoint.) The method of curing diseases by unction and fric-

JATROPHA. The name of a genus of

plants in the Linnæan system.

JATROPHA CURCAS. The systematic name of a plant whose seeds resemble the castoroil seeds. See Ricinus mojor.

JATROPHYSICUS. (From 127gos, a physician, and ours, nature.) An epithet bestowed on some writings, which treat of physical subjects with relation to medi-

cines. JECORARIA. (From jecur, the liver; so named from its supposed efficacy in diseases of the liver.) See Hepatica terrestris. Also a name given to a vein in the right hand, because it was usually opened in diseases of the liver.

JECORARIA VENA. The hepatic vein.

Jecun. The liver.

The Placenta is. JECUR UTERINUM. by some, thus called, from the supposed similitude of its office with that of the

JEJUNUM. (From jejunus, empty.) Jejunum intestinum. The second portion of the small intestines, so called because it is

mostly found empty. See Intestines.

JELLY. Modern chymists have given this name to the mucilaginous substance, very soluble in water, and not at all in spirits of wine, that is obtained from all the soft and white parts of animals, such as the membranes, tendons, aponcuroses, cartilages, ligaments, and skin, by boung them in water. If the decoction or jelly be strongly evaporated, it affords a dry, brittle, transparent substance, known by the name of glue.

Jerusalem corvslips. See Pulmonaria ma-

Jerusalem oak. See Botrys vulgaris.

Jerusalem sage. See Pulmonaria macu-

Jessamine. See Jasminum.

JESUITANUS CORTEX. (Jesuitanus; from jesuita, a jesuit.) A name of the Peruvian bark, because it was first introduced into Europe by Father de Lugo, a jesuit. Cinchona.

JESUITICUS CORTEX. See Cinchona.

Jesuits bark. See Cinchona.

Jesustanus. (From jesuita, a jesuit.)

A trivial name of the Pernyian bark, because it was first introduced in Europe by

Father de Lugo, a jesuit.

JET. A black bitumen, hard and compact, like certain stones, found in great abundance in various parts of France, Sweden, Germany, and Ireland. It is brilliant and vitreous in its fracture, and capable of taking a good polish by friction: it attracts light substances, and appears to be electric, like amber; hence it has been called black amber; it has no smell, but when heated it acquires one like bitumen judaicum.

Jews pitch. See Bitumen judaicum. John's wort. See Huperieum.

JONTHI. See Ionthus.

Judicatorius. (From judico, to discern.) An obsolete term applied to a synocha of four days, because its termination

may certainly be foreseen.

JUGALE OS. (Jugalis; from jugum, a yoke; from its resemblance, or because it is articulated to the bone of the upper jaw, like a yoke.) Os mal.e. Os zugomatieum. The ossa malarum are the promient square bones which form the upper part of the cheeks. They are situated close under the eyes, and make part of the orbits. Each of these bones has three surfaces to be considered. One of these is exterior and somewhat convex. second is superior and concave, serving to form the lower and lateral parts of the orbit. The third, which is posterior, is very unequal and concave, for the lodgment of the lower part of the temporal muscle. Each of these bones may be described as having four processes, formed by their four angles. Two of these may be called orbitar pro-The superior one is connected cesses. with the orbitar process of the os frontis; and the inferior one with the malar process of the maxillary bone. The third is connected with the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and the fourth forms a bony arch, by its connection with the zygomatic process of the temporal bone. In infants, these bones are entire and completely ossi-

JUGLANS. (Quasi Jovis glans, the royal fruit, from its magnitude.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Monoceia. Order, Polyandria. The walnut-tree.

2. The pharmacopogial name of the wal-The tree which bears this fruit is the Juglans regia of Linnaus :- foliolis ovlaibus glabris subserratis subsequalibus. It is a native of Persia, but cultivated in this coun-The unripe fruit, which has an astringent bitterish taste, and has been long employed as a pickle, is the part directed for medicinal use by the London College, on account of its anthelm ntic virtues. An extract of the green fruit is the most conve- obstructions, scorbut c affections, and some

sufficient length of time, and made agreeable to the stomach of the patient, by mixing it with cinnamon water.

Juglans Regia. The systematic name

of the walnut tree. See Juglans.

JUGULAR' VEINS. (Venæ jugularis; from jugulum, the throat.) These veins run from the head down the sides of the neck, and are divded, from their situation, into external and internal. The external or superficial, jugular vein receives the blood from the frontal, angular, temporal, auricular, sublingual or ranine, and the occipital veins. The internal, or deepseated, jugular vein, receives the blood from the lateral sinusses of the dura mater, the laryngeal and pharyngeal veins. jugulars unite, and form, with the subclavian vein, the superior vena cava, which terminates in the superior part of the right auricle of the heart.

JUGULUM. (From jugum, a yoke; because the yoke is fastened to this part.) The throat, or anterior part of the neck.

Jujubes. See Jujuba.

J. jubes. Jujubæ. (Arab.) A halfdried fruit of the plumb kind, about the size and shape of an olive, the produce of the Rhammes zizyphus of Linnæus. Jujubes, when in perfection, have an agrecable sweet taste, and in the southern parts of Europe, where they are common, they make an article of food in their recent state, and of medicine when half dried.

July flowers. See Caryophyllus ruber. Juneus odoratus. Fanum camelorum. Juneus aromatiens. Camel-hay. Sweet rush. This dried plant, Andropogon schænanthus of Linnæus, is imported into this country from Turkey and Arabia. It has an agreeable smell, and a warm, bitterish, not unpleasant taste. It was formerly employed as a stomachic and deobstruent.

Juniper. See Juniperus. Juniper gum. See Sandarack.

JUNIPERUS. (Juniperus; from juvenis, young, and pario, to bring forth; so called because it produces its young berries while the old ones are ripening.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Dioecia. Order, Monadelphia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common jumper, Juniperus communis of Linnaus: foliis ternis patentibus mueronatis, baeeis longioribus. Both the tops and berries of this indigenous plant are directed in our pharmacopæias, but the latter are usually preferred, and are brought chiefly from Holland and Italy. Of their efficacy as a stomachic, carminative, diaphoretic, and diuretic, there are several relations b physicians of great authority: and medical writers have also spoken of the utility of the juniper in nephritic cases, uterine nient preparation, as it may be kept for a cutaneous diseases. Our pharmacopoxias

direct the essential oil, and a spirituous distillation of the berries, to be kept in the shops. JUNIPERUS COMMUNIS. The systematic

name of the jumper-tree. See Juniperus.

JUNIPERUS LICIA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the frankincence. Sce Olibanum.

JUNIPERUS SABINA, The systematic name of the savine-tree. See Sabina.

JUPITER. The ancient chymical name of tin, because supposed under the government of that planet.

JUVANTIA. (From juvo, to assist.) Medicines, or assistances of any kind, which

relieve a distemper.

JUXTANGINA. (From juxtu, near, and angina, a quinsy.) A disease resembling a auinsy.

## K.

The systematic EMPERIA ROTUNDA. name of the plant which affords the officinal zedoary. Zedoria.

KAJEPUT OLEUM. See Cajeput oil. Kall. (Arab.) The Kali of the phar-"macopæias is the vegetable alkali or potasli. See Potassa.

KALI ACETATUM. See Acetas potassæ. KALI ENATUM. See Carbonas potassæ.

KALI ARSENICATUM A prepartion of arsenic, composed of the vegetable alkali and the oxyd of arsenic. It is the active ingredient in Fowler's mineral solution. See Liquor arseniculis.

KALI CITRATUM. Alkuli volutile, succo citri saturatum. The neutral saline liquor, a citrat of potash, is made by saturated prepared kali with lemon juice. It is the base of the saline draught; it possesses nervine and sudorific properties; and is exhibited in rheumatism, catarrh, and most febrile diseases,

KALI PREPARATUM. See Subcarbonas potassie.

KALI PURUM. See Potassa fusa.

KALI SULPHURATUM. See Sulphuretum

KALI TARTARIZATUM. Sce Turtras po-

KALI VITRIOLATUM. See Sulphas potassæ.

KEIRI. See Chieri.

The mineral alkali which is obtained in this country by burning marine

Kenato Pharyngæus. (From negas, a horn, and φαςυγέ, the pharynx.) A muscle so named from its shape, and insertion in the

pharenx.

KERMES. (Chermah, Arab.) Gramm Coccus baphica. Round redtinctovium. dish grains, about the size of peas, found in Spain, Italy, and the south of France, adhering to the branches of the scarlet oak. They are the nidus of a minute red animalcule, called Coccus quercus ilicis of Linnæ. The confectio alkermes, now obsoletc, was prepared with these, which possess corroborant and adstringent virtues.

Kermes mineralis. A preparation of antimony, so termed from its resemblance to the insect of that name. It is now disused in medicine, and gives place to the other preparations of antimony. Sec IIydrosulphuretum stibii rubrum.

Kernel wort. Scrophularia vulguris. KERVA. Kervah, Arab.) The ricinus. KETCHUP. The prepared liquor of the

mushroom. KEYSER'S PILLS. A once celebrated mercurial medicine, the method of preparing which was purchased by the French government, and has since been published by M. Richard. The hydrargyrus acetatus is considered as an adequate substitute for the more elaborate form of Keyser, M. Richard concludes his account of Keyser's pills with observing, that he considers it to be, without exception, the most effectual remedy for the venereal disease hitherto discovered. But further trials of this remedy do not justify the sanguine account; of its properties; though it may succeed when some of the other mercurial preparations have failed.

KIBES. A name for chilblains.

KIDNEYS. Renes. Two abdominal viscera, shaped like a kidney-bean, that secrete the urine. They are situated on each lumbar region, near the first lumbar vertebra, behind the peritoneum, and are composed of three substances, a cortical, which is the external, and very vascular; a tubulose, which consists of small tubes; and a papillous substance, which is the innermost. The kidneys are generally surrounded with more or less adipose membrane, and they have also a proper membrane, membrana propria, which is closely The accreted to the cortical substance. renal arteries, called also emulgents, proceed from the aorta. The veins evacuate their blood into the ascending cava. The absorbents accompany the blood-vessels, and terminate in the thoracic duct. nerves of the kidneys are branches of the eighth pair and great intercostals. The

excretory duct of this viscus is called the ureter. At the middle or pelvis of the kidney, where the blood-vessels enter it, is a large membranous bag, which diminishes like a finnel, and forms a long caual, or ureter, that conveys the urine from the kidney to the bladder, which it perforates obliquely.

KKEKUNEMALO. A pure resin, very similar to copal, but of a more beautiful whiteness and transparency. It is brought from America, where it is said to be used medicinally in the cure of hysterica, tetanus, &c. It forms the most beautiful of all

Varnishes

KIRI. (Kike, Arabian.) See Ricinus. KINA KINA. See Cinchona. KINKINA. See Cinchona.

KINO. (Indian.) Gummi gambiense.

Gummi rubrum adstringens gambiense. The tree from which this rean is a bined, though not botanically ascertained, is known to grow on the banks of the river Gambia, in Africa. On wounding its bark, the fluid kino immediately issues drop by drop, and, by the heat of the sun, is formed into hard masses. It is very like the resin called Sanguis draconis; is much redder, more firm, resinous, and adstringent, than catechu. It is now in common use, and is the most efficacious vegetable adstringent, or styptic, in the materia medica. Its dose is from twenty to thirty grains.

Knee-holly. See Ruscus. Knee pan See Patella.

Korro. (Polonese.) The plica polonica, or plaited hair.

KYNACHE. See Cynanche.

## L.

LABIA LEPORINA. (Leporina; from lepus, a hare, resembling a hare.) The hare-

fus, a hare, reser

LABORATORIUM. (From laboro, to labour.) A place properly fitted up for the performance of chym cal operations.

LABYRINTH. That part of the internal ear behind the cavity of the tympanum; it is constituted by the cochlea, vestibulum, and semicircular canals.

LAC. See Lacca.

LAC AMMONIACI. See Mistura ammo-

LAC AMYGDALE. A very pleasant, cooling, demulcent drink, calculated to allevate ardor urine, and relieve strangury. It forms a pleasant ptisan in coughs, housenesses, and catarrhs. See Mistura anygdale.

LAC ASSAFIETIDA. See Mistura ussafa-tida.

LAC SULPHURIS. See Sulphur præcipitatum. LACCA. (From lakah, Arab.) Gummi Lacca. Stick-lac. Gum lac. Serd-lac. Shell lac. The improper name of gum-lac is given to a concrete brittle substance, of a dark red colour, brought from the East Indies, incrustated on the twigs of the Cro ton lacciferum of Linnaus:-foliis ovatis tomentosis serrulatis petiolatis, colycibus to-mentosis, where it is deposited by a small insect, at present not scientifically known. It is found in very great quantities on the uncultivated mountains on both sides the Ganges; and is of great use to the natives in various works of art, as varnish, painting, dyeing, &c. When the resinous matter is broken off the wood into small pieces

of grains, it is termed seed-lac, and when melted and formed into flat plates, shell-lac. This substance is chiefly employed for making sealing-wax. A tincture of it is recommended as an antiscorbutic to wash the gums

LACHRYMA ABIEGNAS. See Terebinthina

argentarotensis.

LACHRY M.E. The tears. A limpid fluid secre ed by the lachrymal gland, and flowing on the surface of the eye.

LACHRYMAL BONE. See Unguis os. LACHRYMAL DUCTS. Ductus lach-rymales. The excretory ducts of the achrymal gland, which open upon the internal

surface of the upper ey. lid.

LACHRYMAL GLAND. Glandula lachrymalis. A glomerate gland, situated above
the external angle of the orbit, to a peculiar
depression of the frontal bone. It ecretes
the tears, and conveys them to the eye by
its excretory ducts, which are six or eight

in number.

LACHRYMAL NERVE. The fifth pair of nerves from the head is divided into several branches, the first of which is called the orbitary branch; this is divided into three more, the third of which is called the luchrymal branch; it goes off chiefly to the lachrymar gland.

LACONICUM. (Because they were much used by the people of Laconia.) A stove,

or sweating-room.

LACTATION. (From lacteo, to suckle.)

The giving suck.

LACTATS (Lactas.) Salts formed by the union of the acid of sour whey, or becic acid, with different bases; thus aluminous lactat, ammoniacal lactat, &c.

SI

LACTEALS. Vasu lactea. The absorbents of the mesentery, which originate in the small intestines, and convey the chyle from thence to the thoracic duct. They are very tender and transparent vessels, possessed of an infinite number of valves, which, when distended with chyle, a milky or lacteal fluid, give them a knotty appearance. They arise from the internal surface of the villous coat of the small intestines, perforate the other coats, and form a kind of net-work, whilst the greater num-ber unite one with another between the muscular and external coats. From thence they proceed between the laminæ of the mesentery to the conglobate glands. In their course they constitute the greater part of the gland through which they pass, being distributed through them several times, and curled in various directions. The lacteals, having passed these glands, go to others, and at length seek those nearest the mesentery. From these glands, which are only four or five, or perhaps more, the lacteals pass out and ascend with the mesenteric artery, and unite with the lymphatics of the lower extremities, and those of the abdominal viscera, and then form a common trunk, the thoracic duct, which, in some subjects, is dilated at its origin, forming the receptaculum chyli. See Nutri-

LACTIC ACID. (From lac, milk.) The

acid of sour milk.

Lactica. The Arabian name for that species of fever which the Greeks call Typhos, or Typhodes.

LACTIFUGA (From lac, milk, and fugo, to drive away.) Medicines which dispel

milk.

LACTUCA. (From lac, milk; named from the milk; juice which exudes upon its being wounded.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aquales.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the garden-lettuce, the Lactuca sativa cultivated; it is esteemed as an wholsome aperient bitter anodyne, easy of digestion, but afford ing no nutriment. Lettuces appear to agree better with hot, bilious, melancholic temperaments, than the p'egma ic. The seeds possess a quantity of oily substance, which, triturated with water, forms an emulsion esteemed by some in ardor urinæ, and some diseases of the urinary passage. Lettuce was famous for the cure of the Emperor Augustus, and formed the opiate of Galen, in his old age; a proof that, in the warmer climates, it must acquire an exaltation of its virtues above what is met with in this country.

LACTUCA GRAVEOLEMS. Opium scented lettuce. Strong-scented lettuce. Lacuca sylvestris. Lactuca virosa of Linoans:—foliis horizontalibus carino aculeutes lentatis. A common plant in our hedges and

ditches. It has a strong ungrateful smell, resembling that of opium, and a bitterish acrid taste: it abounds with a milky juice, in which its sensible qualities seem to reside, and which appears to have been noticed by Dioscorides, who describes the odour and taste of the juice as nearly agreeing with that of the white poppy. Its effects are also said, according to Haller, to be powerfully narcotic. Dr. Collin, at Vienna, first brought the lactuca virosa into medical repute, and its character has lately induced the College of Physicians at Edinburgh to insert it in the catalogue of the Materia Medica. More than twentyfour cases of dropsy are said, by Collin, to have been successfully treated, by employing an extract prepared from the expressed juice of this plant, which is stated not only to be powerfully diuretic, but, by attenuating the viscid humours, to promote all the secretions, and to remove visceral obstructions. In the more simple cases, proceeding from debility, the extract, in doses of eighteen to thirty grains a-day, proved sufficient to accomplish a cure: but when the disease was inveterate, and accompanied with visceral obstructions, the quantity of extract was increased to three drachms; nor did larger doses, though they excited nausea, ever produce any other bad effect; and the patients continued so strong under the use of this remedy, that it was seldom necessary to employ any tonic medicines. Though Dr. Collin began his experiments with the lactuca at the Pazman hospital, at the time he was trying the arnica, 1771, yet very few physicians, even at Vienna, have since adopted the use of this plant. Plenc1z, indeed, has published a solitary instance of its efficacy, while Quarin informs us that he never experienced any good effect from its use; alleging, that those who were desirous of supporting its character, mixed with it a quantity of extractum Under these circumstances we scillæ, shall only say, that the recommendation of this medicine by Dr. Collin, will be scarcely thought sufficient to establish its use in England.

LACTUCA SATIVA. The systematic name

of the lettuce. See Lactuca.

Lactuca sylvestris. Scariola. The officinal name of the Lactuca scariola of Linnuis, which possesses a stronger degree of bitterness than the Lactuca sativa, and said to be more aperient and laxative. It is nearly similar, in virtue as in taste, to endive unclanched.

LACTUCA VIROSA The systematic name of 'be opium-scented lettuce. See Lactuca graveolens.

LACTUCELLA. (Deminutive of lactuca, the lettuce; so named from its milky juice.) The sow-thistle.

LACTUCIMINA. (From lacteo, to suckle;

so called because they happen chiefly to children while at the breast.) Aphthæ, or little ulcers, or crusty scabs, on the skin.

LACTUMEN. (From lac, milk; so named because it is covered with a white crust.) The achor, or scald-head; also a little crusty scab on the skin, affecting chiefly children at the breast.

LACUNE. (Lacuna; from lacus, a channel.) The mouths or openings of the exerctory ducts of muciparous glands in

the urethra, and other parts.

LADANUM. (From ladon, Arab.)

Labdanum. This resinous juice exudes upon the leaves of the Cistus cretiens of Linuxus :- aborescens exupulatus, foliis spatulato ovatis petiolatis enervies scabris, calycinis lanceolatis; in Candia, where inhabitants collect it by lightly rubbing the leaves with leather, and afterwards scraping it off, and forming it into irregular masses for exportation. Three sorts of ladanum have been described by authors, but only two are to be met with in the shops. The best, which is very rare, is in dark-coloured masses, of the consistence of a soft plaster, and growing still softer on being handled; the other is in long rolls, coiled up much harder than the preceding, and not so dark. The first has commonly a small, and the last a large, admixture of fine sand, without which they cannot be collected pure, independently of designed abuses: the dust blown on the plant by winds, from the loose sands among which it grows, being retained by the tenacious juice. The soft kind has an agreeable smell, and a lightly pungent bitterish taste: the hard is much weaker. Ladanum was formerly much employed internally as a pectoral and adstrugent in catarrhal affections, dysenteries, and several other diseases; at present, however, it is wholly confined to external use, and is an ingredient in the stomachic plaster, emplastrum ladani.

Ludies bedstraw. See Galium luteum. Ladies mantle. See Alchemilla. Ladies smock. See Cardamine.

LETIFICANTIA. (From latifico, to make glad.) This term liath been applied to many compositions under the intention of corduls; but both the medicine and distinction are now quite disused.

(Azyzecc, lax; so named parative laxity.) The right LAGAROS. from its comparative laxity.)

ventricle of the heart.

LAGOPHTHALMIA. (From hayes, a hare, and οφθαλμος, an eye; because it is believed that hares sleep with their eyes open.) Logophthalmos. The hare's eye. A disease in which the eye cannot be shut. The following complaints may arise from it: a constant weeping of the organ, in consequence of the interruption of the alternate closure and opening of the eyelids which motions so materially contri-

tribute to propelling the tears into the nose; blindness in a strong light, in consequence of the inability to moderate the rays which fall on the eye; on the same account, the sight becomes gradually very much weakened; incapacity to sleep where there is any light; irritation, pain, and redness of the eye, from this organ being exposed to the extraneous substances in the atmosphere, without the evelids having the power of washing them away in the natural man-

An enlargement or protrusion of the whole eye, or a staphyloma, may obviously produce lagophthalmos. But affections of the upper eyelids are the common causes. Heister says he has seen the complaint originate from a disease of the lower one. Now and then tagophthalmos depends on paralysis of the orbicularis muscle. A cicatrix, after a wound, ulcer, or burn, is the most frequent cause.

LAGOPODIUM. (From Augos, a hare, and mes, a foot; so called because it has narrow harry leaves, like the foot of a hare.) The herb hare's foot trefoil.

LOGOSTOMA. (From λαγος, a hare, and 50μα, the mouth; so called because the upper lip is divided in the middle like that of a hare.) The hare lip.

Lakeweed. See Hydropiper.

LAMAC. Gum-arabic

LAMBDACIMUS. A defect in speech, which consists in an inability to pronounce certain consonants, or is that stammering, or difficulty of speech, called Psellismus Lallans, that is, when the letter L is pronounced too liquid, and often in the place of R.

LAMBDOIDAL SUTURE. (Satura Lambdoidalis; from A, and usos, resemblance; because it is shaped like the leter A ) Occipital suture. The suture that unites the occipital bone to the two parietal bones.

LAMBITIVUM. (From lambo, to lick up.) A linctus or medicine to be licked up.

LAMELLA. (Dim. of lamina, a plate of The thin plates, or gills, of a metal.) mushroom.

LAMINA. (From Exace, to beat off.) A bone, or membrane, or any substance resembling a thin plate of metal. The lap of the ear.

LAMIUM ALBUM. (From Lamium, a mountain of Ionia, where it grew, or from lama, a ditch, because it usually grows about ditches and neglected places.) Urtica mortua. Galeopsis. Archangelica. Dead nettle. White archangel nettle. Uterine hæmorrhages and fluor lbus are s id to be relieved by infusions of this plant, from whose sensible qualities very little benefit can be expected.

LAMPSANA. See Lapsana.

LANCETTA. (Dim. of lancea, a spear.) A lancet. An instrument used in phleho-

LAONICA CORATIO. A method of curing the wort, by ev porating the morbid matter y topical applications.

LAPACTICA. (From AZTZZw, to evacu-

ate.) Purgative medicines.

LAPARA. From (λαπαζω, to empty; so named from its concave and empty appearance.) The flank.

LAPAROCELE (From Auraga, the flank, and xnan, a rupture.) A rupture through

the side of the belly.

(From λαπαζω, to evacu-LAPATHUM. ate; so named because it purges gently.) The dock.

LAPATHUM ACETOSUM. Se: Acetosa.

LAPATHUM ACUTUM See Oxylapathum. LAPATHUM AQUATICUM. See Hydrolupa-

LAPIDES CANCRORUM. See Cancer.

LAPIDELLUM. Lapidellus. (From lapis, a stone.) The name of a kind of spoon, form-rly used to take out small stones and fragments from the bladder.

LAPILLI CANCRORUM. Crab's stones. commonly called crab's eyes. See Cuncer.

LAPIS BEZOAR, See Bezoar.

LAPIS CERULEUS. See Lapis lazuli. CALAMINARIS. See Calamine. Hard carbonate of LAPIS CALCAREUS. lime.

LAPIS CYANUS. See Lapis lazuli

LAPIS HEMATITES. Se Hamatites.

LAPIS HIBERNICUS. Tegula hybernica. Ardesia hibernica Hardesia. Irish slate. A kind of slate, or very hard stone, found in different parts of Ireland, in a mass of a blueish black colour, which stains the hands. When dried and powdered, it is pale, or of a whitish blue, and by keeping grows black. In the fire it yields a sulphureous gaz, and acquires a pale red colour, with additional hardness. It is occasionally powdered by the common people, and taken in spruce beer, against inward

LAPIS HYSTRICIS. See Bezoar porcinum. LAPIS INFERNALIS. An old name for the

caustic potasli. See Potassa fusa.

LAPIS LAZULI. Lapis cyanus. A combination of silex, the blue finate of lime and sulphat of lime, and iron. This singular mixture forms a stone, of a beautiful opake blue, which it preserves in a strong heat, and does not suffer any alteration by the contact of air. It was formerly exhibited as a purgative and vomit, and given in epilepsy.

LAPIS MALACENSIS. See Bezoar porci-

LAPIS PORCINUS, See Bezoar porci-

LAPIS SIMIÆ. See Bezoar simiæ. LAPPA MAJOR. See Bardada.

LAPSANA. (Aadavn, from Lampsacus, the town near which it flourished; or from λαπαζω, to evacuate; because it was said

to relax the bowels.) Lampsana. Napium. Papillaris herba. Dock-cresses. Nipplewort. This plant, Lapsana communis of Linnaus, is a lacte-cent bitter, and nearly similar in virtues to the cichory, dandelion. and endive. It has been employed chiefly for external purposes, against wounds and ulcerations, whence the name of nipple-wort and papillaris

LAQUEUS GUTTURIS. A malignant inflammation of the tonsils, in which the patient appears as if he were suffocated with a

noose,

LARRASON. Antimonv.

Larch-tree. See Terebinthina veneta.

LARD. The English name of hog's fat, when melved down. Hog's lard, adeps suella, forms the base of many unguents, and is often eaten by the poor instead of

LARYNGOTOMY. (From xaevas, the larynx. and τεμνω, to cut.) See Bronchotomy.

LARYNX. (Azeuré, a Greek primitive.) A cartilaginous cavi y, situated behind the tongue, in the anterior part of the fauces, and lined with an exquisitely sensible membrane. It is composed of the annular or cricoid cartilage, the scutiform or thyroid, the epiglottis, and two arytenoid cartilages. The superior opening of the larynx is called the glottis The laryngeal arteries are branches of the external carouds. The laryngeal veins evacuate their blood into the external jugulars. The nerves of the larynx are from the eighth pair. The use of the larynx is to constitute the organ of voice, and to serve also for respiration.

Lascivus. (From lacio, 10 ensnare; upon account of its irregular motions.) An epithet used by Paracelsus for the chorea

Sanc'i viti.

LASER. (A term used by the Cyrenians.) The herb lasser-wort, or assafortida.

LASERPITIUM LATIFOLIUM. (From laser, perhaps from lazar, Arab ) The systematic name of the white gentian. See Gentiana

LASERPITIUM SILER. The systematic name of the heart wort. See Seseli,

LATERAL OPERATION. One mode of cutting for the stone is so called.

LATERAL SINUSSES The bifurcation and continua ion of the longitudinal sinus of the dura mater. They commence about the middle of the tentorium, one passing along each horizontal crucial spine within the tentorium, and round to the foramen lacerum in basi cranii, where the internal jugular vem begins. Their use is to carry the blood from the vein into the internal jugulars, which return it to the heart.

LATEX. (Latez, quod in venis terra lateat.) Water, or juice A term sometimes applied to the blood, as being the spring or source of all the humours.

LATERITIOUS SEDIMENT. (I.a.

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teriteus; from later, a brick.) A term applied to the brick-like sediment occasionally deposited in the urine of people afflicted

LATHYRIS. (From Azba, to forget; because it was thought to affect the memory.)

LATHYRUS. (From Az 9w, to lie hid; so called from its diminutive size.) The vetch. LATINULUM. (From lateo, to lie hid.) The fomes, or hidden matter of infectious

LATISSIMUS COLLI. See Platysma myoides

LATISSIMUS DORSI. (Latissimus, sc. muscuius.; Antiscalptor of Cowper. Dorsi-lumbo sacro humeral of Dumas A muscle of the humerus, situated on the posterior part a of the trunk. It is a very broad, thin, and for the most part fleshy muscle, which is placed immediately under the skin, exccpt where it is covered by the lower extremity of the trapezius. It arises tendinous from the posterior half of the upper edge of the spine of the os ilium, from the spinous processes of the os sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, and from five or six, and sometimes from seven, and even eight, of the lowermost ones of the back; also tendinous and fleshy from the upper edges and external surface of the four inferior false ribs near their cartilages, by as many distinct slips. From these different origins the fibres of the muscle run in different direct ons; those from the ilium and false ribs run almost perpendicularly upwards; those from the sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, obliquely upwards and forwards; and those from the vertebræ of the back, transversely outwards and forwards, over the inferior angle of the scapula, where they receive a small thin bundle of fleshy fibres, which arise tendinous from that angle, and are inserted with the rest of the muscle, by a strong, flat, and thin tendon, of about two inches in length, into the fore-part of the posterior edge of the groove observed between the two tuberosities of the os humeri, for lodging the tendon of the long head of the biceps. In dissection, therefore, this muscle ought not to be followed to its insertion, till some of the other muscles of the os humeri have been first Its use is to pull the os humeri downwards and backwards, and to turn it upon its axis. Riolanus, from its use on certain occasions, gave it the name of anitersor. When we raise ourselves upon our hends, as in rising from off an arm-chair, we may easily perceive the contraction of this muscle. A bursa mucosa is found between the tendon of this muscle and the os humeri, into which it is inserted.

LAUCANIA. (From Azua, to receive; so called because it receives and conveys food.) The expliagus of the throat.

Laudanum. (From laus, praise; so

named from its valuable properties.) See Tinctura opi:

Laurel, cherry See Laurocerasus. Laurel, spurge. See Laureola.

LAUREOLA. (Dim. of laurus, the laurel, named from it resemblance to the laurel. Spurge laurel. The bark of this plant, Daphne laureola of Linnæus, is recommended to excite a discharge from the skin, in the same way as that of the thyme-

LAURO CERASUS. (From laurus, the laurel, and cerasus, the cherry-tree; so called because it has leaves like the laurel.) Common or cherry laurel. Prunus laurocerasus of Linnaus: - floribus racemosis fohis sempervirentibue dorso biglandulosis. The leaves of the lauro-cerasus have a bitter styptic taste, accompanied with a flavour resembling that of bitter-almonds, or other kernels of the drupacious fruits; the flowers also manifest a similar flavour. The powdered le ves, applied to the nostrils, excite sneezing, though not so strongly as tobacco. The kernel-like flavour which these leaves impair, being generally esteemed grateful, has sometimes caused them to be employed for culmary purposes, and especially in custards, puddings, blancmange, &c.; and as the proportion of this sapid matter of the lent to the quantity of the m lk is commonly inconsiderable, bad effects have seldom cusued. But as the poisonous quality of this laurel is now indubitably proved, the public ought to be cautioned against its internal use.

The following communication to the Royal Society, by Dr. Madden, of Dublin, contains the first and principal proofs of the deleterious effects of this vegetable upon mankind ;- "A very extraordinary accident that fell out here some months ago, has discovered to us a most dangerous poison, which was never before known to be so, though it has been in frequent use among us. The thing I mean is a simple water, distilled from the leaves of the lauro-cerasus; the water is at first milky, but the oil which comes over being, in a good measure, separated from the phlegm, by passing it through a flannel bag, becomes as clear as common water. It has the smell of bitter almonds, or peachkernel, and has been for many years in frequent use among our housewives and cooks, to give that agreeable flavour to their creams and puddings. It has also been much in use among our drinkers of drams; and the proportions they generally use it in has been one part of laurel Nor has this water to four of brandy. practice, however frequent, ever been attended with any apparent ill consequences, till some time in the month of Septem-ber 1728, when it happened that one Martha Boyse, a servant, who lived with a person who sold great quantities of

this water, got a bottle of it from her mistress, and gave it to her mother Ann Boyse made a present of it to Frances Eaton, her sister, who was a shopkerper in town, and who she thought might oblige her customers with it. Accordingly, in a few days, she gave about two ounces to a woman called Mary Whaley, who drank about two-thirds of what was filled out, and went away. Frances Eaton drank the rest. In a quarter of an hour after Mary Whaley had drank the water, (as I am informed,) she complained of a violent disorder in her stomach, soon after lost her speech, and died in about an hour, without vomiting, or purging, or any convulsion. The shopkeeper, F. Eaton, sent word to her sister, Ann Boyse, of what had happened, who came to her upon the message, and affirmed that it was not possible the cordial (as she called it) could have occa-sioned the death of the woman; and, to convince her of it, she filled out about three ounces and drank it. She continued talking with F. Eaton about two minutes longer, and was so earnest to persuade her of the liquor's being inoffensive, that she drank about two spoonfuls more, but was hardly well seated in her chair when she died without the least groan, or convulsion. Frances Eaton, who, as before observed, had drank somewhat more than a spoonful, found no disorder in her stomach, or elsewhere; but, to prevent any ill consequences, she took a vomit immediately, and has been well ever since."-Dr. Madden mentions another case, of a gentleman at Kilkenny who mistook a bottle of laurelwater for a bottle of ptisan. What quantity he drank is uncertain, but he died in a few minutes, complaining of a violent disorder in the stomach. In addition to this, we may refer to the unfortunate case of Sir Theodosius Boughton, whose death, in 1780, an English jury declared to be occasioned by this poison. In this case, the active principle of the lauro-cerasus was concentrated by repeated distillations, and given to the quantity of one ounce; the suddenly fatal effects of which must be still in the recollection of the public. brute animals this poison is almost instantaneously mortal, as amply appears by the experiments of Madden, Mortimer, Nicholls, Fontana, Langrish, Vater, and others. The experiments conducted by these gentlemen shew, that the laurel-water is destructive to animal life, not only when taken into the stomach, but also on being injected into the intestines, or applied externally to different organs of the body. It is remarked, by Abbé Fontana, that this poison, even "when applied in a very small quantity to the eyes, or to the inner part of the mouth, without touching the esophagus, or being carried into the stomach, is capable of killing an animal in afew

minutes: whilst, applied in a much greater quantity to wounds, it has so little activity, that the weakest animals, such as pigeons, resist its action."

The most volatile is the most active part of the lauro-cerasus; and if we judge from its sensible qualities, an analogous principle seems to pervade many other vegetable substances, especially the ker lels of drupaceous truits; and in various species of the amygdalus, this sapid principle extends to the flowers and leaves. It is of importance to notice, that this is much less powerful in its action upon human subjects than upon dogs, rabbits, pigeons, and reptiles. To poison man, the essential oil of the laurocerasus must be separated by distillation, as in the spirituous o common taurel-water; and unless this is strongly enibued with the oil, or given in a large dose, it proves inno-Dr. Cullen observes, that the sedative power of the lauro-cerasus acts upon the nervous system in a different manner from opium and other narcotic substances, whose primary action is upon the animal functions; for the lauro-cerasus does not occasion sleep, nor does it produce local inflammation, but seems to act directly upon the vital powers. Abbé Fontana supposes that this poison destroys animal life, by exerting its effects upon the blood; but the experiments and observations from which he draws this opinion are evidently inconclusive. It may also be remarked, that many of the Abbé's experiments contradict each other. Thus it appears, from the citation given above, that the poison of this vegetable, when applied to wounds, does not prove fatal; but future experiments led the Abbé to assert, that the oil of the lauro-cerasus, "whether given internally, or applied to the wounds of animals, is one of the most terrible and deadly poisons known." Though this vegetable seems to have escaped the notice of Stoerck, yet it is not without advocates for its medical use. Linnæus informs us, that in Switzerland it is commonly and successfully used in pulmonary complaints. Langrish mentions its efficacy in agues; and as Bergius found bitter almonds to have this effect, we may, by analogy, conclude that this power of the lauro-cerasus, is well established. Baylies found, that it possessed a remarkable power of diluting the blood, and, from experience, recommended it in all cases of disease supposed to proceed from too dense a state of that fluid; adducing particular instances of its efficacy in rheumatism, asthmas, and in schirrous affections. Nor does this author seem to have been much afraid of the deleterious quality of lauro-cerasus, as he directs a pound of its leaves to be macerated in a pint of water, of which he gives from thirty to sixty drops three or four times a-day.

LAUROSIS. The spodium of silver; so

called from Mount Laurus, where there were silver mines.

LAURUS. (From laus, praise; because it was usual to crown the heads of eminent men with branches of it.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Enneaudria. Order, Monogynia. The laurel.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the sweetbay. Laurus nobilis of Linnæus :- foliis venosis lanceolatis pereunantibus, floribus quadrifidis. This tree is a native of Italy, but cultivated in our gardens and shrubberies as a handsome evergreen. The teaves and berries possess the same medicinal qualities, both having a sweet fragrant smell, and an aromatic adstringent taste. The laurus of honorary memory, the distinguished favourite of Apollo, may be naturally supposed to have had no inconsiderable fame as a medicine; but its pliarmaceutical uses are so limited in the practice of the present day, that this dignified plant is now rarely employed, except in the way of enema, or as an external application; thus the leaves are directed in the decoctum pro fomento, and the berries in the emplastrum cumini.

LAURUS BENZOIN. The systematic name of the benjamin-tree. See Benzoi-

LAURUS CAMPHORA. The systematic name of the camphire-tree. See Camphora. LAURUS CINNAMOMUM, The systematic name of the cinnamon-tree. See Cinnamo mum

The systematic LAURUS CULILAWAN. name of the plant whose bark is called cortex culilawan in the shops.

LAURUS NOBILIS. The systematic name of the sweet-bay tree. See Laurus.

LAUNUS SASSAFIIAS. The systematic name of the sassafras-tree. See Sassafras.

Lavender, French. See Stachas.

LAVENDULA. (From lavo, to wash; so called, because, on account of its fragrancy, it was used in baths.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didyuamia. Order, Gym-

2. The pharmacopoial name of the common lavender. Lavendula spica of Linnæus:-foliis sessilibus lanceolato linearibus margine revolutis, spica interrupta nuda. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but cultivated in our gardens on account of the fragrance of its flowers. Their taste is bitter, warm, and somewhat pungent; the leaves are weaker and less grateful. The essential oil, obtained by distillation, is of a bright yellow colour, of a very pungent taste, and possesses, if carefully distilled, the fragrance of the lavender in perfection. Lavender has been long recommended in nervous debilities, and various affections proceeding from a want of energy in the

animal functions. The College directs an essential oil, a simple sp rit, and a compound tincture, to be kept in the shops.

LAVENDULA SPICA. The systematic name of the common lavender. See Laven-

LAVENDULA STECHAS. The systematic name of the French lavender. See Stæ-

LAVER. (From lavo, to wash; so named because it is found in brooks, where it is constantly washed by the stream.) 1. The brook-lime.

2. The English name of a species of fucus which is eaten as a delicacy.

Lavipedium. (From lavo, to wash, and pes, the foot.) A bath for the feet.

Lawsonia inermis. The systematic

name of the true alkanna. See Alkanna

LAXATIVA. (From laxo, to loosen.) Gen-

tle purgatives.

LAXATOR TYMPANI. (From laxo, to loosen; so called from its office to r lax the drum of the ear.) Externus mallei of Albinus. Anterior mallei of Winslow. Obliquus auris of Douglas. Externus anvis vel laxator internus of Cowper, and Spheni salpingo mallien of Dumas. A muscle of the internal ear, that draws the malleus obliquely forwards towards its origin; consequently, the membrana tympani is made less concave, or is relaxed.

LAZULUS. (From azul, Arabian.) precious stone, of a blue colour. The lapis lazuli.

LEAD. Plumbum. A metal found in considerable quantity in many parts of the earth, in different states, seldom if at all in the metallic state. It is found in that of oxyd, red lead ore, mixed with a portion of iron, clay, and other earths. The colour of this ore is aurora red, resembling red arsenic. It is found in small lumps, of an indeterminate figure, and also crystallized in four-sided rhomboidal

Combined with carbonic acid, it forms the sparry lead ore, so called because it has the texture and crystallization of certain spars. There are a great many varieties of this kind. It is found united with sulphuric, phosphoric, arsenic, molybdic, and chromic acids. Lastly, lead is found mineralized by sulphur, forming what is called galena (sulphurct of lead,) which is by far its most abundant ore. This ore, which is very common, is found both in masses and crystals.

The primitive form of its crystals is a cube. Its colour is of a blueish lead grey. It has a considerable metallic lustre, its texture is foliated. It stains the fingers, and often feels greasy It contains in general a minute quantity of silver.

Properties of Lead.-Lead is of a blueish white colour when fresh cut. It is malle-

able. It soon tarnishes in the atmosphere. It may easily be cut with a knife, and stains the fingers blueish-grey when rubbed. It fuses at 550° Fahr, and renders other more refractory metals fusible. It becomes vitrified in a strong and continued heat, and vitrifies various other metals. It is the least clastic of all the metals. It is very lammable, but it possesses very little ductility. Its specific gravity is 11.435. crystallizes by cooling in small octahedra. When fused, its surface first becomes yellow and then red. It unites by fusion with phosphorus and sulphur. The greater part of the acids act upon it. The sulphuric acid requires the assistance of a boiling Ni ric acid is decomposed by it. Muriatic acid acts very weakly on it. Acetic acid dissolves it. Fluoric acid attacks it by heat, and slightly in the cold. It combines with other metals, but few of its alloys are applied to any use. combined with mercury it forms a crystallizable alloy, which becomes fluid when triturated with that of bismuth.

LEA

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Method of obtaining Lead .- In order to obtain lead in a great way, the ore is picked from among the extraneous matter with which it was naturally mixed. It is then pulverized and washed. It is next roasted in a reverberatory furnace, in which it is to be agitated, in order to bring all its surfaces in contact with the air When the external parts begin to soften, or assume the form of a paste, it is covered with charcoal, the mixture is stirred, and the heat increased gradually; the lead then runs on all sides, and is collected at the bottom of the furnace, which is perforated so as to permit the metal to flow into a receptable defended by a lining of char-

coal.

The scoria remaining above in the furnace still retain a considerable proportion of lead; in order to extract it, the scoria must be fused in a blast furnace. The lead is by that means separated, and cast into iron moulds, each of which contains a portion called a pig of lead. These pigs are sold under the name of ore lead.

To disengage the silver from lead thus obtained, the metal is subjected to the action of the refining furnace. The continual application of a quantity of fresh air, which is thrown by means of large bellows upon the fused lead, which is at the same time heated as intensely as possible, oxydates the lead, and converts it into the yellow scaly oxyd, known by the name of litharge.

This scaly oxyd being driven off from the surface of the fused metal, as it is formed, leaves the silver alone unaltered at the bottom.

The lytharge is then to be fused in contact with charcoal, that it may assume the properties of metallic lead,

In order to obtain perfectly pure lead, the lead of commerce may be dissolved in pure nitric acid, and the solution be decomposed, by adding to it, gradually, a solution of sulphate of soda, so long as a precipitate ensues. This precipitate, which is sulphate of lead, must then be collected on a filter, washed repeatedly in distilled water, and then dried. In order to reduce it to its metallic state, let it be mixed with two or three times its weight of black flux, introduce the mixture into a crucible, and expose it briskly to a red heat.

Lead, when injudiciously administered. or taken accidentally nto the body, causes emaciation, violent colics, paralysis, tremors, and contractions of the limbs; and as they generally come on gradually, the cause is sometimes overlooked till it be too late. Poisoning from lead is never intentional, but only accidental; either from liquors becoming impregnated with lead, by being improperly kept in vessels lined or glazed with lead, or to which lead has been criminally added, to correct its acidity; or among manufacturers who work much with lead, as painters, or plumbers, and who are not sufficiently attentive to avoid swallowing it. The presence of lead in any suspected liquor is detected by the hydro-sulphuret of potash, which forms with it a brown precipi ate, not soluble in diluted muriatic acid, and still more certainly by evaporating a portion of the liquor to dryness, and exposing the extract to a heat sufficient to reduce the lead.

The preparations of lead used in medicine are :--

1. Oxidum plumbi album. See Cerussa and Plumbi carbonas.

2. Oxidum plumbi rubrum. See Minium,

3. Oxidum plumbi semivitreum. See Lithargyrum and Oxidum plumbi semivitreum.

4. Superacetas plumbi. See *Plumbi su*peracetas.

5 Liquor plumbi acetatis. See Liquor plumbi acetatis.

6. Liquor plumbi acetatis dilutus. See Liquor plumbi acetatis dilutus.

LAZULI LAPIS. See Lapis lazuli.

LEDUM PALUSTRE. The systematic name of the rosmarinus sylvestris. See Rosmarinus sylvestris.

LEENA. (From Acasta, a lioness; so named from its power.) A plaster for the

LEECH, Hirudo. A genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes intestina. The body moves either forward or backward. There are several species, principally distinguished by their colour; but that most known to medical men is the

hirudo medicinalis, or medicinal leech, which grows to the length of two or three

inches. The body is of a blackish brown colour, marked on the back with six yellow spots, and edged with a yellow line on each side; but both the spots and lines grow faint, and almost disappear, at some seasons. The head is smaller than the tail, which fixes itself very firm v to any thing the creature pleases. It is vaviatious, and produces but one young one t a time, which is in the month of July. It is an inhabitant of clear running waters, and is well known for its use in bleeding. The species most nearly approaching this, and which it is necessary to distinguish, is the hirudo sanguisuga, or horse leech. This is larger than the former; its skin is smooth and glossy; the body is depressed, the back is dusky; and the belly is of a yellowish green, it. ving a yellow laternal margin. It inhabits stagnant waters.

The leech's head is armed with a sharp instrument that makes three wounds at once. They are three sharp tubereles, strong enough to cut through the skin of a man, or even of an ox, or horse. The moath is, as it were, the body of the pump, and the tongue, or fleshy nipple, the sucker; by the working of this piece of mechanism, the blood is made to rise up to the conduit which conveys it to the animal' stomach, which is a membranaccous skin, divided into twenty-four small cells. The blood which is sucked out is there preserved for several months, almost without enagulating, and proves a store of provision to the animal. The nutritious parts, absorbed after digestion by animals, need not in this to be disengaged from the heterogeneous substances; nor indeed is there an anus discoverable in the leech; mere transpiration seems to be all that it performs, the matter fixing on the surface of the body, and afterwards coming oil in small threads. Of this, an experiment may be tried, by putting a leech into oil, where it keeps alive for several days; upon being taken out, and put into water, there appears to locsen from its body a kind of slough, shaped like the creature's body. The organ of respiration, though unascertained, seems to be situated in the mouth; for if, like an inseet, it drew breath through vent-holes, it would not subsist in oil, as, by it, these would be stopped up.

The first species only is used in medicine; being applied to the skin in order to draw off blood. With this view they are employed to bleed young children, and for the purposes of topical bleeding, in cases of inflammation, fulness, or pain. They may be employed in every case where topical bleedings are thought necessary, or where venesection cannot be performed. If the leech does not fasten, a drop of sugared milk is put on the spot it is wished to fix on, or a little blood is drawn by means of a slight puncture; after which

it immediately settles. The leech, when fixed, should be watched, lest it should find its way into the anus, when used for the hæmarchoids, or penetrate into the osophagus, if e nployed to draw the gums; otherwise it might fix upon the stomach, or intestines. In such a case, the best and quickest remedy is to swallow some salt: which is the method practised to make it loose its hold, when it sucks longer than is intended. Vegetable or volatile alkali, pepper, or acids, also make it leave the part on which it was applied. Cows and horses have been known to receive leeches, when drinking, into the throat; and the usual remedy is to force down some salt, which makes them fall off. If it is intended that the leech should draw a larger quantity of blood, the end of the tail is cut off; and it then sucks continually, to make up the loss it sustains. The discharge occasioned by the puncture of a leech is usually of more service than the process itself. When too abundant, it is easily stopped with brandy, vinegar, or other styptics, or with a compress of dry linen rags, bound strongly on the bleeding orifice. They are said to be very restless before a change of w ather, if confined to glasses, and to fix themselves above the water on the approach of a fine day.

As these little animals are depended on for the removal of very dangerous diseases, and as they often seem capriciously determined to resist the endeavours made to eause them to adhere, the following directions are added, by which their assistance may, with more certainty, be obtained.

The introducing a hand, to which any ill-flavoured medicine adheres, into the water in which they are kept, will be often sufficient to deprive them of life; the application of a small quantity of any saline matter to their skin immediately oc-casions the expulsion of the contents of their stomach; and what is most to our purpose, the least flavour of any medicament that has been applied remaining on the skin, or even the accumulation of the matter of perspiration, will prevent them from fastening. The skin should therefore, previous to their application, be very carefully cleansed from any foulness, and moistened with a little milk. The method of applying them is by retaining them to the skin by a small wine-glass, or the bottom of a large pill-box, when they will, in general, in a little time fasten themselves to the skin. On their removal, the rejection of the blood they have drawn may be obtained by the application of salt externally; but it is to be remarked, that a few grains of salt are sufficient for this purpose; and that covering them with it, as is sometimes done, generally destroys them.

LEEK. Allium porrum. A well-known vegetable, much employed for eulmary

purposes. The recent root and juice are exhibited internally in quartan fever, in dyspepsy, dropsy, asthma, and scurvy. See Porrum.

LEGNA. (From Asyrov, a fringed edge.) The extremities of the pudenda muliebruin.

LEGUMEN. (From lego, to gather; so called because they are usually gathered by the hand.) All kinds of pulse are so called.

LEICHEN. See Lichen.

LEIENTERIA. See Lienteria.

LEIPOPSYCHIA. (From Aure, to leave, and fuxn, the soul, or life.) A swoon. See Syncope.

(From λειπω, to leave, and LEIPOPYRIA. mue, heat.) A kind of ardent fever, where the internal parts are scorched with heat, while the external parts are cold.

LEIPOTHYMIA. (From λειτω, to leave, and Sυμος, the mind.) See Lipothymia.

LEME. (From λα, much, and μυω, to wink.) A defect in the eyes, when they are always winking.

LEMITHOCHORTON. See Corallina Corsi-

LEMMA. (From AETTW, to decorticate.) Bark. The skin.

LEMNIUS. (From Lemnos, whence it is brought.) A species of bole called terra lemnia, or earth of Lemnos.

Lemon. See Limon.

Lemon scurvy-grass. See Cochlearia hor-

LENIENTIA. (From lenio, to assuage.) Medicines which abate irritation.

LENITIVA. (From lenis, gentle.) Medicines which gently palliate diseases. Gen-

tle purgatives.

LENITIVE ELECTUARY. A preparation composed chiefly of senna and some aromatics, with the pulp of tamarinds. given in doses of a tea-spoonful, or more, frequently repeated, as a mild laxative; and, when fresh, it answers this purpose

well. See Confectio Sennæ.

LENS. (A lentore; from its glutinous quality.) 1. The lentil. \$\phi \text{220}\$ of the Greeks. Eroum lens of Linn\text{2015}:--fedunculis subbifloris; seminibus compressis, convexis. There are two varieties; the one with large, the other small seed. are eaten in many places as we eat peas. than which they are more flatulent, and more difficult to digest. A decoction of these seeds is used as a lotion to the ulcerations after small-pox, and, it is said, with success.

\* 2. See also Chrystalline lens.

LENTICULA. (Dim. of lens, a lentil.) A smaller sort of lentil. Also a freckle, or small pustule, resembling the seeds of lentil.

LENTICULAR. (From lenticulaire, doubly convex.) A surgical instrument, employed for removing the jagged particles of bone from the edge of the perforation made in the cranium with the trephine.

(From lenticula.) A LENTICULARIA. species of lentil.

LENTIGO. (From lens, a lentil; so named from its likeness to lentil-seeds.) A freckle.

LENTIL. An annual vegetable of the pulse kind, much used for improving the flavour of soups.

LENTISCUS. (From lentesco, to become clammy; so called from the gumminess of its juice.) The mastich-tree.

LENTOR. (From lentus, clammy.) A

viscidity or siziness of any fluid.

LEONINUS. (From leo, the lion.) epithet of that sort of leprosy called leontiasis.

LEONTIASIS. (From LEWF, a lion; so called because it is said lions are subject to it.) A species of leprosy resembling the elephantiasis.

LEONTODON. (From NEWV, the lion, and ofse, a tooth; so called from its supposed resemblance. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aqualis. The dandelion.

LEONTOPODIUM. (From Asser a lion, and πες, a foot; so named from its supposed resemblance.) The herb lion's foot.

LEONURUS. (From AEW, a lion, and sga, a tail: so named from its likeness.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia. Lion's tail.

2. The name, in some pharmacopæias,

for the lion's tail.

Leopard's bane. See Arnica.

LEPIDIUM. (From λεπις, a scale; so named from its supposed usefulness in cleansing the skin from scales and impurities.) Pepper-wort.

LEPIDOSARCOMA. (From heris, a scale, and oage, flesh.) An irregular scaly tu-

LEPISMA. (From λεπιζω, to decorticate.) Decortication. A perling off of the skin.

LEPRA. (From hearts, a scale; named from its appearance. The leprosy. A disease in the class cachexiae, and order impetigines, of Cullen. Dr. Willan describes this disease as characterized by scaly patches, of different sizes, but having always nearly a circular form. In this country, three varieties of the disease are observed, which he has described under the title of Lepra vulgaris, Lepra alphos, Lepra nigricans.

1. The Lepra vulgaris exhibits first small distinct elevations of the cuticle, which are reddish and shining, but never contain any fluid; these patches continue to enlarge gradually, till they nearly equal the dimensions of a crown-piece. They have always an orbicular, or oval form; are covered with dry scales, and surrounded by a red border. The scales accumulate on them. so as to form a thick prominent crust,

which is quickly re-produced, whether it fall off spontaneously, or may have been forcibly detached. This species of lepra sometimes appears first at the elbow, or on the fore-arm; but more generally about the In the latter case, the primary patch forms immediately below the patella, within a few weeks, several other scaly circles appear along the fore part of the leg and thigh, increasing by degrees, till they come nearly into contact. The disease is then often stationary for a considerable length of time. If it advance further, the progress is towards the hip and loins; afterwards, to the sides, back, shoulders, and, about the same time, to the arms and hands. In the greater number of cases, the hary scalp is the part last affected: although the circles formed on it remain for some time distinct, yet they finally unite, and cover the whole surface on which the hair grows with a white scaly incrustation. This appearance is attended, more especially in hot weather, with a troublesome itching, and with a tratery discharge for several hours, when any portion of the crust is detached, which takes place from very slight impressions. The pubes in adults is sometimes affected in the same manner as the head: and if the subject be a female, there is usually an internal pruritus pudendi. In some cases of the disorder, the nals, both of the fingers and toes, are thickened, and deeply in-dented longitudinally. When the lepra ex-tends universally, it becomes highly disgus ing in its appearance, and inconvenient from the stiffness and torpor occasioned by it in the limbs. The disease, however, even in this advanced stage, is seldom disposed to terminate spontaneously. It continues nearly in the same state for several years, or sometimes during the whole life of the person affected, not being apparently con-nected with any disorder of the constitution.

2. Lepra alphos. The scaly patches in the alphos are smaller than those of the lepra vulgaris, and also differ from them in having their central parts depressed or indented. This disorder usually begins about the elbow, with distinct, eminent asperities, of a dull red colour, and not much longer than papilla. These, in a short time, dilate to nearly the size of a silver penny. Two or three days afterwards, the central part of them suffers a depression, within which small white powdery scales may be observed. The surrounding border, however, still continues to be raised, but retains the same size and the same red colour as at first. The whole of the fore-arm, and sometimes the back of the hand, is spotted with similar patches: they seldom become confluent, excepting round the elbow, which, in that case, is covered with an uniform crust. This affection appears in the same manner upon the joint of the knee, but without spreading far along the thigh or leg. Dr. Willan has seldom seen it on the trunk of the body, and never on the face. It is a disease of long duration, and not less difficult to cure than the foregoing species of lepra; even when the scaly patches have been removed by persevering in the use of suitable applications, the cuticle still remains red, tender, and brittle, very slowly recovering its usual texture. The alphos, as above described, frequently occurs in this country.

3. The Lepra nigricans differs little from the lepra vulgaris, as to its form and distribution. The most striking difference is in the colour of the patches, which are dark and livid. They appear first on the legs and fore-arms, extending afterwards to the thighs, loins, neck, and irands. central part is not depressed, as in the alphos. They are somewhat smaller in size than the patches of the lepra vuigaris, and not only is the border livid or purplish, but the livid colour of the base likewise appears through the scaly incrustation, which is seldom very thick. It is further to be observed, that the scales are more easily detached than in the other forms of lepra, and that the surface remain longer excoriated, discharging lymph, often with an intermixture of blood, till a new incritstation forms, which is usually hard, brittle, and irregular. The lepra nigricans affects persons whose occupation is attended with much fatigue, and exposes them to cold or damp, and to a precarious or in oper mode of diet; as soldiers, brewers, labourers, butchers, stage-coachmen, scullermen, &c.; some women are also liable to it, who are habituated to poor living and constant

LEPRA GRECORUM. The lepra vulgaris, alphos, and nigricans, have all been so described.

Leprosy. See Lepra.

LEPTUNTICA. (From Aerros, thin.) At tenuating medicines.

LEFTYSMUS. (From Assatos, slender.) Attenuation, or the making a substance less solid.

LEROS. (From Augs, to trifle.) A slight delirum.

LETHARGY. Lethargus. A heavy and constant sleep, with scarce any intervals of waking; when awakened, the person answers, but ignorant or forgetful of what he said, immediately sinks into the same state of sleep. It is considered as an imperfect apoplexy, and is mostly symptomatic.

Lethea. (From ληθη, forgetfulness; so named because it causes forgetfulness.) The name of the poppy.

Lettuce, garden. See Lactuca.

LEUCACANTHA. (From ASUROS, white,

and axavea, a thorn; so named from its white blessom.) The cotton-thistle.

LEICANTHEMUN VULGARE, (From Nevxoc, white, and aronnos, a flower; so called from its white floret.) See Bellis major.

LECCELECTRUM. (From Asunos, White, and exertgor, amber.) White amber.

LEUCO. ACHANUM. (From ASURSS, white, and Auxarov, a herb; so named from its co-

lour.) Wild valerian.

LÉUCOMA. (From Acunoc, white.) Lencoma and albugo are often used synonymously, to denote a white opacity of the cornea. Both of them, according to Scarpa, are essentially different from the nebula of the cornea; for they are not the consequence of chronic ophthalmy, attended with varicose veins, and an effusion of a milky serum into the texture of the delicate continuation of the conjunction over the cornea; but are the result of violent acute opinthalmy. In this state, a dense coagulating lymph is extravasated from the arteries; sometimes superficially, at other times deeply into the substance of the cornea. On other occasions, the disease consists of a firm callous cicatrix on this membrane, the effects of an ulcer, or wound, with loss of substance. The term albugo strictly belongs to the first form of the disease: leucoma to the last, more particularly when the opacity, occupies the whole, or the chief part, of the cornea.

LEUCONYMPHEA. (From ASUROS, white, and rumpaia, the water-lily.) See Nymphica

LEUCOPHAGIUM. (From Neuros, White, and one, to eat.) A medicated white food.

LEUCOPHLEGMATIC. (Leucophlegmasia; from neuros, white, and prepua, phlegm.) A term applied by the older medical writers to a dropsical habit of

LEUCOPIPER. (From Asunos, white, and

TITTELE, pepper.) See Piper nigrum.

LEUCORRŒA. (From Asunoc, white, and pew, to flow.) Fluor albus. The whites. An increased secretion of white mucus from the vagina of women, arising from debility, and not from the venereal virus.

Lercornnois. (From Dauxos, white, and pio, to flow.) A discharge of mucus from

the intestines.

LEVATOR. (From levo, to lift up.) A muscle whose office is to lift up the part to

which it is actached.

LEVATOR ANGULI ORIS. Elevator labicium communis of Douglas. Caninus of Winslow, and Sas maxillo lubial of Dun.as. A muscle si uated above the mouth, which draws the corner of the mouth upwards, and makes that part of the cheek opposite to the clin prominent, as in smaling. It arises than and fleshy from the hotlow of the superior maxillary bone, between the oculi-

reot of the socket of the first grinder and the foramen infra orbitarium, and is inserted into the angle of the mouth and under lip, where it joins with its antagonist.

Levaryr magnus, LEVATOR ANL seu internus of Bouglas. Pubo coccigi annulare of Dumas. This muscle arises from the os pubis, within the peivis, as far up as the upper edge of the foramen thyroideum, and joining of the os pubis with the es ischum, rom the thin tendinous membrane that covers the obturator internus and coccygaus muscles, from the spinons process of the ischium. From these origins all round the inside of the pelvis, its fibres run down like rays from the circumference to a centre, to be inserted into the sphilleter ani, acceleratores urina, and anterior part of the two last bones of the os coccygis, surrounding the extremity of the rectum, neck of the bladder, prostate gland, and part of the vesicula seminales. Its fibres, joining with those of its fellow, form a funnel-shaped hote, that draws the rectum upwards after the evacuation of the faces, and assists in shinting it. The levatores am also sustain the contents of the pelvis, and assist in ejecting the semen, urine, and contents of the rectum, and perhaps, by pressing upon the veins, con-tribute greatly to the erection of the

LEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS. vator menti of Albinus. Incisivus inferior of Winslow. Elevator labii inferioris proprius of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth situated below the lips; it arises from the lower jaw, at the roots of the alveoli of two incisor teeth and the cuspidatus, and is inserted into the under lip and skin of the chin.

LEVATOR LABI SUPERIORIS AL-ÆQUE NASI. Elevator labii superioris proprius of Douglas Incisivus lateralis et Winslow. A muscle of pyramidalis of the mouth and lips, that raises the upper lip towards the orbit, and a little outwards; it serves also to draw the skin of the nose upwards and outwards, by which the nostril is dilated. It arises by two distinct origins; the first, broad and fleshy, from the external part of the orbitar process of the superior maxillary bone, immediately above the ioramen infra orbitarium; the second, from the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone, where it joins the os frontis. The first portion is inserted into the upper hip and orbicularis muscle, the second into the upper lip and outer part of the ala nasi.

LEVATOR LABII SUPERIORIS PRO-PalUS. Musculus incisivus. It arises under the edge of the orbit, and is inserted into the middle of the lip.

LEVATOR OCULI. See Rectus superior

Levator palati LEVATOR PALATI. mollis of Albirus. Petrosalpingo-stablilinus, vel salpingo-staphilinus internus vulgo of Winslow. Salpingo-staphilinus of Valsalva. Pterigo-staphilinus externus vulzo of Douglas. Spheno-staphilinus of Cowper. A Muscle situated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides laterally. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the extremity of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, where it is perforated by the Eustachian tube, and also from the membranous part of the same tube, and is inserted into the whole length of the velum pendulum palati, as far as the root of the uvula, and unites with its fellow. Its use is to draw the velum pendulum palati upwards and backwards, so as to shut the passage from the fauces into the mouth and nose.

LEVATOR PALATI MOLLIS. See Levator palati.

LEVATOR PALPEBRÆ SUPERIORIS. Aperiens palpebrarum rectus. Apertor oculi. A proper muscle of the upper eyelid, that opens the eye, by drawing the eyelid upwards. It arises from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the sphænoid bone, above the rectus superior oculi, near the trochlearis, and is inserted by a broad thin tendon into the cartilage that supports the upper eyelid.

LEVATOR PARVUS. See Transversus pe-

LEVATOR SCAPULÆ. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the neck, that pulls the scapula upwards and a little forwards. This name, which was first given to it by Riolanus, has been adopted by Albinus. Douglas calls it elevator seu musculus patientia; and Winslow; angularis vulgo levator proprius. It is a long muscle, nearly two inches in breadth, and is situated obliquely under the anterior edge of the trapezius. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the transverse processes of the four and sometimes five superior vertebræ colli, by so many distinct slips, which soon unite to form a muscle that runs obliquely downwards an outwards, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the upper angle of the scapula. Its use is to raise the scapula upwards, and a little for-

LEVIGATION. The reduction of hard substances, by triture, to impalpable pow-

LEVISTICUM. (From levo, to assuage; so called from the rehef it gives in painful flatulencies.) Lovage. The odour of this plant, Ligustrum leviscicum of Linnaus: foliis multiplicibus, joliolis suberne incisis, is very strong, and particularly ungrateful; its taste is warm and aromatic. It abounds with a yellowish guniny resinous juice, very much resembling opoponax. Its virtues are supposed to be similar to those of angelica and master-wort, in expelling

flatulences, exciting sweat, and opening obstructions; therefore it is chiefly used in hysterical disorders and atterne obstructions. The leaves, eaten in salad, are accounted emmenagegue. The root, which is less ungrateful than the leaves, is said to possess similar virtues, and may be employed in powder.

LEXIPHARMACA. (From Ana, to terminate, and φαςμακώ, poison ) Medicines which resist or destroy the power of poi-

LEXIPPRETA. (From Aga, to make cease, and mugeros, a fever.) Febrifuge medicines.

LIBADIUM. (From Nica ? w, to make moist; so called because it grows in watery places.) The lesser centaury.

LIBANOTIS. (From Marzs, frankincense so called from its resemblance in smell to

frankincense.) Rosemary.
LIBANUS. (From Libanon, a mountain in Syria, where it grows.) The frankin- -

cense-tree.

LIBOS. (From Ausa, to distil.) A rheum

or defluxion from the eyes.
LIBURNUM. (From Liburnia, the country where it flourished.) The mealy-

Lichanus. (From λειχω, to lick; so call-

ed because it is commonly used in licking up any thing.) The fore-finger.

LICHEN. (AUXIN, or AUXIN, a tetter or ring-worm.) Lichen is, by Dr. Wallen, defined an extensive eruption or papulæ affecting adults, connected with internal disorders, usually terminating in scurf, recurrent, not contagious. The varieties of lichen he considers under the dencininations of Lichen sin plea, Lichen agraus Lichen pilaris, Lichen tividus, and Lichen tropicus.

1. The Licken simplex usually commences with head-ache, flushing of the face, loss of appetite, general langour, and encreased quickness of the pulse. Distinct red papulæ arise first about the cheeks and coin, or on the arras; and, in the course of three or four days, the same appearance takes place on the neck, body, and lower extremities, accompanied with an unpieasant sensation of tingling, which is somewhat aggravated during the night. In about a week the colour of the cruption fade, and the cuticle begins to separate; the whole surface is at tength covered with searly exfoliations, . hich are par icularly large, and continue longest in the fictures of the joints. The duration of the complaint is seldon in any two cases alike; ten, fourteen, seventeen, or sometimes twenty days intervene betwixt the eruption and the renovation of the cuticle. The febrile state. or rather the state of irritation at the beginning of this disorder, is seldom considerable enough to confine the patient to the house. After remaining five or six

days, it is generally relieved on the appearance of the eruption. This, as well as some other species of the lichen, occurs about the beginning of summer, or in autumn, more especially affecting persons of a weak and irritable habit; lience women are more liable to it than men. Lichen simplex is also a frequent sequel of acute diseases, particularly fever and catarrhal inflammation, of which it seems to produce a crisis. In these cases the eruption has been termed, by medical writers, scabies critica. Many instances of it are collected under that title by Sauvages, Nosol. Method. Class x. Order 5. Impetigines.

2. The Lichen agrius is preceded by nausea, pain in the stomach, head-ache, loss of strength, and deep-seated pains in the limbs, with fits of coldness and shivering; which symptoms continue several days, and are sometimes relieved by the papulous eruption. The papulæ are distributed in clusters, or often in large patches, chiefly on the arms, the upper part of the breast, the neck, face, back, and sides of the abdomen; they are of a vivid red colour, and have a redness, or some degree of inflammation, diffused round them to a considerable extent, and attended with itching, heat, and a painful tingling. Dr. Willen has observed, in one or two cases where it was produced from imprudent exposure to cold, that an acute disease ensued, with great quickness of the pulse, heat, thirst, pains of the bowels, frequent vomiting, head-ach, and delirium. After these symptoms had continued ten days, or somewhat longer, the patient recovered, though the eruption did not return. The diffuse redness connecting the papulæ, and the tendency to become pustular, distinguish the lichen agrius from the lichen simplex, and the other varieties of this complaint, in which the inflammation does not extend beyond the basis of the papulæ, and which terminates in scurf, or scales.

3. Lichen pilaris. This is merely a modification of the first species of lichen, and, like it, often alternates with complaints of the head, or stomach, in irritable habits. The peculiarity of the irruption is, that the small tubercles or asperities appear only at the roots of the hairs of the skin, being probably occasioned by an enlargement of their bulbs, or an unusual fulness of the bloodvessels distributed to them. This affection is distinguishable from the cutis anserina, by its permanency, by its red papulæ, and by the troublesome itching or tingling which attends it. If a part thus affected be violently rubbed, some of the papulæ enlarge to the size of wheals, but the tumour soon subsides again. The eruption continues more or less vivid for about ten days, and terminates, as usual, in small

exfoliations of the cuticle, one of which surrounds the base of each hair. This complaint, as likewise the lichen agrus, frequently occurs in persons accustomed to drink largely of spirituous liquors undiluted.

4. Lichen lividus. The papulæ characterizing this eruption are of a dark red, or livid hue, and somewhat more permanent than in the foregoing species of lichen. They appear chiefly on the arms and legs, but sometimes extend to other parts of the body. They are finally succeeded, though at very uncertain periods, by slight exfoliations of the cuticle, after which a fresh eruption is not preceded nor attended by any febrile symptoms. It principally affects persons of a weak constitution, who live on a poor diet, and are engaged in laborious occupations. Young persons, and often children, living in confined situations, or using little exercise, are also subject to the lichen lividus; and in them, the papula are generally intermixed with the petechia, or larger purple spots, resembling vibices. This circumstance points out the affinity of the lichen lividus with the purpura, or land-scurvy, and the connection is further proved by the exciting causes, which are the same in both complaints. The same method of treatment is likewise successful in both cases. They are presently cured by nourishing food, moderate exercise in the open air, along with the use of Peruvian and vitriolic acid, or the tincture of muriated steel.

5. Lichen tropicus. By this term is expressed the prickly heat, a papulous eruption, almost universally affecting Europeans settled in tropical climates. The prickly heat appears without any preceding disorder of the constitution. It consists of numerous papulæ, about the size of a small pin's head, and elevated so as to produce a considerable roughness on the skin. The papulæ are of a vivid red colour, and often exhibit an irregular form, two or three of them being in many places united together; but no redness or inflammation extends to the skin in the interstices of the papulæ.

LICHEN CANINUS. The systematic name of the ash-coloured ground liver-wort. See Lichen cinereus terrestris.

LICHEN CINEREUS TERRESTRIS, Muscus caninus. This cryptogamious plant, called ash-coloured ground liver-wort, and scientifically, Lichen caninus by Linnæus, has a weak, faint smell, and a sharpish taste. It was for a long time highly extolled as a medicine of singular virtue, in preventing and curing that dreadful disorder which is produced by the bite of rabid animals, but now deservedly forgotten. See Pulvis antilyssus.

LICHEN COCCIFERUS. See Muscus pyxi-

datus.

LICHEN ISLANDICUS. The medicinal qualities of the lichen islandicus have lately been so well established at Vienna, that this plant is now admitted into the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. It is extremely mucilaginous, and to taste is bitter, and somewhat astringent. Its bitterness, as well as the purgative quality which its manifest, in its recent state, are in a great measure dissipated on drying, or may be extracted by a slight infusion in water, so that the inhabitants of Iceland convert it into a tolerably grateful and untritive food. An ounce of this lichen, boiled a quarter of an hour in a pint of water, yielded seven ounces of a mucilage as thick as that procured by the solution of one pint of gum-arabic in three of

The medical virtues of this lichen were probably first learned from the Icelanders, who employ it in its fresh state as a laxative; but when deprived of this quality, and properly prepared, we are told that it is an efficacious remedy in consumptions, coughs, dysenteries, and diarrhoas. Scopoli seems to have been the first, who, of late years, called the attention of physicians to this remedy in consumptive disorders: and further instances of its success are related by Herz, Cramer, Tromsdorff, Ebcling, Paulisky, Stoll, and others, who bear testimony of its efficacy in most of the other complaints above-mentioned. Herz says, that since he first used the lichen in dysentery, he found it so successful, that he never had occasion to employ any other remedy; it must be observed, however, that cathartics and emetics were always repeatedly administered before he had recourse to the lichen, to which he also occasionally added opium. Dr. Chrichton informs us, that during seven months residence at Vienna, he had frequent opportunities of seeing the lichen islandicus tried in phthisis pulmonalis at the general hospi-tals, and confesses, "that it by no means answered the expectation he had formed of it." He adds, however, " from what I have scen, I am fully convinced in my own mind that there are only two species of this disease where this sort of lichen promises a cure. The two species I hint at are the plithisis hamoptoica, and the plithisis pituitosa, or mucosa. In several cases of these, I have seen the patients so far get the better of their complaints as to be dismissed the hospital cured, but whether they remained long so or not I cannot take upon me to say." That this lichen strengthens the digestive powers, and proves extremely nutritious, there can be no doubt; but the great medicinal efficacy attributed to it at Vienna will not readily be credited at London. It is commonly given in the form of a decoction; an ounce and a half of the lichen being boiled in a quart of ligaments is to connect the extremities of

milk. Of this a tea-cupful is directed to be drank frequently in the course of the day. If milk disagree with the stomach, a simple decoction of the lichen in water is to be used. Care ought to be taken that it be boiled over a slow fire, and not longer than a quarter of an hour.

The systematic LICHEN PIXIDATUS. See Muscus pyxiname of the cup-moss.

LICHEN PLICATUS. The systematic name of the Muscus arboreus. See Muscus arboreus.

LICHEN PULMONARIUS. The systematic name of the officinal muscus pulmonarius quercinus. See Pulmonaria arborea.

LICHEN ROCCELLA. T'he name of the rocella of the shops. Roccella.

The systematic LICHEN SAXATILIS. name of the museus crani humani.

LIEN. (From Auss, soft, or smooth.) The spleen.

LIEN SINARUM. The faba Ægyptia.

LIENTERIA. (From Assoc, smooth. evregor, the intestine, and pew, to flow.) The Latins call it levitus intestinorum. Lyentery. Dr. Cullen makes it a species of diarrhæa. See Diarrhaa.

LIFE. To live, may be defined the property of acting from an intrinsic power; hence the life of an animal body appears to be three-fold. 1. Its chymical life, which consists in that attraction of the clements, by which the vital principle, diffused through the solids and fluids, defends all the parts of the body from putrefaction. In this sense it may be said, that every atom of our body lives chymically, and that life is destroyed by putrefaction alone. 2. Its physical life, which consists in the irritability of the parts. This physical property remains for some time after death. Thus the heart or intestines, removed from the body whilst still warm, contract themselves on the application of a stimulus. In like manner the serpent, or cel, being cut into pieces, each part moves and palpitates for a long time afterwards. Hence these parts may be said to live *physically*, as long as they continue warm and soft. 3. Its physiological life consists in the action of inorganic parts proper to each, as the action of the heart and vessels; so that, these actions ceasing, the body is said to be physiologically dead. The physiological life ceases first, next the physical, and finally the chymical perishes.

LIGAMENT. (From ligo, to bind.) Li-

gaments are elastic and strong men branes connecting the extremities of the moveable They are divided into capsular, bones. which surround joints like a bag and connecting ligaments. The use of the capsular the moveable boxes, and prevent the efflux of synoria; the external and internal connecting liraments strengthen the extremities or the moveable bones.

A Vable of the principal Ligaments: Ligaments of the lower jaw. The condyles of the lower jaw are connected with the articular smales of the temporal bone by two ligaments, the capsular and lateral ligament.

Ligaments of the occipital bone, and vertebre of the neck. The condyles of the occipital bone are united with the articular depressions of the first vertebræ by the capsular, broad, anterior, and posterior ligaments, the ligaments of the odontoid

process, and ligamentum nuchæ.

Ligaments of the vertebræ. The vertebræ are connected together by means of their bodies and oblique processes. The bodies by a soft cartilaginous substance, and the processes by ligaments, viz. the transverse ligament of the first vertebræ; the anterior and posterior common; the interspinous; the intertransverse; the intervertebral ligements; the capsular ligaments of the oblique processes; and the ligaments of the last vertebræ of the loins with the os sacrum.

Ligaments of the ribs. The posterior extremity of the ribs is united with the vertebræ; the anterior with the sternum. ligaments of the posterior extremity are, the capsular ligaments of the greater and lesser heads; the internal and external ligaments of the neck of the ribs; and a ligament peculiar to the last rib. ligaments of the anterior extremity are, the capsular ligaments of the cartilages of the true ribs, and the ligaments of the ribs

Ligaments of the sternum. The ligaments connecting the three portions of the sternum to the ribs are, the membrana propria of the sternum; and the ligaments of the ensiform

cartilage.

Ligaments of the pelvis. The ligaments which connect the ossa innominata with the os sacrum are, three ligamenta ileo sacra; two sacro-ischiatic lighments; two transverse ligaments of the pelvis; the ligamentum obturans of the foramen ovele, and the ligamentum Poupartii, or inguinale. See Pelvis.

Ligaments of the os coccygis. The basis of the es coccygis is connected to the apex of the os sacrum, by the capsular and lon-

gitudinal ligaments.

Ligaments of the clavicle. The arterior extremity is connected with the sternum and first rib; and the posterior extremity with the acromion of the scapula, by the interclavicular, the capsular ligament, the ligamentum rhomboideum, and in the posterior extremity, the capsular ligament.

Liguments of the scapula. The proper ligaments which connect the scapula with the posterior extremity of the clavicle are. the consi and trapezoil ligaments.

Ligaments of the humerus. of the humerus is connected with the glenoid cavity of the scapula by the capsular

Ligaments of the articulation of the cubit. The elbow-joint is formed by the inferior extremity of the humerus, and superior extrendities of the umar and radius. The ligaments connecting these bones are, the capsular, the brachto-cubitai, and the brachio-radial ligamen's.

Ligaments of the radius. The radius is affixed to the humerus, cubit, and carpus, by peculiar ligaments, namely, the superior, inferior, oblique, and interesseous liga-

Ligaments of the carpus. The ligaments which connect the eight bones of the wrist together, and with the fore-arm and metacarpus, are, the capsular ligament of the carpus; the first and second transverse ligament; the oblique ligaments, and the capsular ligament proper to the bones of the carpus.

Ligaments of the metacarpus. The bones of the metacarpus are in part connected with the second row of bones of the carpus, and in part together, by the articular and

interesseous ligaments.

Ligaments of the fingers. The fingers and phalanges are connected together, and with the metacarpus; and the thumb with the carpus, by the lateral ligaments of the fingers, and garment of the thumb with the os trapezium of the carpus.

Ligaments which keep the tendons of the muscles of the hand in their proper place. The ligaments which keep the tendons of the muscles of the hand in their place, are situated partly on the palm and partly on the back of the hand. In the back of the hand are, the external transverse ligament of the carpus, the vaginal, and the transverse ligaments of the extensor tendons, In the palm of the hand are, the internal transverse ligament of the carpus, the vaginal or crucial ligaments of the flexor tendons of the phalanges, and the accessory ligaments of the flexor tendons.

Ligaments of the articulation of the femur. The head of the os femoris is strongly annexed to the acetabulum of the os innominatum, by two very strong ligaments, the capsular ligament, and ligamentum teres,

or restraining ligament.

Ligaments of the articulation of the knee. The knee-joint is formed by the condyles of the os femoris, head of the tibia and the patella. The ligaments are the capsular, the posterior, the external and the internal lateral ligaments, the crucial and the alar ligaments, the ligaments of the semilunar cartilages, and ligaments of the patella.

Ligaments of the fibula. The fibula is

connected with the tibia by means of the capsular ligament of the superior extremity, the interesseous ligament, and the liga-

ments of the inferior exercitive.

Ligaments of the articulation of the tursus. The inferior extremity of the tibia and fibula forms the cavity into which the astragalus of the tarsus is received. This articulation is effected by the anterior, middle, and posterior ligament of the fibula, the ligamentum tibiæ deltoides, the caspular ligament, and the ligaments proper to the bones of the tashs.

Ligaments of the metatarsus. The bones of the metatarsus are connected in part together, and in part with the tarsns, by means of the capsular ligament, the articular ligaments, the transverse ligaments in the back and sole of the foot, and he interosseous ligaments of the metatarsus.

Ligaments of the toes. The phalanges of the toes are united partly together, and partly with the metatarsus, by the capsular

and lateral ligaments.

Ligaments which retain the tendons of the muscles of the foot in their proper place. These ligaments are found partly in the back, and partly in the sole of the foot. They are the vaginal ligament of the tihia, the transverse or crucial ligaments of the tarsus, the ligaments of the tendon of the peronei muscles, the laciniated liga ent, the vaginal ligament of the extensor muscle and flexor pollicis, the vaginal ligaments of the flexar tendons, the accessory ligaments of the flexor tendons, and the transverse ligaments of the extensor ten-

LIGAMENTUM ANNULARE. The annular ligament. A strong ligament on each

ankle and each wrist.

LIGAMENTUM AUTERIOSUM. The ductus arteriosus of the fœtus becomes a ligament

after birth, which is so called.

LIGAMENTUM CILIARE. Behind the uvea of the human eye there arise, out of the choroid membrane, from the ciliary circle, white complicated strix, covered with a black matter. The fluctuating extremities of these strix are spread abroad even to the crystalline lens, upon which they lie, but are not affixed. Taken together they are called ligamentum ciliare.

LIGAMENTUM DENTICULATUM. A small ligament supporting the spinal

marrow.

LIGAMENTUM FALOPIL The ligamentum rotundum uteri was so called.

LIGAMENTUM INTEROSSEUM. The ligament uniting the radius and ulna, and the tibia and fibula.

LIGAMENTUM LATUM. Broad ligament of the liver and uterus. See Liver, and Uterus.

LIGAMENTUM NUCILE. A strong ligament of the neck, which proceeds from one spinous process to another.

LIGAMENTUM OVARII. The thick round portion of the broad ligament of the uterus, by which the ovarium is connected with the uterus. The ancients supposed this was hollow, to convey the female semen into the uterus.

LIGAMENTUM POUPARTI. pian ligament. Poupart's ligament. ligament extending from the anterior superior spinous process of the ilium to the cris-

ta of the os pubis.

LIGAMENTUM ROTUNDUM, round ligament of the uterus. See Uterus.

LIGATURE (From ligo, to bind.) A thread, or silk, of various thickness, covered with white wax, for the purpose of tying arteries, or veins, or other parts. They should be round and very firm, so as to allow being tied with some force, wit nout

risk of breaking.

The immediate effect of a tight ligature on an artery is to cut through its middle and internal coats, a circumstance that tends very much to promote the adhesion of the opposite sides of the vessel to each other. Hence the form and mole of applying a ligature to an artery should be such, as are most certain of dividing the above coats of the vessel in the most favourable manner. A bread flat ligature does not promise to answer the purpose in the best manner; because it is scarcely possible to tie it smoothly round the artery, which is very likely to be thrown into folds, or to be puckered by it, and consequently to have an aregular bruised wound made in its middle and internal coats. ligature of an irregular form is likely to cut through these coats more completely at some parts than at others; and if it does ant perfectly divide them, no adhesion can take place, and secondary hæmorrhage will follow. A fear of tying the ligature too tight may often lead to the same consequences.

LIGHT. Lux. The nature of light has occupied much of the attention of philosophers, and numerous opinions have been entertained concerning it. It has been sometimes considered as a distinct substance, at other times as a quality sometimes as a cause; frequently as an ef-fect; by some it has been considered as a compound, by others as a simple substance. Philosophers of the present day are not agreed as to the independent existence of light, or the cause by which we

Nature of Light.

Light is that which proceeds from any body producing the sensation of vision. or perception of other bodies, by depicting an image of external objects on the reina of the eye. Hence it announces to animals the presence of the bodies which sur round them, and rables them to distinguish these bodies into transparent, opaque,

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LIGHT. 4.42

and coloured. These properties are so essentially connected with the presence of light, that bodies lose them in the dark, and

become undistinguishable.

Light is regarded by philosophers as a substance consisting of a vast number of exceedingly small particles, which are actually projected from luminous podies, and which probably never return again to the body from which they were emitted.

It is universally expanded through space. It exerts peculiar actions, and is obedient to the laws of attraction, and other properties

of matter.

Explanation of certain terms of Light.

In order to facilitate the doctrine of light, we shall shortly explain a few terms made use of by philosophers when treating of it; namely:

A ray of light is an exceedingly small portion of light as it comes from a luminous

A medium is a body which affords a pas-

sage for the rays of light.

A beam of light is a body of parallel

A pencil of rays is a body of diverging and

converging rays.

Converging rays are rays which tend to a

common point.

Diverging rays are those which come from a point, and continually separate as they proceed.

The rays of light are parallel, when the

lines which they describe are so.

The radiant point is the point from which diverging rays proceed.

The focus is the point to which the converging rays are directed.

Sources of Light.
Light is emitted from the sun, the fixed stars, and other luminous bodies It is produced by percussion, during electrisation, combustion, and in various other chymical processes.

Why the sun and stars are constantly emitting light is a question, which probably will for ever baffle human understanding.

The light emitted during combustion, exists previously, either combined with the combustible body, or with the substance which supports the combustion. The light liberated during chymical action formed a constituent part of the bodies which act on each other.

Chymical Properties of Light.

The chymical effects of light have much engaged the attention of pholosophers. Its influence upon animal, vegetable, and other substances, is as foilows :

Effects of Light on Vegetubles.

Every body knows that most of the discous flowers follow the sun in his course; that they attend him to his evening retreat, and meet his rising lustre in the morning with the same on rring law. It is also well known that the change of position in

the leaves of plants, at different periods of the day, is entirely owing to the agency of light, and that plants which grow in windows, in the inside of houses, are, as it were, solicitous to turn their leaves towards the light. Natural philosophers have long been aware of the influence of light on vesetation. It was first observed that plants growing in the shade, or darkness, are pale and without colour. The term etiolation has been given to this phenomenon, and the plants, in which it takes place, are said to be etiolated, r blanched. Gardeners avail themselves of the knowledge of this fact, to furnish our tables with white and tender vegetables. When the plants have attained a certain height, they compress the leaves, by young hiem together, and by these means (or by laying earth over them) deprive them of the contact of light: and thas it is that our white celery, lettuce, cabbages, endive, &c are obtained. For the same reason, wood is white under the green b rk; roots are less coloured than plants, some of them alter their taste, &c.; they even acquire a deleterious quality when suffered to grow exposed to light. Potatoes are of this kind. Herbs that grow beneath stones, or in places utterly dark, are write, soft, aqueous, and of a mild and insipid taste. The more plants are exposed to the light, the more colour they Though plants are capable of acquire. being nourished exceedingly well in perfect obscurity, and in that state they even grow much more rapidly than in the sun, (provided the air that surrounds them is fit for vegetation,) they are colourless, and unfit for use.

Professor Davy found, by experiment, that red rose-trees, carefully excluded from light, produce roses almost white. He likewise ascertained that this flower owes its colour to light entering into its composition; that pink, orange, and yellow flowers imbibe a smaller portion of light than red ones, and that white flowers

contain no light.

But vegetables are not only indebted to the light for their colour: taste and odour likewise derived from the same source.

Light contribu es greatly to the maturity of fruits and seeds. This seems to be the cause, why, under the burning sun of Africa, vegetables are in general more odoriferous, of a stronger taste, and more abounding with resin. From the same cause it happens, that hot climates seem to be the native countries of perfumes, odoriterous fruits, and aromatic resins.

The action of light is so powerful on the organism of vegetables, as to cause them to pour forth torrents of pure air from the surface of their leaves into the atmosphere, white exposed to the sun; whereas, on the contrary, when in the shade, they emit an air of a noxious quality. Take a few handsful of fresh-gathered leaves of mint, cabbage, or any other plant; place them in a bell glass, filled with fresh water, and invert it i to a basin with the same fluid. If the whole be then exposed to the direct rays of the sun, small ai bubbles will appear on the surface of the leaves, which will gradually grow larger, and at last detach themselves, and b come collected at the surface of the water. This is oxygen gas, formerly called vital air.

All plants do not emit this air with the same facility; there are some which yield it the moment the sun acts upon them, as the jacobox, or rag-wort lavender, peppermint, and some other aromatic plants. The leaves afford more air when attached to the plant than when gathered; the quantity is also greater, the fresher and sounder they are, and if full grown and collected during dry weather. Green plants afford more air than those which are of a yellowish or white colour. Green fruits afford likewise oxygen gas; but it is not so pl ntifully furnished by those which are ripe. Flowers in general render the air noxious. The nasturtium indicum, in the space of a few hours, gives out more air than is equal to the bulk of all its

On the contrary, if a like bell-glass, prepared in the same manner, be kept in the dark, another kind of air will be disengaged, of an opposite quality.

There is not a substance, which, in wellclosed glass vessels, and exposed to the sun's light, does not experience some al-

Camphor kept in glass bottles, exposed to light, chrystallizes, or vegetates, into the most beautiful symetrical figures, on that side of the glass which is exposed to the light.

Yellow wax, exposed to the light, loses its colour, and becomes hleached. Gum gualacum, reduced to powder, becomes green, on exposure to light. Vegetable colours, such as those of saffron, logwood, &c. become pale, or white, &c.

2. Effects of Light on Animals.

The human being is equally dependent on the influence of light.

Animals in general droop when deprived of light, they become unhealthy, and even sometimes die. When a man has been long or fined in a dark dungeon, (though well aired,) his who e complexion becomes sallow; ous ules, filled with aqueous humours, break out on his skin; and the person who has been thus deprived of light becomes languid, and frequently dropsical.

Worms, rubs, and citerpliers, which live in the earth, or in wood, are of a white h colour; modes, and other insects of the night, are likewise distinguishable from those which fly by day by the want of brilliancy in their colour. The difference between those insects, in northern and southern parts, is still more obvious.

LIG

The parts of fish which are exposed to light, as the back, fins, &c. are uniformly coloured, but the belly, which is deprived

of light, is white in all of them.

Birds which inhabit the tropical countries have much brighter plumage than those of the north. Those parts of the birds which are not exposed to the light are uniformly pale. The feathers on the belly of a bird are generally pale, or white; the back, which is exposed to the light, is alm ist always coloured; the breast, which is particularly exposed to light in most birds, is brighter than the belly.

Butterflies, and various other animals of equatorial countries, are hrighter coloured than those of the polar regions. Some of the northern animals are even darker in

summer and paler in winter.

3 Effects of Light on other Substances. Metailic oxyds become combustible when exposed to light. Acids are decomposed by its contact, and various other substances change their nature.

Light carbonated hydrogen. See Carbo-

nated hydrogen, light.

LIGNUM AGALLOCHI VERI. See Lignum aloes.

LIGNUM ALOES, Lignum agallochi veri. Lignum calambac. Lignum aspalathi. Xyto aloes. Agallochum. Calambac. Aloes-wood. The tree whose wood bears this name is not yet scientifically known. It is imported from China in small, compact, ponderous pieces, of a yellow rusty brown colour, with black or purplish veins, and sometimes of a black colour. It has a bitterish resmous taste, and a slight aromatic smell. It is used to fumigate rooms in castern countries,

LIGNUM ASPALATHI. See aloes,

LIGNUM CALAMBAC. See Lignum aloes.

LIGNUM CAMPECHENSE, pecheusis; so called because it was brought from Campeachy, in the bay of Honduras.) Liguum campechianum. Lignum campescanum. Lignum indicum. Lignum sappan, Logwood. The wood of the Hematoxylum campechyanum of Linnæus; it is of a solid texture and of a dark red colour. It is imported principally as a substance for dieing, ou into junks and logs of about three feet in length: of these pieces the largest and luck st are preserved, as being of the deepest colour. Logwood has a sweetish subadstringent taste, and no remarkable smell: it gives a purp ish red tineture both to wat ry and springues ir fusions, and tinges to stands, and sometimes the urine, of the some colour. It is employed medicinally as an adstringent and corroborant.

th diarrhoas it has been found peculiarly efficacious, and has the recommendation of some of the first medical authorities; also in the latter stages of dysentery, when the obstructing causes are removed, to obviate the extreme laxity of the intestines, usually superinduced by the repeated dejections. In the form of decoction the proportion is two ounces to 2 lbs. of fluid, reduced by boiling to one. An extract is ordered in the pharmacopaias. The dose from ten to forty grains.

LIGNUM INDICUM. See Guaiacum.

LIGNUM MOLUCCENSE. See Lignum pa-

LIGNUM NEPHRITICUM. Nephritic wood. The wood of the Guilandini moringu; inermits foliis sub-bipinnatis, foliis inferioribus ternatis of Linnæus, which also affords the nux bean. It is brought from America in large, compact, ponderous pieces, without knots, the outer part of a whitish or pale yellowish colour, the inner of a dark brown, or red. When rasped, it gives out a faint aromatic smell. It is never used medicinally in this country, but stands high in reputation abroad, against difficulties of making urine, nephritic complaints, and most disorders of the kidneys and urinary passages.

LIGNUM PAVANE. Lignum pavanum.
Lignum moluccense. The wood of the Croton tiglium; foliis ovatis glabris acuminatis serratis, caule arboreo of Linnæus, which affords the grana tiglii. It is of a light spongy texture, white within, but covered with a greyish bark; and possesses a pungent, caustic taste, and a disagreeable smell. It is said to be useful as a purga-

tive in hydropical complaints.

LIGNUM RHODIUM. See Rhodium lig-

LIGNUM SANCTUM. See Guniacum.

LIGNUM SANTALI RUBRI. See Santalium rubrim.

LIGNUM SAPPAN. See Lignum campechense.

LIGNUM SERPENTUM. The wood of the Ophyoxilum serpentinum of Linnaus. It is said to be an alexipharmic.

LIGUSTICUM LEVISTICUM. The systematic ame of lovage. See Levisticum.

LIGUSTRUM. (From ligo, to bind; so hamed from its use in making bands.) 1. The same of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the herb

privet.

LILIAGO. (Dim. of lilium, the lily; so named from the resemblance of its flower to that of a lily.) Liliastrum. Spiderwort; formerly said to be alexipharmic and carminitive.

LILIUM. (From hose, smooth, graceful; so named from the beauty of its leaf.)

The name of a genus of plants in the Linnau system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Monogynia. The bly.

LITUM ALRUM The white lily, The roots of the common white lily, Lilium candidum of Linnaus:—foliis sparsis, co-rollis campanulatis, intus glabris, are directed by the Edinburgh pharmacopaia; they are extremely mucilaginous, and chiefly used boiled in milk and water, in emollient and suppurating cataplasms, to inflammatory tuniours. These lily-roots afford a good substitute, in times of scarcity, for bread. The distilled water has been sometimes used as a cosmetic.

LILIUM CANDIDUM. The systematic name of the white lily. See Lilium album.

LILIUM CONVALLIUM. Convallaria. Maianthemum. Convallaria maialis. Lily of the valley. May-lily. The flowers of this plant, Convallaria majalis, scapo nudo of Linnauts, have a penetrating bitter taste, and are given in nervous and catarrhal disorders. When dried and powdered they prove strongly purgative. Watery or spirituous extracts made from them, given in doses of a scruple, or drachm, act as gentle stimulating aperients and laxatives, and seem to partake of the purgative virtue as well as the bitterness of aloes. The roots, in the form of tincture, or infusion, act as a sternutatory when snuffed up the nose, and as a laxative or purgative when taken internally.

Lily, May. See Lilium convallium. Lily, white. See Lilium album.

Lily, water. See Nymphæa alba and Nymphæa lutea.

Lily of the valley. See Lilium conval-

LIMATURA FERRI. Steel filings are considered as possessing stimulating and strengthening qualities, and are exhibited in worm cases, ataxia, leucorrhœa, diarrhœa, chlorosis, &c.

LIMAX (From himus, slime; so named from its sliminess.) Cochlea terrestris. The snail. This animal abounds with a viscid slimy juice, which is readily given out, by boiling, to milk or water, so as to render them thick and glutinous. These decoctions are apparently very nutritious and demulcent, and are recommended in consumptive cases

and emaciations.

LIME. Calx. An earth found in great abundance in nature, though never pure, or in an uncombined state. It is always united to an acid, and very frequently to the carbonic acid, as in chalk, common lime-stone, marble, calcareous spar, &c. It is contained in the waters of the ocean; it is found in vegetables; and is the ba-is of the bones, shells, and other hard parts of animals. Its combination with sulphuric acid is known by the name of sulphate of lime (gypsun, or plaster of Paris.) Com-

bined with fluoric acid it constitutes fluate

of lime, or Derbyshire spar.

Properties.-Lime is in solid masses, of a white colour, moderately hard, but easily reducible to powder. Its taste is bitter, urinous, and burning. It changes blue cabbage juice to a green. It is unalterable by the heat of our furnaces. It splits and falls into powder in the air and loses its strong taste. It is augmented in weight and in size by slowly absorbing water from the atmosphere. Its specific gravity is It combines with phosphorus by heat. It unites to sulphur both in the dry and humid way. It absorbs sulphurated hydrogen gas. It unites with some of the metallic oxyds. Its slaking by water is attended with heat, hissing, splitting, and swelling up, while the water is partly consolidated and partly converted into vapour; and the lime is reduced into a very voluminous dry powder, when it has been sprinkled with only a small quantity of water. It is soluble when well prepared in 300 parts of It unites to acids. It renders silex and alumine fusible, and more particularly these two earths together.

Method of obtaining Line.—Since the carbonic acid may be separated from the native carbonate of lime, this becomes a means of exhibiting the lime in a state of tolerable purity. For this purpose introduce into a porcelam or earthen retort, or rather into a tube of green glass, well coated over with lute, and placed across a furnace, some powdered Carara marble, or oyster-shell powder. Adapt to its lower extremity a bent tube of glass, conveyed under a bell. If we then heat the tube, we obtain carbonic acid gas; and hme will be found remaining in the tube, or retort.

The burning of lime in the large way, depends on the disengagement of the carbonic acid by heat; and, as lime is infirsible in our furnaces, there would be no danger from too violent a heat, if the native carbonate of lime were perfectly pure; but as this is seldom the case, an extreme degree of heat produces a commencement of vitrification in the mixt stone, and enables it to preserve its solidity, and it no longer retains the qualities of lime, for it is covered with a sort of crust, which prevents the absorption of the water when it is attempted to be slaked. This is called over-burnt lime.

In order to obtain lime in a state of great purity, the following method may be had

recourse to.

Take Carara marble, or oyster-shells ; reduce them to powder, and dissolve the powder in pure acetous acid; precipitate the solution by carbonate of ammonia. Let the precipitate subside, wash it repeatedly in distilled water, let it dry, and then expose it to a white heat for some hours.

The acetous acid, in this operation, unites to the lime, and forms acetite of lime, disengaging at the same time the carbonic acid, which flies off in the gazeous state: on adding to the acetite of lime carbonate of ammonia, acetite of aminonia and an artificial carbonate of lime are formed; from the latter the carbonic acid is again expelled, by exposure to heat, and the lime is behind, in a state of perfect purity.

Lime tree. See Tilia.

Lime-water. See Liquor calcis. LIMES. A fruit like a small lemon, the juice of which is a very strong acid, and very much used in the making of punch. Externally, the same acid is applied in the cutaneous affections of warm climates, and also as a remedy against the pains that precede the appearance

LIMON. (Hebrew.) Limonia mala. Malus limonia acida. Citrea malus. Citrus. The lemon. The tree which affords this fruit is the Citrus medica of Linnaus :petiolis linearibus: a native of the upper part of Asia, but cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France. The juice, which is much more acid than that of the orange, possesses similar virtues. It is always preferred where a strong vegetable acid is required. Saturated with the fixed vegetable alkali, it forms the citrat of potash, which is in frequent extemporaneous use in febrile diseases, and by promoting the secretions, especially that of the skin, proves of considerable service in abating the violence of fever. This medicine is also often employed to restrain vomiting. As an antiscorbntic, the citric acid is also very generally taken on board ships destined for long voyages; but even when well depurated of its mucilaginous parts, it is found to spoil by long keeping. To preserve it in purity for a considerable length of time, it is necessary that it should be brought to a highly concentrated state, and for this purpose it has been recommended to expose the juice to a degree of cold sufficient to congeal the aqueous and mucilaginous parts. After a crust of ice is formed, the juice is poured into another vessel; and, by repeating this process several times, the remaining juice, it is said, has been concentrated to eight times its original strength, and kept, without suffering any material change, for several years. Whytt found the juice of lemons to allay hysterical palpitations of the heart, after various other medicines had been experienced ineffectual; and this juice, or that of oranges, taken to the quantity of four or six ounces in a day, has sometimes been found a remedy in the jaundice. The exterior rind of the lemon is a very grateful, aromatic bitter, not so hot as orange-peal, and yielding in distillation a

less quantity of oil, which is extremely the hereditary? Marshal of Hesse addlight, almost colourless, and generally ed. brought from the southern parts of Europe, under the name of Essence of Lemons. The lemon-peel, though less warm, is similar in its qualities to that of the orange, and is employed with the same in-The Pharmacopæias direct a syrup of the juice, syrupus limonis, and the peel enters into vinous and aqueous bitter infusions; it is also ordered to be candied; and the essential oil is an ingredient in the spiritus ammoniæ compositus, and other for-

LIMONIUM. (From Aupwr, a green field; so called from its colour.) Sea-lavender.

Astringent.

LIMONIUM. (From Auman, a green-field; so called from the colour of its unripe fruit ) The lemon-tree, or citrus medica.

LINAGROSTIS. (From Atyon, cotton, and αγεωτις, grass; so called from the softness of its texture.) Cotton grass.

LINANGINA. (From linum, flax, and ango, to strangle; so called, because it it grows among flax or hemp, it twists round it, and

chokes it.) The herb dodder.

(From linum, flax, named LINARIA. from the resemblance of its leaves to those of flax.) Osyris. Urinaria. Common toadflax. Antirrhinum linaria of Linnæu: :foliis lanceolato linearibus confertis, caule erecto, spicis terminalibus sessilibus, floribus, imbricatis. A parennial indigenous plant, common in barren pastures, hedges, and the sides of roads, flowering from July to to September. The leaves have a bitterish and somewhat saline taste, and, when rubbed between the fingers, have a faint smell, resembling that of elder. They are said to be diuretic and cathartic, and in both characters to act powerfully, especially in the first; hence the name urinalis. They have been recommended in dropsies, and other disorders requiring powerful evacu-The linaria has also been used as a resolvent in jaundice, and such diseases as were supposed to arise from visceral But the plant has been obstructions. chiefly valued for its effects when externally applied, especially in hæmorrhoidal affections, for which both the leaves and flowers have been employed in various forms of ointment, fomentation, and poultice. Dr. Wolph first invented an ointment of this plant for the piles. The Landgrave of Hesse, to whom he was physician, constantly interrogated him, to discover its composition; but Wolph obstinately refused, till the price promised to give him a fat ox annually for the discovery: hence, to the following verse, which was made to distinguish the linarian from the escula, viz.

"Escula lactescit, sine lacte linaria crescit,

" Esula nil nobis, sed dat linaria taurum." LINCTUS. (From lingo, to lick.) Lohoc. Eclegma. Elexis. Elegma. Eclec. tos. Ecleitos. Illinetus. Loch and lambative. A term in pharmacy, that is generally applied to a soft and somewhat oily substance, of the consistence of honcy. which is licked off the spoon, it being too solid and adhesive to be taken otherwise.

LINEA ALBA. (From linum, a thread, and album, white: so called from its appearance and colour.) Linea centralis. An aponeurosis that extends from the scrobiculus cordis straight down to the navel, and from thence to the pubis. It is formed by the tendinous fibres of the internal oblique ascending and the external oblique descending muscles, and the transversalis, interlaced with those of the opposite side.

LINEÆ SEVILUNARES. The lines which bound the outer margin of the recti muscles, formed by the union of the abdomi-

nal tendons.

LINEE TRANSVERSÆ. Lines which cross the recti muscles.

LINGUA. (From lingo, to lick up. The tongue. See Tongue.

LINGUA AVIS. The seeds of the Fraxinus, or ash, are so called, from their supposed resemblance to a bird's tongue.

LINGUA CANINA. So called from the resemblance of its leaves to a dog's tongue. See Cynoglossum.

LINGUA CERVINA. See Scolopendrium.

LINGUALIS. (Lingualis, sc. musculns; from lingua, a tongue.) Basio-glossus of Cowper. A muscle of the tongue. It arises from the root of the tongue laterally, and runs forward between the hyo-glossus and genio-glossus, to be inserted into the tip of the tongue, along with part of the stylo-glossus. Its use is to contract the substance of the tongue, and to bring it backwards.

LINIMENT. (Linimentum; from lino, to anoint.) An oily substance, of a mediate consistence between an ointment and

oil, but so thin as to drop.

The following are some of the most approved forms.

LINIMENTUM ERUGINIS. Liniment of verdigris, formerly called oxymel æruginis, mel Ægyptiacum, and unguentum Ægyptiacum. "Take of verdigris, powdered, an ounce; vinegar, seven fluid ounces; clarified honey, fourteen ounces." Dissolve the verdigris in the vinegar, and strain it through a linen cloth; having added the honey gradually, boil it down to a proper consistence.

LINIMENTUM AMMONIÆ CARBONATIS. Linimentum of carbonat of ammonia, formerly called linimentum ammonia and linimentum volatile. "Take of solution of subcarbonate of ammonia, a finid-ounce; olive oil, three finid-ounces." Shake them together until they unite. A samulating linament, mostly used to relieve rheumatic pains, bruises, and paralytic numbness.

LINIMENTUM AMMONIA FOUTIUS. Strong lininent of ammonia. "Take of solution of animonia, a fluid-ounce; olive oil, two of inid-ounces." Shake them together until they unite. A more powerful stimulating application than the former, acting as a rubefacient. In pleurodyma, indolent tumours, stiffness of the joints, and arthritic pains, it is to be preferred to the milder one.

LINIMENTUM AQUE CALCIS. Linament of lime-water. "Take of lime-water, olive-oil, of each eight onnees; rectified spirit of wine, one ounce." Mix. This has been long in use as an application to burns and scalds.

LINIMENTUM CAMPHORE. Camphor liniment. "Take of camphor, half an ounce. Olive oil, two fluid-ounces." Dissolve the camphor in the oil.

LIMIMENTUM CAMPHORE COMPOSITUM. Compound camplor limment. "Take of camphor, two ounces; solution of ammonia, six fluid-ounces; spirit of lavender, a pint." Mix the solution of ammonia with the spirit in a glass retort; then, by the heat of a slow fire, distil a pint. Lastly, in this distilled liquor, dissolve the eamphor. An elegant and useful stimulant application in paralytic, spasmodic, and rheumatic diseases. Also for bruisgs, sprains, rigidities of the joints, incipient chilbrains, &c &c.

LINIMENTUM HYDRARGYRI COMPOSITUM. Compound mercurial liminent. " Take of strong mercurial ointment, prepared lard, of each four poulds; camphor, an ounce; rectified spirit, fif een minims; solution of ammonia, four fluid-ounces." First powder the camphor, with the addition of the spirit, then rub it with the mercurial ointment and the lard; lastly, add gradually the solution of ammonia, and nux the whole together. An excellent formula for all surpical cases, in which the object is to quicken the action of the absorbents, and gen ly stimulate the surfaces of parts. It is a useful application for diminishing the indurated state of particular muscles, a pecular affection every now and then met with in practice; and it is peculiarly well calculated for tessening the stiffness and chronic thickening often noticed in the joints. If it be frequenly or largely applied, it affects the mouth more rapidly than the mercurial ointment.

LINIMENTUM OPIATUM. A resolvent anodyne embrocation, adapted to remove indolent tumours of the joints, and those weaknesses which remain after strains and chilblains before they break.

LINIMENTUM SAPONIS COMPOSITUM. Compound soap liniment. Linimentum saponis.

"Take of hard's ap, three ounces; camphor, an ounce; spirit of rosenary, a pint." Dissolve the camphor in the spirit, then add the soap, and macerate in the heat of a sand-bath, until it be melted. The basis of this form was first proposed by Riverius, and it is now commonly used under the name of opodeldoc. This is a more pleasant preparation, to rub parts affected with rheumatic pains, swellings of the joints, &c. than any of the foregoing, and at the same time not inferior, except where a rubifacient is required.

LINIMENTUM SAPONIS CUM OPIO. Soap liniment, with opium. "Take of compound soap liniment, six ounces; tincture of opium, two ounces." Mix. For dispersing induracions and swellings, attended with pain, but no acute inflammation.

LINIMENTUM TEREBINTHINE. Turpentine lin.ment "Take of resin of cerate, a pound; oil of turpentine, half a pint." Add the oil of turpentine to the cerate, previously melted, and mix. This liniment is very commonly applied to burns, and was first introduced by Mr. Kentish, of Newcastle.

LINIMENTUM TERREINTHINE VITRIOLICUM. Virriolis limiment of turpentine. "Take of olive oil, ten ounces; oil of turpentine, four ounces; vitriohe acid, three drachms." Mix. This preparation is said to be efficacious in chronic affections of the joints, and in the removal of long existing effects of sprains and bruises.

Liniment of ammonia. See Linimentum ammonia.

Liniment of camphor. See Linimentum camphore.

Liniment of mercury. See Linimentum hydrargyri.

Liniment of verdigris. See Linimentum aruginis.

Limment of turpentine. See Linimentum terebinthing.

LINNÆA. (So named in honour of Linnæus.) The name of a genus or plants in the Lionæan system. Class, *Didynamia*. Orser, *Angiospermia*.

LINNEA BOREALIS. The systematic name of the plant named in honour of the importal Lunguis, which has a bitter subastringent taste, and is used in some places in the form of fomentation to rheumatic pains, and an iniusion with mirk is much esteemed in Switzerland in the cure of sciatica.

Threspendum. (From λυου, flax, and 5πεμα, end) Linseed.

in eed. The runt of the flax plant,

or from, is rouch used in medicine. Its quadries are muchlaginaus and only. It is lubricating and emollient. It is employed

in decoction, or infusion, in heat of urine, &c. in the form of clyster, in tenesmus, in cataplasm, in quincy, and other complaints. The proportion of the seeds in the decoction are, an ounce to a pound of water. See Linum.

Lint. See Linteum.

LINTEUM. Lint. A soft woolly substance, made by the scraping of old linen cloth, and employed in surgery as the common dressing in all cases of wounds and ulcers, either simply or covered with different unctuous substances.

LINUM. (From Assoc,, soft, smooth; so called from its soft, smooth, texture.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria.

der, Pentagynia.

2. The pharmacopæia name of the common flax. Linum sylvestre. Linum usitatissimum of Linnans :- calycibus capsulisque mucronatis, petalis crenatis, foliis lanceolatis alternis, caule subsolitario. The seeds of this useful plant, called linseed, have an unctuous, mucilaginous, sweetish taste, but no remarkable smell; on expression they yield a large quantity of oil, which, when carefully drawn, without the application of heat, has no particular taste or flavour: boiled in water, they yield a large proportion of a strong flavourless mucilage, which is in use as an emollient or demulcent in coughs, hoarsenesses, and pleuritic symptoms, that frequently prevail in catarrhall affections; and it is likewise recommended in nephritic pains and stranguries. The meal of the seeds is also much used, externally, in emollient and ma-turating cataplasms. The expressed oil is an officinal preparation, and is supposed to be of a more healing and balsamic nature than the other oils of this class: it has, therefore, been very generally employed in pulmonary complaints, and in colics and constipations of the bowels. The cake which remains after the expression of the oil contains the farinacious part of the seed, and is used in fattening cattle, under the name of oil cake.

LINUM CATHARTICUM. Linum minimum. Chamælium. Purging flax, or mill-mountain. This small plant, Linum catharticum, foliis oppositis ovato-lunceolatis, caule dichotomo corollis acutis of Linnæus, is an effectual and safe cathartic. It has a bitterish and disagreeable taste. A handful infused in half a pint of boiling water is the dose for an dault.

The systema-LINUM USITATISSIMUM. tic name of the common flax. See Li-

LIPARIS. (From NITGE, fat; so named from its unctuous quality.) See Pingui-

LIPAROCELE. (From Autos, fat, and инди, a tumour.) That species of sarco-

cele in which the substance constituting the disease is fat.

LIPOMA. (From Airos, fat.) A solitary, soft, unequal, indolent tumour, arising from a luxuriancy of adeps in the cellular membrane. The adipose structure forming the tumour is sometimes diseased towards its centre, and more fluid than the rest. At other times it does not appear to differ in any respect from adipose membrane, except in the enlargement of the cells containing the fat. These tumours are always many years before they arrive at any size.

LIPOPSYCHIA. (From AUTW, to leave, and

Juxn, the soul, or life.) A swoon.

LIPOTHYMIA. (From λυπω, to leave, and  $\theta \nu \mu \sigma s$ , the mind.) Deliquium animi et animæ. Defectio animi; dissolutio. Syncope. Asphyxia. Vi-Exanimatio. rium lapsus. The greatest degree is called Apsychia. Ecchysis. Faint-Apopsychia. Dr. Cullen makes it a genus of disease in the class Neuroses, order Adynamiæ, which he defines the motion of the heart diminished, or at rest for some time. He distinguishes it into three species. Sec Syncope.

LIPPITUDO. (From lippus, blear-eyed.) Epiphora. Yerophthalmia. Blearedness. An exudation of a puriform humour from the margin of the eye-lids. The proximate cause is a deposition of acrimony on the glandulæ meibomianæ in the margin of the eye-lids. This humour in the night glues the tarsi of the eye-lids together. The margins of the eye-lids are red and tumefy are irritated, and excite pain. An ophthalmia, fistula lachrymalis, and sometimes an ectropium, are the consequences. The species of the lippitude are,

1. Lippitudo infantum, which is familiar to children, particularly of an acrimoni-The lippitudo of infants is ous liabit. mostly accompanied with tinea, or some scabby eruption, which points out that the disease originates, not from a local, but general or constitutional, affection.

2. Lippitudo adultorum or senilis. This arises from various acrimonies, and is like.

wise common to hard drinkers.

scorbutic.

3. Lippitudo venerea, which arises from a suppressed gonorrhæa, or fluor albus, and is likewise observed in children born of parents with venereal complaints.

4. Lippitudo scrophulosa, which accom-

panies other scrophulous symptoms. 5. Lippitudo scorbutica, which affects the

LIPYRIA. (From AUTW, to leave, and rug, heat.) A sort of fever, where the heat is drawn to the inward parts, while the external are cold.

LQIUIDAMBER. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system.

The LIQUIDAMBER STYRACIFLUA.

systematic name of the tree which affords both the liquid-amber and liquid storax.

See Liquidambra,

LIQUIDAMBRA. (From liquidus and amber.) Styrax liquida. Liquidamba. Liquid amber. A resmous juice, of a yellow colour, inclining to red, at first about the consistence of turpentine, by age hardened into a solid brittle mass. It is ob ained by wounding the bark of the Liquidamber styraciflua; foliis palmato angulatis; foliis indivisis, acutis, of Linnaus. This juice has a moderately pungent, warm balsamic taste, and a very fragrant smell, not unlike that of the Siyrax calamita heightened by a little ambergris. It is seldom used medicinally. The Styrax liquida is also obtained by boiling from this plant. There are two sorts distinguished by authors; the one, the purer part of the resinous matter, that rises to the surface in boiling, separated by a strainer, of the consistence of lioney, tenacious like turpentine, of a reddish or ash-brown colour, moderately transparent, of an acrid unctuous taste, and a fragrant smell, faintly resembling that of the solid storax, but somewhat disagreeable. The other, the more impure part which remains on the strainer, untransparent, and in smell and taste much weaker than the former. Their use is chiefly as stomachics, in the form of plaster.

LIQUILITIA. (From liquor, juice, or from

elikoris, Welsh.) See Glycyrrhiza.

LIQUOR ATHEREUS VITRIOLICUS. liquor procured from a distillation of equal parts of sulphuric acid and spirit of wine redistilled.

LIQUOR ACETATIS AMMONIÆ. of acetate of ammonia; formerly called Aqua ammonia acetata. "Take of carbonate of ammonia, two ounces; acetic acid, four pints." Add the acid to the salt, until bubbles of gas shall no longer arise, and

If the acid rather predominate, the solution is more grateful to the taste; and provided that acid be correctly prepared, the proportions here given will be found sufficient; where the acid cannot be depended on, it will be right to be regulated rather by the cessation of effervescence

than by quantity.

This preparation was formerly known in the shops under the name of spirit of Minderus. When assisted by a warm regimen, it proves an excellent and powerful sudorific; and, as it operates quickening the circulation, or increasing the heat of the body, it is admissible in febrile and inflammatory diseases, in which the use of stimulating sudorifics are attended with danger. Its action may likewise be determined to the kidneys, by walking about in the cool air. The common dose is half an ounce, either by itself

or along with other medicines, adapted to the same intention.

LIQUOR ACETATIS PLUMBI. Solution of acetate of lead, formerly called aqua lithargyri acetati. Goulard's extract. "Take of vitrified oxyd of lead, two pounds and four ounces; acetic acid, a gallon." Mix, and boil down to six pints, constantly stirring; then set it by, that the feculencies may subside, and strain.

It is principally employed by surgeons, as a resolvent against inflammatory affec-

tions.

LIQUOR ACETATIS PLUMBI DILUTUS. luted solution of acetate of lead. Aqua lithargyri acetati composita. "Take of solution of acetate of lead, a drachm; distilled wa er, a pint; weak spirit, a fluid drachm." Mix. The virtues of this water, the aqua vegeto-mineralis of former pliarmacopaias, applied externally, are resolvent, refrigerant, and sedative.

LIQUOR ALUMINIS COMPOSITUS. pound solution of alum. "Take of alum, sulphate of zinc, of each half an ounce; boiling water, two pints." Dissolve at the same time the alum and sulphate of zinc in the water, and then strain the solution through

paper.

This water was long known in our sliops under the title of aqua aluminosa bateanas. It is used for cleansing and healing ulcers \*\* and wounds, and for removing cutaneous cruptions, the part being bathed with it hot three or four times a-day. It is sometimes likewise employed as a collyrium; and as an injection in fluor albus and gonorrhea, when not accompanied with virulence.

LIQUOR AMMONIE. Solution of ammonia. Aqua ammonia pure of the London Pharm. 'Take of muriate of ammonia, lime, newly prepared, of each two pounds; water, a pint and a half." Reduce the muriate of ammonia and the lime into powder, separately; then mix them, and introduce them into a large glass retort, into which a pint of the water has been previously poured. Having placed the retort in a sand-bath. lute on a tubulated receiver, through which the ammonia may pass into a third vessel. containing half a pint of the water, and cooled. Then at first apply a gentle heat; and increase it by degrees, until the retort becomes red

Water of ammonia is very rarely given internally, although it may be used in doses of ten or twenty drops, largely diluted, as a powerful stimulant in aspinyxia and similar diseases. Externally, it is applied to the skin as a rube "cient, and in the form of gas to the nostrils, and to the eyes as a stimulant; in cases of torpor, paralysis, rheumatism, syncope, hysteria, and chronic ophthalmia.

LIQUOR CARBON TIS AMMONIE. tion of carbonate of aminonia. The aqua

ammoniæ of the Pharm. Lond. 1787. "Take of carbonate of ammonia, eight ounces; distilled water, a pint." Dissolve the subcarbonate of ammonia in the water, and filter the solution through paper. This preparation possesses the properties of ammonia in its action on the human body. See Carbonas ammonie.

Carbonas ammoniæ. LIQUOR AMNII. All that fluid which is contained in the membranac-ous ovum surrounding the fœtus in utero is called by the general name of the waters, the water of the amnien, or ovum, or liquor amnii. The quantity, in proportion to the size of the different parts of the ovum, is greatest by far in early pregnancy. At the time of par-turition in some cases, it amounts to or exceeds four pints; and in others it is scarcely equal to as many ounces. It is usually in the largest quantity when the child has been some time dead, or is born in a weakly state. This fluid is generally transparent, often milky, and sometimes of a yellow, or light brown colour, and very different in consistence; and these alterations seem to depend upon the state of the constitution of the parent. It does not coagulate with he t, like the serum of the blood; and, chymically examined, it is found to be composed of phlegm, earthy matter, and sea salt, in different proportions in different subjects, by which the varieties in its appearance and consistence are produced. It has been supposed to be excrementitious; but it is generally thought to be secreted from the internal surface of the ovum, and to be circulatory, as in other cavities. was formerly imagined, that the fœtus was nourished by this fluid, of which it was said to swal.ow some part frequently; and it was then asserted, that the qualities of the fluid were adapted for its nourishments. But there have been many examples of children born without any passage to the stomach; and a few, of children in which the head was wanting, and which have nevertheless arrived at the full size. cases fully prove that this opinion is not just, and that there must be some other medium by which the child is nourished, besides the waters. The incontrovertible uses of this fluid are, to serve the purpose of affording a soft bed for the residence of the fœtus, to which it allows free motion, and prevents any external injury during pregnancy: and inclosed in the membranes, it procures the most gentle, yet officacious, dilatation of the os uteri, and soft parts, at the time of parturition. Instances have been recorded, in which the waters of the ovum are said to have been voided so early as in the sixth month of pregnancy, without pr. ju 'ice either to the child or parent. The truth of these reports seem to be doubtful, because, when the membranes are intentionally broken, the action of the

uterus never fails to come on, when all the water is evacuated. A few cases have occurred to me, says Dr. Denman, in practice, which might have been construed to be of this kind; for there was a daily discharge of some colourless fluid from the vagina, for several months before delivery; but there being no diminution of the size of the abdomen, and the waters being regularly discharged at the time of labour, it was judged that some lymphatic vessel near the os uteri had been ruptured, and did not close again till the patient was de livered. He also met with one case, in which, after the expulsion of the placenta, there was no sanguineous discharge, but a profusion of lymph, to the quantity of several pints in a few hours after delivery; but the patient suffered no inconvenience, except from surprise.

LIQUOR ANTIMONII TARTANIZATI. Solution of tartarized antimony. Vinum antimonii tartarizati of the Pharm. Lond. 1787. "Take of the tartarized antimony, one scruple; boiling distilled water, four fluid-ounces; wine six fluid-ounces." Dissolve the tartarized antimony in the boiling distilled water, then add the wine. Half an ounce of the solution contains one grain of the salt. This preparation may be given in all cases where the tartar emetic is indi-

cated.

LIQUOR ARSENICALIS. Arsenical solution. "Take of prepared oxyd of arsenic, in very fine powder, subcarbonate of potash from tartar, of each 64 grains; distilled water a pint." Boil them together in a glass vessel, until the arsenic be entirely dissolved. When the solution is cold, add "compound spirit of lavender, four fluid-drachms." Then add as much distilled water as may exactly fill a pint measure. This preparation accords with the formula of Dr. Fowler, of Stafford, who first introduced it in imitation of a celebrated popular remedy for intermittents, sold under the name of the tasteless ague-drop. The compound spirit of lavender is only intended to give some colour and taste, without which it would resemble common water, and hence be more liable to mistakes. Where the dose is small, and the effects so powerful, the most minute attention to its proportion and preparation become necessary. Each ounce contains four grains of the oxyd, and each drachm one-eighth of a grain; but it will rarely be proper to go beyond half the latter quantity, or one-sixteenth of a grain as a dose.

Liquon calcis. Solution of lime, formerly called aqua calcis. Lime-water. "Take of lime, half a pound; boiling distilled water, twelve pirts." Pour the water upon the lime, and stir them together; next cover the vessel immediately, and let it stand for three hours; then keep

the solution upon the remaining lime in stopped glass bottles, and pour off the clear liquor when it is wanted for use.

Lime is soluble in about 450 times its weight of water, or little more than one grain in one fluid-ounce. It is given internally, in doses of two ounces and upwards, in cardialgia, spasms, diarrhea, &c. and in proportionate doses in convulsions of children, arising from acidity, or ulcerated intestines, intermittent fevers, &c. Externally it is applied to burns and ulcers.

LIQUOI CUPRT AMMONIATI. Solution of animoniated copper. Aqua cupri ammoniated Pharm. Lond. 1787, and formerly calied aqua sapharina. "Take of ammoniated copper, a drachm; distilled water, a pint." Dissolve the ammoniated copper in the water, and filter the solution through paper. This preparation is employed by surgeons for cleansing foul uleers, and disposing them to heal.

Liquor Feinh Alkalini. Solition of alkaline iron, "Take of iron, two drachms and a half; nitric acid, two fluid-ounces; distilled water, six fluid-ounces; solution of carbonate of potash, six fluid-ounces."

Having mixed the acid and water, pour them upon the iron, and when the effervescence has ceased, pour off the clear acid solution; add this gradually, and at intervals, to the solution of subcarbonate of potash, occasionally shaking it, until it has assumed a deep brown red colour, and no further effervescence takes place. Lastly, set it by for six hours, and pour off the clear solution. This preparation was first described by Stahl, and called tinctura martis alkalina, and is now introduced in the Lond. Pharm, as affording a combination of iron distinct from any other, and often applicable to practice. The dose is from half a draehm to a drachm.

Liquor oxymuniates hyprargyri. Solution of oxymuniate of mercury. "Take of oxymuniate of mercury, eight grains; distilled water, fifteen fluid-ounces; rectified spirit, a fluid-ounce." Dissolve the oxymuniate of mercury in the water, and add the spirit.

This solution is directed in order to facilitate the administration of divisions of the grain of this active medicine. Half an ounce of it contains one-cighth of a grain of the salt. The dose is from one drachm to half an ounce.

LIQUOR MINEBALIS ANODYNUS HOFF-MANNI Hoffman's anodyne liquor. A preparation of other extolled as an anodyne and antispasmodie. See Spiritus atheris compositi.

Liquor forassæ. Solution of potash, Aqua kali puri. Livivium sapouarium. "Take of subcarbonate of potash, lime, newly prepared, of each a pound. Boiling distilled water, a gallon" Dissolve

the potash in two pints of the water; add the remaining water to the lime. Mix the liquors while they are hot, stir them together, then set the mixture by in a covered vessel; and after it has cooled, strain the solution through a cotton bag

If any diluted acid dropped into the solution occasion the extrication of bubbles of gas, it will be necessary to add more lime, and to strain it again. A pint of this solution ought to weigh sixteen ounces.

LIQUOR SUBCARBONATIS POTASSE. Solution of subcarbonate of potash. Aqua kalipreparati. Lixivium tartari. Oleum tartari per deliquium. "Take of subcarbonate of potash, a pound; distilled water, twelve fluid-ounces." Dissolve the subcarbonate of potash in the water, and then strain the solution through paper.

It possesses antacid virtues, and is a good antidote against arsenic taken into the stomach. It is also given with advantage in convulsions and spasms, from acidity in the stomach of children, in calculous diseases, gouty affections, serophula, aphthæ, &c. The carbonate of soda is milder, and perhaps a preferable remedy for general use. The dose of the liquor potassæ subcarbonatis is from kalf a draehm to a drachm and a half.

LIQUON VOLATILIS CORNU CERVI. This preparation of the valatile alkali, commonly termed hartshorn, possesses the same virtues as the carbonate of ammonia. It is in common use to smell at in faintings, &c. Sce Carbonas ummoniae.

Liquorice. See Glycyrrhiza.
Liquorice, Spanish. See Glycyrrhiza.
Littagoga. (From λθος, a stone, and

αγω, to bring away) Medicines which expel the stone.

Litharge. See Lithargyrus.

Litharge plaster. See Emplastrum li

thargyri.

LITHARGURUS. (From 1,100c, a stone, and agyoges, silver.) Lithargyrum. A subcarbonate of lead, in an imperfect state of vitrification. When silver is refined by cupellation with lead, this latter metal, which is scorified, and causes the scorification of the imperfect metals alloyed with the silver, is transformed into a matter composed of small semitransparent shining plates, resembling mica; which is litharge. Litharge is more or less white or red, according to the metals with which the silver is alloyed. The white is called litharge of silver; and the red has been improperly called litharge of gold. See Lead, Liquor plumbi acetatis, and Liquor plumbi acetatis dibutus.

LITHIAS. A lithiate, or salt, formed by the union of the lithic acid, or acid of the stone sometimes found in the human bladder, with different bases; thus, lithiate of alumine, lithiate of ammonia, &c.

LIT LITHIASIS. (From Ailos, a stone.) The formation of stone, or gravel.

2. A tumour of the eyelid, under which is a hard concretion resembling a stone.

LITHOBALUM. (From Ailos, a stone, and λαμβανω, to seize.) An instrument for extracting the stone from the bladder.

LITHOIDES. (From Aidos, a stone, and exoc, a likeness; so called from its hardness.) The petrous portion of the temporal

LITHOLOGY. (Lithologia; from \u03b1θος, a stone, and λογος, a discourse.) A discourse or treatise on stones.

LITHOMARGA. Stone marle. Fuller's earth is one of the most useful varieties of

lithomarge.

LITHONTRIPTICS. (Lithontriptica, sc. medicamenta; from xibos, a stone, and θουπτω, to break.) From the strict sense and common acceptation of the word, this class of medicine should comprehend such as possess a power of dissolving calculi inthe urinary passages. It is, however, doubted by many, whether there be in nature any such substances. By this term, then, is meant those substances which possess a power of removing a disposition in the body to the formation of The researches of modern chycalculi mists have proved, that these calculi consist mostly of a peculiar acid, named the lithic or uric acid. With this substance the alka-lies are capable of uniting, and forming a soluble compound; and these are accordingly the sole lithontriptics. From the exhibition of alkaline remedies, the symptoms arising from stone in the bladder are very generally alleviated; and they can be given to such an extent that the urine becomes very sensibly alkaline, and is even capable of exerting a solvent power on these concretions. Their administration, however, cannot be continued to this extent for any length of time, from the irritation they produce on the stomach and urinary organs. The use, therefore, of the alkalies, as solvents, or lithrontriptics, is now scarce. ly ever attempted; they are employed merely to prevent the increase of the concretion, and to palliate the painful symptoms, which they do apparently by preventing the generation of lithic acid, or the separation of it by the kidneys; the urine is thus rendered less irritating, and the surface of the calculus is allowed to become smooth.

When the alkalies are employed with this view, they are generally given saturated, or supersaturated, with carbonic acid. This renders them much less irritating. It at the same time, indeed, diminishes its solvent power; for the alkaline carbonates exert no action on urinary calculi; but they are still capable of correcting that acility in the primæ viæ, which is the cause

the urine, and therefore serve equally to palliate the disease. And when their acrimony is thus diminished, their use can be continued for any length of time.

It appears from the experiments of Fourcroy, and others, that the other ingredients of calculi, as well as the lithic acid, are dissolved by the caustic alkali, and various experiments have shewn that most calculi yield to its power. Lime-water has also been found a solvent of urinary calculi, out of the body. It is obvious, however, that what is taken by the mouth is subject to many changes in the alimentary canal, and also the lymphatic and vascular systems; and in this way, it must be exceedingly difficult to get such substances (even were they not liable to alterations) in sufficient quantity into the bladder. Indeed there are very few authent cated cases of the urine being so changed as to become a menstruum for the stone. Excepting the case of Dr. Newcombe, recorded by Dr. Whytt, the instance of Mr. Home is almost the only one. Though lithoutriptics, however, may not in general dissolve the stone in the bladder, yet it is an incontrovertible fact that they frequently mitigate the pain; and, to lessen such torture as that of the stone in the bladder, is surely an object of no little importance. Lime was long ago known as a solvent of urinary calculi, and different methods were employed to administer it. One of these plans fell into the hands of a Mrs. Steevens, and her success caused great anxiety for the discovery of the secret. At last, Parliament bought the secret for the sum of 5000l. In many instances, stones which had been unquestionably felt were no longer to be discovered; and as the same persons were examined by the greatest skill and eminence, both before and after the exhibition of her medicines, it was no wonder fthat the conclusion was drawn, that the stones really were dissolved. From the cessation of such success, and from its now being known that the stones are occasionally protruded between the fasciculi of the muscular fibres of the bladder, so to be lodged in a kind of cyst on the outside of the muscular coat, and cause no longer any grievances, surgeons of the present day are inclined to suspect that this must have happened in Mrs. Steevens's cases. This was certainly what happened in one of the cases on whom the medicine had been tried. It is evident that a stone so situated would not any longer produce irritation, but would also be quite indiscoverable by the sound, for, in fact, it is no longer in the cavity of the bladder.

As soap was, with reason, supposed to increase the virtues of the lime, it led to the use of caustic alkali, taken in mucilage, of the deposition of the lithic acid from or yeal broth. Take of kali, prepared, Zviij; of quick lime Ziv; of distilled water, Ibij. Mix them well together in a large bottle, and let them stand for wenty four hours. Then pour off the ley, filter it through paper, and keep it in well-stoppped vials for use. Of this, the dose is from thirty drops to Zij, which is to be repeated two or three times a-day, in a pint of veal broth, early in the morning, at noon, and in the evening. Continue this plan for three or four mouths, living, during the course, on such things as least counteract the effect of the medicine.

The common fixed alkalis, or carbonated alkali, and the acidulous soda-water, have of late been used as lithontriptics. Honey has also been given, and Mr. Home, surgeon at the Savoy, has recorded its utility in his own and his father's cases. Bitters

have likewise been tried.

Dismissing all theories, lime-water, soap, acidulous soda-water, caustic alkali, and bitters, are useful in cases of stone. Of the soap, as much may be taken as the stomach will bear, or as much as will prove gently laxative; but of the lime-water, few can

take more than a pint daily.

The acidulous soda-water may be taken in larger quantities, as it is more agreeable. The acidulous salt is now prepared so as to produce the water extemporaneously. It must be swallowed, however, while the salt is dissolving, as the carbonic acid very rapidly escapes.

There is a remedy celebrated in Holland, under the name of liquor lithontriptica loosii, which contains, according to an accurate analysis, calx muriata. This, professor Hufeland recommends in the follow-

ing form:

B Calcis muriatæ 3j.
Aquæ distillatæ, 3jj, ft. solutio.
Thirty drops are to be taken four times a-day, which may be increased as far as the stomach will bear.

For curing stone patients, little reliance can be placed in any lithontriptics hitherto discovered, though they may rationally be given with a confident hope of procuring an alleviation of the fits of pains attending the presence of stone in the bladder. After all, the only certain method of getting rid of the calculus is the operation. See Lithotomy.

LITHOSPERMUM. (From Ailos, a stone, and origina, seed; named from the hardness of its seed.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of Milium solis. Common gromwell. The seeds of this officinal plant, Lithospermum officinale; seminibus levibus, corollis vix calycem superantibus, foliis lanceolatis, of Linnaus, were formerly supposed, from their stony hard. ness, to be efficacious in calculous and gra-

velly disorders. Little credit is given to their lithontriptic character, yet they are occasionally used as diuretic for clearing the urinary passages, and for obviating strangury, in the form of emulsion.

LITHOSPERMUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the officinal gromwell. See

Lithospermum.

LITHOTOMY. (Lithotomia; from Aibas, a stone, and remyw, to cut.) Cystomia. The operation of cutting into the bladder. in order to extract a stone. Several methods have been recommended for performing this operation, but there are only two which can be practised with any propriety. One is, where the operation is to be per-formed immediately above the pubes, in that part of the bladder which is not covered with peritoneum, called the high operation. The other, where it is done in the perinæum, by laying open the neck and lateral part of the bladder, so as to allow of the extraction of the stone, called the lateral operation, from the prostate gland of the neck of the bladder being laterally cut.

LITRON. (Corruptly written for vilgov.)

Nitre.

LITUS. (From lino, to anoint.) A liniment.

LIVER. naag. Hepar. A large viscus, of a deep red colour. of great size and weight, situated under the diaphragm, in the right hypochondrium, its smaller portion occupying part of the epigastric region. In the human body, the liver is divided into two principal lobes, the right of which is by far the largest. They are divided on the upper side by a broad ligament, and on the other side by a considerable depression, or fossa. Between and below these two lobes is a smaller lobe, called lobulus Spigellii. In describing this viscus, it is necessary to attend to seven principal circumstances:-its ligaments; its surfaces; its margins; its tubercles; its fissure; its sinus; and the pori biliari.

The ligaments of the liver are five in number, all arising from the peritoneum. 1. The right lateral ligament, which connects the thick right lobe with the posterior part of the displiragm. 2. The left lateral ligament, which connects the convex surface and margin of the left lobe with the diaphragm, and, in those of whom the liver is very large, with the esophagus and spleen. 3. The broad or middle supensory ligament, which passes from the diaphragm into the convex surface, and separates the right lobe of the liver from the left. It descends from above through the large fissure to the concave surface, and is then distributed over the whole liver. 4. The round ligament, which in adults consists of the umbilical vein, indurated into a ligament. . 5. The coronary ligament.

The liver has two surfaces, one superior,

which is convex and smooth, and one inferior, which is concave and has holes and depressions, to receive, not only the contiguous viscera, but the vessels running into the liver.

The margins of the liver are also two in number; the one, which is posterior and superior, is obtuse; the other, situated an-

teriorty and inferiorly, is acute.

The tubercles of the liver are likewise two in number, yiz. lobulus anonymus, and lobulus caudatus, and are found near the yena por! a.

Upon looking on the concave surface of this viscus, a considerable fissure is obvious, known by the name of the fissure of

the liver.

In order to expose the sinus, it is necessary to remove the gall-bladder, when a considerable sinus, before occupied by the

gall-bladder, will be apparent.

The blood-vessels of the liver are the hepatic artery, the vena portæ, and the cavæ hepatica, which are described under their proper names. The absorbents of the liver are very numerous. The liver has nerves from the great intercostal and eighth pair, which arise from the hepatic plexus, and proceed along with the hepatic artery and vena portæ into the substance of the liver. With regard to the substance of the liver, various opinions have been entertained. It is, however, now pretty well ascertained to be a large gland, composed of lesser glands connected together by cellular structure. The small glands which thus compose the substance of the liver are termed penicilli, from the arrangement of the arterial ramifications of the vena portæ composing each gland, resembling that of the hairs of a pencil. The chief use of this large viscus is to supply a floid, named bile, to the intestines, which is of the utmost importance in chylification. small penicilli perform this function by a specific action on the blood they contain, by which they secrete in their very minute ends the fluid termed hepatic bile; but whether they pour it into what is called a follicle, or not, is yet undecided, and is the cause of the difference of opinion respecting the substance of the liver. be secreted into a follicle, the substance is truly glandular, according to the notion of the older anatomists; but if it be secreted merely into a small vessel, called a biliary pore (whose existence can be demonstrated, corresponding to the end of each penicilli, without any intervening follicle, its substance is then, in their opinion, vascular. According to our notions in the present day, in either case, the liver is said to be glandular; for we connect to our senses the idea of a gland, when any arrangement of vessels performs the office of separating from the blood a fluid or substance different in its nature from the blood. The small vessels which receive the bile secreted by the penicilli are called pori biliarit; these converge together throughout the substance of the liver towards its under surface, and, at length, form one trunk, called ductus hepaticus, which conveys the bile into either the ductus communis choledochus, or ductus cysticus. See Gall-bludder.

Liver, acute inflammation of the. Sce

Hepatitis

Liver of sulphur. See Sulphurets. Liver wort See Hypatica terrestris. Liver wort, ash-coloured. See Lichen ci-

nereus terrestris.

Liver wort, ground. See Lichen cinereus terrestris.

Liver-wort, Iceland. See Lichen islandi-

cus.

Liver-wort, noble. See Hepatica terres-

LIVOR. (From liveo, to be black and blue.) A blackish mark on the body, from a blow. A dark circle under the eye.

Lix. (From Ass, light.) Pot-ash. Wood

ash.

LIXIVIA VITRIOLATA SULPHUREA. A sul-

phat of potash.

LIXIVIAL. Those salts are called lixivial which have been extracted by lixiviation, and these chiefly are fixed alkalis; which are therefore called lixivial salts.

LIXIVIATION. Lessive. The process employed by chymists of dissolving, by means of warm water, the saline and soluble particles of cinders, the residues of distillation and combustion, coals and neutral earths, in order to obtain those particles which are termed lixivial salts.

LIXIVIUM. (From lix, wood-ash.) The liquor in which saline and soluble particles of the residues of distillation and combus-

tion are dissolved.

LIXIVIUM SAPONARIUM. See Liquor po-

LIXIVIUM TARTARI. See Liquor carbonatis potassæ.

LOBELIA. Named in honour of Lobel, a botanist. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia

Order, Monogamia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the blue lobelia, or cardinal flower. The root of this plant, Lobelia syphilitica, is the part directed by the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia for medicinal use; in taste it resembles tobacco, and is apt to excite vomiting. It derived the name of syphilitica from its efficacy in the cure of syphilis, as experienced by the North American Indians, who considered it as a specific in that disease, and with whom it was long an important secret, which was purchased by Sir William Johnson, and since published by

different anthors. The method of em- eight genera, viz. dysmsthesim, dysoremia, ploying this medicine is stated as follows: A decoction is made of a handful of the roots in three measures of water. this half a measure is taken in the morning fasting, and repeated in the evening; and the dose is gradually increased, till its purgative effects become too violent, when the decoction is to be intermitted for a day or two, and then renewed, until a perfect cure is effected. During the use of this medicine, a proper regimen is to be enjoined, and the ulcers are also to be frequently washed with the decoction, or, if deep and foul, to be sprinkled with the powder of the inner bark of the New Jersey tea-tree, Ceanothus Americanus. Although the plant thus used is said to cure the disease in a very short time, yet it is not found that the antisyphilitic powers of the lobelia have been confirmed in any instance of European practice.

LOBELIA SYPHILITICA. The sytematic name of the blue lobelia of the pharmaco-

pæias. See Lobelia.

LOBULUS. (Dim. of lobus, a lobe.) A small lobe.

LOBULUS ACCESSORIUS. See Lobulus anonymus.

LOBULUS ANONYMUS. Lobulus ac-The antecessorius anterior-quadratus. rior point of the right lobe of the liver. Others define it to be that space of the great lobe betwixt the fossa of the umbilical vein and gall-bladder, and extending forward from the fossa for the lodgment of the portæ, to the anterior margin of the liver.

LOBULUS CAUDATUS. Processus caudatus. A tail-like process of the liver, stretching downward from the middle of the great right lobe to the lobulus spigelii. It is behind the gall bladder and betwixt the fossa venæ portarum, and the fissure for the lodgment of the vena cava.

LOBULUS SPIGELH. Lobulus posterior. L. posticus papellatus. The lobulus spigehi is betwixt the two greater lobes, but rather belonging to the right great lobe. From its situation deep behind, and from its having a perpendicular papilla-like projection, it is called lobulus posterior, or pa-pillatus. To the left side, it has the fissure for the lodgment of the ductus venosus; on with the lower concave surface of the great lobe, by the processus caudatus, which of transversalis cervicis. the lesser curve of the stomach.

dyscinesia, apocenoses, epischeses, tumores, ectopia, and dialyses

LON

Localis membrana. The pia mater.

(From λοχευω, to bring LOCHIA, forth.) The cleansings. The serous, and for the most part green-coloured, discharge that takes place from the uterus and vagina of women, during the first four days after delivery.

LOCHIORRHŒA. (From λοχια, and ρεω, to flow.) An excessive discharge of

the lochia.

Locked jaw. See Tetanus.

Logwood. See Lignum campechense.

LOCALTIS. (From 2072%, a line; so named because the leaves resemble the head of a lance.) The herb spleenwort.

LOGANUM (From langus, long; so

named from its length.) The intestinum

Longing. A disease peculiar to the female, and only during pregnancy, and those states in which the uterine discharge

is suppressed.

LONGISSIMUS DORSI. Lumbo dorso trachalien of Dumas. This muscle, which is somewhat thicker than the sacrolumbalis, greatly resembles it, however, in its shape and extent, and arises, in common with that muscle, between it and the spine. It ascends upwards along the spine, and is inserted by small double tendons into the posterior and inferior part of all the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the back, and sometimes of the last vertebra of the neck. From its outside it sends off several bundles of fleshy fibres, interspersed with a few tendinous filaments, which are usually inserted into the lower edge of the ten uppermist ribs, not far from their tubercles. In some subjects, however, they are found inserted into a less number, and in others, though more rarely, into every one of the ribs. To-wards the upper part of this muscle is observed a broad and thin portion of fleshy fibres, which cross and intimately adhere to the fibres of the longissimus dursi. This portion arises from the upper and posterior part of the transverse processes of the five or six uppermost vertebræ of the back, by as many tendinous origins, and is usually inserted, by six tendinous the right, the fissure for the vena cava; and fleshy slips, into the transverse pro-and above, it has the great transverse fis-sure of the liver, for the lodgment of the neck. This portion is described by Winscylinder of the porta; obliquely to the low and Albinus as a distinct muscle; by right, and upwards, it has a connection the former under the name of transversalis major colli, and by the latter under that But its fibres Winslow calls one of the roots of the lobulus are so intimately connected with those of spigelin. It is received into the bosom of the longissimus dorsi, that it may very properly be considered as an appendage LOCALES. The fourth class of Cul- to the latter. The use of this muscle is to len's Nosology, which comprehends mor- extend the vertebra of the back, and to bid affections that are partial, and includes keep the trunk of the body erect; by

means of its appendage, it likewise serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side.

Longissimus manus. The flexor tertii internodii pollicis.

Longissimus oculi. The obliquus ma-

jor oculi.

LONGITUDINAL SINUS. Longitudinal sinus of the dura mater. A triangular canal, proceeding in the falciform process of the dura mater, immediately under the bones of the skull, from the crista tgalli to the tentorium, where it branches into the lateral sinuses. The longitudinal sinus has a number of trabeculæ or fibres crossing it. Its use is to receive the blood from the veins of the pia mater, and convey it into the lateral sinuses, to be carried through the internal

jugulars to the heart.

LONGUS COLLI. Pre dorso cervical of Dumas. This is a pretty considerable muscle, situated close to the anterior and lateral part of the vertebræ of the neck. Its outer edge is in part covered by the rectus internus major. It arises tendinous and fleshy within the thorax, from the bodies of the three superior vertebræ of the back, laterally; from the bottom and fore-part of the transverse processes of the first and second vertebræ of the back, and of the last vertebra of the neck : and likewise from the upper and anterior points of the transverse processes of the sixth, fifth, fourth, and third vertebræ of the neck, by as many small distinct tendons; and is inserted tendinous into the fore-part of the second vertebra of the neck, near its fellow. This muscle, when it acts singly, moves the neck to one side; but, when both act, the neck is brought directly forwards.

LONICERA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

LONICERA DIERVILLA. The systematic name of a species of honey-suckle. See

Diervilla.

LONICERA PERICLIMENUM. Honey-suckle. This beautiful and common plant was formerly used in the cure of astlma, for cleansing fordid ulcers, and removing diseases of the skin, virtues it does not now appear to possess.

Looseness. Sec Diarrhaa.

LOPEX HADIX, Radix lopeziana. Radix indica lopeziana. The root of an unknown tree growing, according to some, at Goa. It is met with in pieces of different thickness, some at least of two inches diameter. The woody part is whitish, and very light; softer, more spongy, and whiter next the bark, including a denser, somewhat reddish, medullary part. The bark is rough, wrinkled, brown, soft, and, as it were, woolly, pretty thick, covered with a thin paler cuticle. Neither the woody nor corticle part has any remarkable smell.

or taste, nor any appearance of resinous matter. It appears that this medicine has been remarkably effectual in stopping colliquative diarrhœas, which had resisted the usual remedies. Those attending the last stage of consumptions were particularly relieved by its use. It seemed to act, not by an astringent power, but by a faculty of restraining and appeasing spasmodic and inordinate motions of the intestines. Dr. Gaubius, who gives this account, comparis its action to that of fimarouba, but thinks it more efficacious than this medicine.

Lopez-root. See Lopez radix.

LOPEZIANA RADIX. See Lopez radix. LOPHADIA. (From Σφος, the hinder part of the neck.) Lophia. The first vertebra of the neck.

LORDOSIS. (From ? hopgos, curved, bent.)
An affection of the spine, in which it is bent

inwards.

A kind of lute, with which vessels are coated before they are put into the fire

LORICATION. Coating. Nicholson recommends the following composition for the coating of glass vessels, to prevent their breaking when exposed to heat. Take of sand and clay, equal parts; make them into a thin paste with fresh blood, prevented from coagulating by agitation, till it is cold, and diluted with water; add to this some hair, and powdered glass; with a brush, dipped in this mixture, besmear the glass; and when this layer is dry, let the same operation be repeated twice, or oftener, till the coat applied is about one-third part of an inch in thickness.

LORIND MATRICIS. An epilepsy, or a convulsive disorder, proceeding from the uterus.

Loss of Appetite. See Anorexia.

LOTION. (Lotio; from lavo, to wash.) An external fluid application. Lotions are usually applied by wetting linen in them, and keeping it on the part affected.

LOTUS. (From λω, to desire.) 1. A tree whose fruit was said to be so delicions as to make those who tasted it to forsake all other desires: hence the proverb Λωτον εφαχον, lotum gustavi: I have tasted lotus.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Diadelphia. Or-

der, Decandria.

Lousy disease. A general corruption of the humours, in consequence of which these insects are bred in ulcers, and cover the whole body.

LOVE-APPLE. The fruit of the Solanum lycopersicum of Linnæus. It is so much esteemed by the Portuguese and the Spaniards, that it is an ingredient in almost all their soups and sauces, and is deemed cooling and nutritive.

Lovenge. See Levisticum.

LOXARTHROS. (From λοξος, oblique, and αξθεον, a joint.) An obliquity of the joint, without spasm or luxation.

I waxen vein,

called also ludus paracelsi. A stony matter said to be serviceable in calculus.

LULS HEIFICA. One of the pompous names for epilepsy.

LUES NEUHODES CONVULSIVA. A mild typhus fever.

LUES VENEREA. (From )va, to dissolve, because it produces dissolution; and venerea, from Venus, because it is propagated by acts of venery.) The plague of Venus, or the venereal disease. Dr. Cullen calls it syphilis. It has also been called the venereal pestilence, or pax. Approdusius morbus. Morbus gallicus. Indicus morbus. Neapolatanas morbus. Patursa. See Syphilis and Gonorrhaa

LUJULA. (Corrupted or contracted from Allelujah, Praise the Lord; so called from its many virtues.) Acetosella, Wood-Oxalis acetosella of Linnaus. This delicate indigenous plant is totally inodorous, but has a grateful acid taste, which is more agreeable than the common sorrel, and approaches near to that of the juice of lemons, or the acid of tartar, with which it also corresponds in a great measure in its medical effects, being estcemed refrigerant, antiscorbutic, and diuretic. Its principal use, however, is to allay inordinate heat, and to quench thirst; for this purpose a pleasant whey may be formed by boiling the plant in milk. An essential salt is prepared from this plant, known by the name of Essential Salt of Lemons, and commonly used for taking ink-stains out of

LUMBAGO. (From lumbus, the loin.) A rheumatic affection of the muscles about the loins.

LUMBAGO PSOADICA. Lumbago apostematosa. Lumbago ab arthrocace. Pains in the loins from abscess,

LUMBARES ARTERIÆ. The lumbal arteries.

LUMBARES NERVI. The lumbal nerves. LUMBARES VENÆ. The lumbal nerves.

LUMBARIS EXTERNUS. See Quadratus lumborum.

LUMBARIS INTERNUS. See Psoas magnus.

LUMBAR ABSCESS. Psoas abscess. A species of arthropussis, that receives its name from the situation in which matter is found, namely, upon the side of the psoas muscle, or betwixt that and the iliacus internus. Between these muscles, there lies a quantity of loose cellular membrane, in which an inflammation often takes place, either spontaneously or from mechanical injuries. This terminates in an abscess that can procure no outlet but by a circuitous course, in which it generally produces 'irreparable mischief, without any violent symptoms occurring to alarm the patient. The abscess sometimes forms a swelling above Poupart's ligament; sometimes below it; and frequently the

matter glides under the fascia of the thigh. Oceasionally, it makes us way through the sacro-ischia ic foramen, and assumes rather the appearance of a fistula in ano. The uneasiness in the loins, and the impulse communicated to the tumour by coughing, evince that the disease arises in the lumbar region; but it must be conselsed, that we can hardly ever know the existence of the disorder, before the tumour, by presenting itself externally, leads us to such information. The lumbar abscess is sometimes connected with diseased vertebra, which, may either be a cause or effect of the collection of matter. The disease, however, is frequently unattended with this compli-

The situation of the symptoms of lumbar abscess renders this affection liable to be mistaken for some others, viz. lumbago and nephritic pains, and, towards its termination, for crural or femoral herma. The first, however, is not attended with the shivering that occurs here; and nephritic complaints are generally discoverable by attention to the state of the urine. The distinction from crural herma is more difficult. In both, a soft inclastic swelling is felt in the same situation, but in hernia, it is attended with obstructed faces, vomitting, &c. and its appearance is aiways sudden, while the lumbar tumour is preceded by various complaints before its appearance in the thigh. In a horizontal posture, the abseess also totally disappears, while the hernia does not.

Lumbar region. The loins.

LUMBRICALES MANUS. (Lumbri. cales, sc. musculus; from their resemblance to the lumbricus, or earth-worm.) Fidicinales. Flexor primi internodni digitorum manus vel perforatus lumbricales of Cowper. Anuli tendino phalangiens of Dumas. The four small fingers of the flexors of the fingers, which assist the bending of the fingers when the long flexers are in full action. They arise thin and Beshy from the outside of the tendons of the flexor profundus, a little above the lower edge of the carpal ligaments, and are inserted by long slender tendons into the outer sides of the broad tendons of the interesseal muscles, about the middle of the first joint of the fingers.

LUMBRICALES PEDIS. Planti tendino phalangien of Dumas Four ma cles like the former, that increase the flexion of the toes, and draw them inwards.

LUMBRRUS (à lubricitate; from its sipperiness.) Ascaris lumbricoides. Lumbricoides. Lumbricoides. The long round worm. A species of worm which inhabits occasionally the human intestines. It has three nipples at its head, and a triangulgr mouth in its middle. Its length is from four to twelve inches, and its thickness when twelve inches long, about that of a goose-quill. They are some-

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times solitary, at other times very nume-

LUMBRICUS TERRESTRIS. See Earthworm.

LUMBUS VENERIS. See Millefolium.

LUNA. (So named from its resemblance in brightness to silver.) The old alchemistical name of silver.

Lunar caustic. See Nitras argenti.

LUNARE OS. One of the bones of the

LUNATICA ISCHURIA. (From luna, the moon.) A suppression of urine which re-It is noticed by Sauturns monthly.

vages, LUNG. Pulmo. The lungs are two viscera situated in the chest, by means of which we breathe. The lung, in the right cavity of the chest, is divided into three lobes, that in the left cavity into two. They hang in the chest, attached at their superior part to the neck, by means of the trachea, and are separated by the mediastinum, They are also attached to the heart, by means of the pulmonary vessels. The substance of the lungs is of four kinds, viz, vesicular, vascular, brouchial, and a parenchymatous substance. The vesicular substance is composed of the air-cells. The vascular invests those cells like a net-work. The bronchial is throughout the lungs, having the air cells at their extremities: and the spongy substance that connects the spaces between these parts is termed the parenchyma. The lungs are covered with a fine membrane, a reflexion of the pleura, called pleura pulmonalis. The internal surface of the aircells is covered with a very fine, delicate, and sensible membrane, which is continued from the larynx through the trachea and bronchia. The arteries of the lungs are the pulmonary, which circulate the blood through the air-cells to undergo a certain change, and the bronchial artery, a branch of the aorta, which carries blood to the lungs for their nourishment. The pulmonary veins return the blood that has undergone this change, by four trunks, into the left aur le of the lieart. The bronchial veins terminate in the vena azygos. The nerves of the lungs are from the eighth pair and great intercostal. The absorbents are of two orders; the superficial and deep-seated: the former are more readily detected than the latter. The glands of these viscera are called bronchial. They are muciparous, and situated about the bronchia. See Respiration.

Lung-wort, spotted. See Pulmonaria ma-

LUPIA. (From Nursew, to molest.) A genus of disease, including encysted tumours, whose contents are very thick, and sometimes solid, as meliceris, atheroma, steatoma, and ganglion.

LUPINUS. (From Aumn, grief, or dislike;

so called from its extreme bitterness.) Under this term the white lupin is directed in some pharmacopæias. The seed, the ordinary food of mankind in the days of Galen and Pliny, is now forgotten. Its farinaceous and bitter meal is occasionally exhibited to remove worms from the intestines, and made into poultices to resolve indolent tumours.

LUPINUS ALBUS. The systematic name of

the white hupin. See Lupinus.
LUPULUS. (From humn, dislike; so named from its bitterness.) Convolvulus perennis. The hop. It is the floral leaf or bractea of this plant, Humulus lupulus of Linnaus, that is dried and used in various kinds of strong beer. Hops have a bitter taste, less ungrateful than most of the other strong bitters, accompanied with some degree of warmth and aromatic bitter, and are highly intoxicating. The hopflower also exhales a considerable quantity of its narcotic power in drying; hence those who sleep in the hop-houses are with difficulty roused from their slumber. A pillar stuffed with these flowers is said to have laid our present monarch to sleep when other remedies had failed.

LUPUS. The wolf, so named from its rapacity. The cancer is also so called, because it eats away the flesh like a wolf.

LUSTRAGO. (From lustro, to expiate; so called because it was used in the ancient purifications.) Flat or base vervain.

Lute. See Lutum.

LUTEA CORPORA. See Corpora lutea.

LUTEOLA. (From lutum, mud, because it grows in muddy places, or is the colour of mud.) Struthium. Dyer's weed. Dioscorides recommends it as useful in jaundice, but it is now neglected.

LUTUM. (From Nuros, soluble.) Camentum. Mud. Lute. A composition with which chymical vessels are covered, to preserve them from the violence of the fire, and to close exactly their joinings to each other, to retain the substances which they contain when they are volatile and reduced to vapour.

LUXATION. (Luxatura; from luxo, to put out of joint.) A dislocation of a bone

from its proper cavity.

LYCHANCHE. (From AUROS, a wolf, and αγχω, to strangle. A species of quincy, in which the patient makes a noise like the howling of a wolf.

LYCHANTHROPIA. (From AUROS, a wolf, and ανθεωπος, a man.) A species of insanity, in which the patients leave their houses in the night, and wander about like wolves, in unfrequented places.

LYCHINIS. (From AUXHOS, a torch; because the ancients used its leaves rolled up for torches.) A name of several vegetable productions.

LYCOCTONUM. (From AUROS, a wolf, and arara, to slay; so called because it was

the custom of hunters to secrete it in raw flesh, for the purpose of destroying wolves.)

LYCOPERDON. (From AUROS, a wolf, and weeds, to break wind; so named because it was supposed to spring from the dung of wolves.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class,

Cryptogamia. Order, Fungi. 2. The pharmacopoial name of the puff-Crepitus lupi. A round or egg shaped fungus, the Lycoperdon bovista of Linuxus, when fresh, of a white colour, with a very short, or scarcely any pedicle, growing in dry pasture grounds. When young, it is sometimes covered with tubercles on the outside, and is pulpy within. By age it becomes smooth externally, and dries in-ternally, into a very fine, light, brownish dust, which is used by the common people

LYCOPERDON NOVISTA. The systematic name of the puff-ball. See Lycoperdon.

to stop hæmorrhages.

LYCOPERDON TUBER. The systematic name of the truffle. See Truffle.

LYCOPERSICUM. (From AUXOS, a wolf, and regricov, a peach; so called from its exciting a violent degree of lust.) Wolf's peach. Poisonous.

LYCOPODIUM. (From AUROS, a wolf, and muc, a foot; so called from its supposed resemblance.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order, Musci.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Muscus clavatus. Club moss. Wolf's claw. This plant, Lycopodium clavatum of Linnæus, affords a great quantity of pollen, which is much esteemed in some places to sprinkle on young children, to prevent, and in the curing parts which are fretting. A decoction of the herb is said to be a specific in the curc of the plica polonica.

LYCOPODIUM CLAVATUM. The systematic name of the club-moss. See Lycopo-

LYCOPODIUM SELAGO. The systematic name of the upright club-moss. See Muscus erectus.

Lycorsis. (From λυκος, a wolf, and οψις, an aspect; so called from its being of the colour of a wolf.) Echium Ægyptiacum, or wall bugloss.

LYCOPUS. (From AUROS, a wolf, and TRES, a foot; so named from its likeness.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Monogynia. Wolf's claw, or water horehound. The lycopus europeus is astringent.

LYGISMUS. (From Augiza, to distort.) A dislocation.

(From avyilar, to bend; so called from its flexibility.) The agnus castus.

LYMPH. Lympha. The liquid contained in the lymphatic vessels. It has a fatuous smell, no taste, and is of a crystalline colour. Its specific gravity is greater than water; in consistence, it is thin and

somewhat plastic. The quantity in the human body appears to be very great, as the system of the lymphatic vessels forms no small part of it. Its constituent principles appear to be gelatinous albuminous water. The lymphatic vessels absorb this water from the tela cellulosa of the whole body, from all the viscera and the cavities of the viscera; and convey it to the thoracic duct, where it is mixed with the clivle.

The use of the lymph is to turn the superfluous nutritious jelly from every part, and to mix it with the chyle in the thoracic duct, there to be further converted into the nature of the animal; and lastly, it has mixed with it the superfluous aqueous vapour, which is expired into the cavity of the cranium, thorax, and abdomen. LYMPHATIC GLANDS.

Glandulæ

lymphatica. See Conglobate glands.
LYMPHATICS. Absorbent vessels, that carry a transparent fluid, or lymph. They are small and transparent, and originate in every part of the body. With the lacteal vessels of the intestines, they form what is termed the absorbent system. Their termination is in the thoracic duct. Absorbent vessels, Lacteals, and Thoracic duct.

Lymphatics of the head and neck .- Absorbents are found on the scalp and about the viscera of the neck, which unitc into a considerable branch, that accompanies the jugular vein. Absorbents have not been detected in the human brain: yet there can be no doubt of there being such vessels: it is probable that they pass out of the cranium through the canalis caroticus and foramen lacerum in basi cranii, on each side, and join the above jugular branch, which passes through some glands as it proceeds into the chest to the angle of the subclavian and jugular veins.

The absorbents, from the right side of the head and neck, and from the right arm. do not run across the neck, to unite with the great trunk of the system; they have an equal opportunity of dropping their contents into the angle betwixt the right subclavian and the jugular vein. These vessels then uniting, form a trunk, which is little more than an inch, nay, sometimes not a quarter of an inch, in length, but which has nearly as great a diameter as the proper trunk of the left side.

This vessel lies upon the right subclavian vein, and receives a very considerable number of lymphatic vessels; not only does it receive the lymphatics from the right side of the head, thyroid gland, neck, &c. and the lymphatics of the arm, but it receives also those from the right side of the thorax and diaphragm, from the lungs of this side, and from the parts supplied by the mammary artery. Both in this and in the great trunk there are many valves.

Lymphatics of the upper extremities .-

The absorbents of the upper extremities are divided into superficial and deep-6" ed. The superficial absorbents ascend under the skin in every direction to the wrist, from whence a branch proceeds upon the posterior surface of the fore-arm to the head of the radius, over the internal condyle of the hamerus, up to the axilla, receiving several branches as it proceeds. Another branch proceeds from the wrist along the anterior part of the fore-arm, and forms a net work, with a branch coming over the ulna from the posterior part, and ascends on the inside of the humerus to the glands of the axilia. The deep seated absorbents accompany the larger blood-vessels, and pass through two grands about the middle of the humerus, and ascend to the glands of the axilla. The superficial and deen-scated absorbents having passed through the axillary glands, form two trunks, which unite into one, to be inserted with the jugular absorbents into the thoracic duct, at the angle formed by the union of the subclavian wit the jugular vein.

Lymphatics of the inferior extremities .-These are also superficial and deep seated. The superficial ones lie between the skin and massles. Those of the toes and foot form a branch, which ascends upon the back of the foot, over the tendon of the cruzus anticus, forms with other branches a plexus above the ancles, then proceeds along the tibia over the knee, sometimes passes through a gland, and proceeds up the inside of the thigh, to the subingumal glands. The deep-seated absorbents fullow the course of the arteries, and accompany the femoral artery, in which course they pass through some glands in the leg and above the knee, and then proceed to some deep-seated subinguinal glands. The absorbents from about the external parts of the pubis, as the penis, permeum, and from the external parts of the petvis, in general proceed to the inguinal glands. The subinguinal and inguinal glands send for h several branches, which pass through the abdominal ring into the cavity of the abdomen.

Lymbiatics of the abdominal and thoracic viscera, - The absorbents of the lower extremities accompany the external diac artery, where they are joined by many branches from the uterus, urinary bladder, spermatic chord, and some branches accomparrying the internal iliae arrery; they the a cend to he sacroin, where they form a plexus, which proceeds over the psoas muscles, and, meeting with the lacteals of the mesentery, with the thoracic duct, or trank of the absorbents, which is of a serpentine form, about the size of a crowqual, and cuns up the dorsal vertebræ, through he posterior opening of the diaphragm, octween the aorta and vena azygos, to the angle formed by the union of

the subclavian and jugular veins. In this course it receives: -the absorbents of the kidneys, which are superficial and deepseated, and unite as they proceed towards the thoracic duct: and the absorbents of the spleen, which are upon its peritoneal coat, and unite with those of the pancreas :- a branch from a plexus of vessels passing above and below the duodenum, formed by the absorbents of the stomuch. which come from the lesser and greater curvature, and are united about the pylorus with those of the pancreas and liver, which converge from the extern . I surface and internal parts towards the portæ of the liver, and also by several branches from the gall-bladder.

Use of Lynphatics.—The office of these vessels is to take up substances which are applied to their mouths; thus the vapour of circumscribed cavities, and of the cells of the cellular membrane, are removed by the lymphatics of those parts; and thus mercury and other substances are taken into the system when rubbed on the skin.

The principle by which this absorption takes place, is a power inherent in the mouths of absorbing vessels, a vis insita, dependent on the high degree of irritability of their internal membrane, by which the vessels contract and propel the fluid forwards. Hence the use of this function appears to be of the utmost importance, viz. to supply the blood with chyle; to remove the superfluous vapour of circumscribed cavities, otherwise dropsies, as hydrocephalus, hydrothorax, hydrocordis, ascites, hydrocele, &c. would constantly be taking place: to remove the superflu-ous vapour from the cells of the cellular membrane dispersed throughout every part the body, that anasarca may not take place: to remove the hard and soft parts of the body, and to convey into the system medicines which are applied to the surface of the body.

LYPOMA. See Lipoma. LYRA. (From λυgα, a lyre, or musical instrument.) Psalterium. The triangular medullary space between the posterior crura of the formx of the cerebrum, which is marked with prominent medullary fibres that give the appearance of a lyre.

LYRUS. (From lyra, the lyre; so called because its leaves are divided like the strings of a lyre.) The doronicum Germani-

cum, or German leopard's-bane.

Lysievia. (From Nue, to loosen, and your, a member.) The relaxation of limbs. LYSIMACHIA. (From Lysimachus,

who first discovered it.) The name of a genus of plan's in the Linnaan system. Cass, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. LYSIMACHIA NUMMULARIA. The syste-

matic name of the money-wort. See Nummularia. The herb,

LYSIMACHIA PURPUREA.

root, and flowers of this plant, Lythrum salicaria of Lumwus, possess a considerable degree of astringency, and are used medicinally in the cure of diarrheas and dysenteries, fluor albus, and hamoptysis.

LYSSODECTUS. (From Awsta, canine madness, and fancupi, to bite.) One who is mad in consequence of having been bit-

ten by a mad annual.

LYTHRUM. (From 2.08gov, blood; so

called from its resemblance in colour, and Salicaria, from saiix, a willow; from the resemblance of its leaves to those of a willow.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnean system. Class, Dodeandria. Order, Digynia.

LYTHRUM SALICARIA. The systematic name of the common or purple willow-

herb. See Lysimachia purpurea.

## M.

M. This letter has two significations: when herbs, flowers, chips, or such-like substances, are ordered in a prescription, and M. follows them, it signifies manipulus, a handful; and when any quantity of other ingredients is directed, it is a contraction of misce; thus, m. f. mist. signifies mix and make a mixture.

MACANDON. (Indian.) A tree growing in Malabar, whose fruit is roasted and eaten as a curc for dysenteries and relief in cholera morbus, and other complaints.

MACAPATLI. Sarsaparilla.

MACANOCOTLIFERA. The name of a tree in the West Indies, whose fruit is sweet and laxative. A decoction of the bark of this tree cures the itch, and the powder thereof heals ulcers.

Macedonian parsley. See Petroselinum

Macedonicum.

MACEDONISIUM SEMEN. The seeds of the Smyrnium olusatrum, said to possess bitterish, aromatic, and carminative virtues.

Macen. (From masa, Heb.) Grecian macer, or mace. The root which is imported from Barbary by this name is supposed to be the simarouba, and is said to

be antidysenteric.

MACERATION. (From macero, to soften by water.) In a pharmaceutical sense, this term implies an infusion either with or without heat, wherein the ingredients are intended to be almost wholly dissolved, in order to extract their virtues.

MACERONA. The Smyrnium olusatrum or herh Alexander.

MACHÆHIA. The persicaria, or peachkernels.

MACHERION. Macheris. The ampu-

tating-knife.

MACHAON. The proper name of an antient physician, said to be one of the sons of Asculapius; whence some authors have functed to dignify their own inventions with his name, as particularly a collyrium, described by Scribonius, intitled, Asclepias Machaonis; and hence, also, medicine in general is by some called Ars Machaonia.

MACHINAMENTUM ARISTIONIS. A machine for reducing dislocation.

MACHINULE. A word sometimes used by physical writers to express those little compositions, which are parts of stone. It is a sort of rocky marle.

Macia. The anagallis.

MACIES. A wasting of the body. See Atrophy and Tabes.

MACIS. Mace. The middle bark of the nutmeg. A thick, tough, reticulated unctuous membrane, of a lively, reddish, yellow colour, approaching to that of saffron, which envelopes the shell of the nutmeg. See Nux moschata. The mace, when fresh, is of a blood-red colour, and acquires its yellow hue in drying. It is dried in the sun, upon hurdles fixed above one another, and then, it is said, sprinkled with seawater, to prevent its crumbling in carrying. It has a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, moderately pungent taste. It is in common use as a grateful spice, and appears to be in its general qualities nearly similar to the nutrneg. The principal difference consists in the mace being much warmer, more bitter, less unctuous, and sitting easier on weak stomachs.

Mace possesses qualities similar to those of nutmeg, but is less astringent, and its oil is supposed to be more volatile and acrid.

MACRE. The macer.

MACROPHYSOCEPHALUS. (From mangor, long, quois, nature, and κεφαλη, the head.) One who has a head unnaturally long and large. This word, according to Turton, is only used by Ambrose Parey.

MACROPIPER. (From μακεςς, long, and πιπεςις, pepper.) See Piper longum.

MACROPNEA. (From μακεςς, long, and

(From maxeos, long, and TYEE, to breathe.) A difficulty of breathing, where the inspirations are at long intervals.

MACULA. A spot. A permanent dis-colouration of some portion of the skin, often with a change of its texture, but not

connected with any disorder of the constitution.

MACULE ALBE. White specks on the

MACULE HEPATICE. Hepatic, or livercoloured spots on the skin.

Shingles, or crysipe-MACULE LATE.

MACULE OCULORUM. Cataracts; white

specks on the eye. MACULE PESTILENTES. Petechial, or

purple spots. MACULE VENEREE. The vencreal erup-

MACULE VOLATICE. Any transitory eruption.

MAD-APPLES. The oblong egg-shaped fruit of the Solanum melongena of Linnæus. They are often boiled, in their native places, in soups and sauces, the same as the love-apple; are accounted very nutritive, and are much sought after by the votarics of Venus.

MADAROSIS. (From masos, bald, without hair.) A defect or loss of eye-brows. or eye-lashes, causing a disagreeable deformity, and painful sensation of the eyes in a strong light.

Madder. See Rubia. Madness. See Melancholia, Insania, and Mania.

Madness, Canine. See Hydrophobia. Moisture. A sweating. See

Ephidrosis. Magdaleon. (From μασσω, to knead.) A mass of plaster, or other composition,

reduced to a cylindrical form. MAGELLANICANUS CORTEX. The Win-

teranus cortex, nearly allied in its properties to canella alba

(From magister, a mas-MAGISTERY. ter.) The ancient chymists used this word to signify a peculiar and secret method of preparing any medicine, as it were, by a masterly process. A subtle preparation, as a precipitate or solution by menstruum.

MAGISTRALIA. (From magister, a master.) Applied, by way of eminence, to such medicines as are extemporancous, or

in common use.

MAGISTRANTIA. (From magistro, to rule; so called by way of eminence, as exceeding all others in virtue.) See Imperatoria.

MAGMA. (From μασσω, to blend together ) Ecpiesma. A thick ointment. The faces of an ointment after the thinner parts are strained off. A confection,

MAGNES. (From Magnes, its inven-The magnet, or load-stone. A muddy iron ore, in which the iron is modified in such a manner as to afford a passage to a fluid called the magnetic fluid. The magnct exhibits certain phenomena; it is known by its property of attracting steel filings, and is found in Auvergne, in Biscay, in Spain, in Sweden, and Siberia.

MAGNES ARSENICALIS. Arsenical magnet. It is a composition of equal parts of antimony, sulphur, and arsenic, mixed and melted together, so as to become a glassy

MAGNES EPILEPSIE. The native cinna-

MAGNESIA. 1. The ancient chymists gave this name to such substances as they conceived to have the power of attracting any principle from the air. Thus an earth which, on being exposed to the air, increased in weight, and yielded vitriol, they called magnesia vitriolata: and later chymists observing, in their process, that a nitrous acid was separated, and an earth left behind, supposing it had attracted the acid, called it magnesia nitri, which, from its colour, soon obtained the name of magnesia alba.

2. An earth not found pure in nature, but obtained by art from some of its combinations. It gives a peculiar character to the substances of which it forms a part. The stones which contain magnesia in a considerable quantity have generally a smooth and unctuous feel, a greenish cast, a fibrous or striated texture, and a silky lustre. Among them we may mention talc, steatite, serpentine, chlorite, asbestos, actynolite, jade, or nephritic stone, baikalite, boracite, &c. It is likewise found neutralized with various acids. It has been discovered by Vauquelin in seve-

ral sca-plants.

Properties.-Pure magnesia does not form with water an adhesive ductile mass. It is in the form of a very white spongy powder, soft to the touch, and per-fectly tasteless. It is very slightly soluble in water. It absorbs carbonic acid gradually from the atmosphere. It changes very delicate blue vegetable colours to green. Its attraction to the acids is weaker than those of the alkalies. Its salts are partially decomposed by ammonia, one part of the magnesia being precipitated, and the other forming a triple compound. Its specific gravity is about 2.3. It is infusible even by the most intense heat; but when mixed with some of the other earths it becomes fusible. It combines with sulphur. It does not unite to phosphorus or carbon. It is not dissolved by alkalies in the humid way. When heated strongly, it becomes phosphorescent. With the dense acids it becomes ignited. With all the acids it forms salts of a bitter taste, mostly very soluble.

Method of obtaining Magnesia. The usual method of procuring magnesia is, to precipitate it from sulphate of magnesia by

means of an alkali.

To effect this, dissolve any quantity of sulphate of magnesia in a large quantity of distilled water, and add to it gradually a solution of perfectly pure carbonate of pot-

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ash, or soda, till no more precipitate en- cinally as an absorbent, antacid, and purgasues. Then collect the precipitate on a cloth, and boil it repeatedly in a large quantity of distilled water, till this fluid passes perfectly tasteless. It is then to be dried, and exposed in a crucible to a red heat, till a sample of it, when cold, does not occasion theleast effervescence with acids.

In this process, a double decomposition takes place, the sulphuric acid of the sulphate of magnesia combines with the alkali, and forms sulphate of potash; and the carbonic acid of the alkali joins to the disengaged magnesia, and forms carbonate of magnesia; the latter is precipitated, and the sulphate of potash remains in solution. On exposing the carbonate of magnesia to heat, the acid is expelled, and the magnesia is left behind in a pure state. The magnesia of the present London Pharmacopœia was formerly called Magensia calcinata; usta; pura. It is directed to be made thus: - " Take of carbonate of magnesia, four ounces; burn it in a very strong fire, for two hours, or until acetic acid being dropped in extricates no bubbles of gas." It is given as an absorbent antacid, and eccoprotic, in cardialgia, spasms, convulsions, and tormina of the bowels of infants; pyrosis, flatulencies, and other diseases of the primæ viæ; obstipation, leucorrhœa, rickets, scrofula, crusta lactea, and podagra. The dose is from half a drachm to a drachin.

Magnesia calcinata, See Magnesia.

Magnesia opalina, In making the

hepar antimonii, some add, to the antimony and nitre, decrepitated sal-ammoniae, and thus make the opalin. It is a weaker emetic than the liver of antimony.

MAGNESIA VITRIOLATA. See Sulphas mag-

MAGNESIA USTA. See Magnesia.

MAGNESLE CARBONAS. The London College direct it to be made as follows: Take of the sulphate of magnesia, subcarbonate of magnesia, of each a pound; water, three gallons. Dissolve the subcarbonate of potash in three pints of water, and strain. Dissolve also the sulphate of magnesia, separately, in five pints of the water, and strain; then add the rest of the water to the rest of the solution, apply heat, and when it boils pour in the former solution, stirring them well together; next, strain through a linen cloth; lastly, wash the powder repeatedly with boiling water, and dry it upon bibulous paper, in a heat of 200°. It is in form of very fine powder. considerably resembling flour in its appearance and feel; it has no sensible taste on the tongue; it gives a faint greenish colour the tincture of violets, and converts turnsole to a blue. It is employed medi-

tive, in doses from half a drachm to two drachms. See Carbonas magnesiæ.

MAGNISIÆ SULPHAS. See Sulphas

magnesi.e.

MAGNET. See Magnes.

MAGNETISM. The property which iron possesses of attracting or repelling other iron according to circumstances.

MAGNETISM, ANIMAL. A sympathy lately supposed, by some persons, to exist between the magnet and the human body; by means of which the former became capable of curing many diseases in an unknown way, somewhat resembling the performances of the old magicians. Animal magnetism is now entirely exploded.

MAGNUM DEI BONUM. So Dr. Mead calls

the Pernyian bark.

The third bone of MAGNUM OS. the lower row of bones of the carpus, reckoning from the thumb towards the little finger.

MAGNUS MORBUS. The great disease.

So Hippocrates ealls the epilepsy.

MAGYDARIS. The root of the herb lasserwort.

MAHAGONI. The systematic name of the tree the wood of which bears this name, and is so well known, is the Swietenia mahogoni of Linnxus. Its bark, when dried, has an adstringent bitter taste, similar to that of Peruvian bark, but stronger, for which it appears it may be substitued in the cure of fevers, and other diseases.

Manales. A species of Prunus. MAHMOUDY. Scammonium. Maidenhair. See Adianthum.

MAIDENHAIR, CANADA. Adianthum Canadense. This is the Adianthum pedatum of Linnaus. It is in common use in France, for the same purposes as the common adianthum is in this country, and appears to be far superior to it.

Maidenhair, English. See Adianthum. MAIDENHAIR-TREE. Ginkgo. Ginan Itsio. In China and Japan, where this tree grows, the fruit acquires the size of a damask plumb, and contains a kernel resembling that of our apricot. These kernels always make part of the desert at all public feasts and entertainments. They are said to promote digestion, and to cleanse the stomach and bowels.

MAJANTHEMUM. See Lilium convallium. MAIL-ANSCHI. A species of rhamnus growing in Malabar. A decotion of its root is recommended against the gout; and a decoction of its leaves against the jaun-

MAIL-CLOU. A Malabar tree, from whose bruised leaves and bark is prepared an apozem against the after pains of women in childbed, and for promoting the lochia.

MAIL-CLOU-KATOU. This is larger than

the above species. It is evergreen and

MAJORANA. (Quod mense Maiofloreat, because it flowers in May.) Sweet marjoram. Origanum majorana of Linaxus:-foliis ovatis obtusis, spicis subrotundis compactis pubescent bus. This plant has been long cultivated in our gardens, and is in frequent use for culinary purposes. The leaves and tops have a pleasant smell, and a moderately warm, aromatic, bitterish taste. They yield their virtues to aqueous and spirituous liquors, by infusion, and to water in distillation, affording a considerable quantity of essential oil. The medicinal qualities of the plant are similar to those of the wild plant (see Origanum;) but being much more fragrant, it is thought to be more cephalic, and better adapted to those complaints known by the name of nervous; and may therefore be employed with the same intentions as lavender. It was directed in the pulvis sternututorius, by both pharmacopæias, with a view to the agreeable odour which it diffuses to the asarabacca, rather than to its errhine power, which is very inconsiderable; but is now wholly omitted in the Pharm. Lond. In its recent state, it is said to have been successfully applied to schirrous tumours of the breast.

See Marum syri-MAJORANA SYRIACA.

acum.

MALA. (From malus, an apple; so called from its roundness.) A prominent part of the cheek.

MALA ASSYRIA. The citron.

MALA ÆTHIOPICA. A species of Lico-

MALA AURANTIA. See Aurantium his-

MALA COTONEA. The quince.

MALA INSANA NIGRA. The fruit of the black fruited night-shade. See Melongena.

MALABAR PLUM. This fruit, which is the produce of the Eugenia jumbos, smells, when ripe, like roses. On the coast of Malabar, where the trees grow plentifully, these plums are in great esteem. They are not only eaten fresh off the trees, but are preserved in sugar, in order to have them eatable all the year. Of the flowers, a conserve is prepared, which is used medicinally, as a mild adstringent.

MALABATHRI OLEUM. Oil of cassia

lignea.

(Μαλαδαθεον: from MALABATHRUM. Malabar, in India, whence it was brought, and betre, a leaf, Ind.) The leaf of the tree whose bark is called cassia. See Cassia lignea.

махававеоч. MALABATRINUM. (From malabathrum.) Ointment of malabathrum. It is compounded of myrrh, spikenard, malabathrum, and many other aromatic ingrechents.

Malacu bean. See Anucardium orientale,

MALACA RADIX. The root of the sagittaria alexipharmaca.

MALACHE. (From μαλακος, soft; called from the softness of its leaf.) The mailow.

MALACHITE. (From μαλαχη, the mallow; from its resemblance in colour to the m llow.) A species of copper ore found in Siberia.

MALACIA. (From μαλαχίον, a ravenous fish.) Pica, or depraved appetite, when such things are coveted as are not proper for food.

MALACOSTEON. (From manages, soft, and oseov, a bone.) Molities ossium, or softness of the bones,

MALACTICA. (From μαλασσω, to soften.)

Emollient medicines.

MALÆ OS. (From malus, so called from its roundness.) The cheek-bone. See Jugale os.

MALAGFUETTA. Malagnetta. Grains of

Paradise.

MALAGMA. (From μαλασσα, to soften.) Baos. It is synonymous with Cataplasma, from the frequency of making cataplasin to soften; but formerly malagmas were made of many other ingredients.

MALAMIRIS. A species of Piper.

MALARUM OSSA. The cheek-bones. See Jugale os.

MALATS. Salts formed by the union of the malic acid, or acid of apples, with different bases; thus malat of copper, malat of lead, &c.

Male. The arm-pit. Male fern. See Filix. Male orchis. See Satyrion. Male speedwell. See Veronica.

MALIC ACID. Acidum malicum. This acid is obtained by saturating the juice of apples with alkali, and pouring in the acetous solution of lead, until it occasions no more precipitate. The precipitate is then to be edulcorated, and sulphuric acid poured on it, until the liquor has acquired a fresh acid taste, without any mixture of sweetness. The whole is then to be filtered, to separate the sulphate of lead. The filtered liquor is the malic acid, which is very pure, remains always in a fluid state, and cannot be rendered concrete. The union of this acid with different bas s constitutes what are called malats.

MALIGNANT. Malignus. A term which may be applied to any disease, whose symptoms are so aggravated as to threaten destruction of the patient. It is frequently used to signify a dangerous epidemic.

Malignant fever. See Typhus putrida. Malignant sore throat. See Cynanche maligna.

MALIS. A disease of the skin, produced by an insect lodging underneath. It is very common in Persia, where the disease is produced by the worm called Gordius medinensis, or Dracunculis persious; in America, by the Pulex; and it is sometimes

Produced in Europe by the Pediculus.

Mallam-roddall. The name of a tree Malabar, the root, bark, leaves, and fruit of which are estcemed, as a specific,

in the epilepsy.

MALLEABILITY. (Malleabilitas; from malleus, a hanner.) The property which several metals possess of being extended under the hammer into thin plates, without cracking. The thin leaves of silver and gold are the best examples of malleability.

MALLEAMOTHE. Pavette. Pavate. Erysi-pelas curans arbor A shrub which grows The feaves, boiled in palm in Malabar oil, cure the impetigo; the root, powdered, and mixed with ginger, is diuretic.

MALLEI ANTERIOR. See Lasator tumpani.

MALLEI EXTERNUS. See Laxator tympani.

MALLEI INTERNUS. See Tensor tumpuni

MALLEOLUS. (Dim. of malleus, a mallet; so called from its supposed resemblance to a mallet.) The ankle, distinguished into external and internal, or

malleolus & ternus and internus.

MALLEUS. (Quusi molleus; from mollio, to soften; so called from its likeness to a little hammer.) A bone of the internal ear is so termed. It is distinguished into a head, neck, and manubrium. The head is round, and encrusted with a thin cartilage, and annexed to another bone of the ear, the incus, by ginglymus. Its neck is narrow, and situated between the head and manubrium, or handle; from which a long slender process arises, adheres to a furrow in the auditory canal, and is continued as far as the fissure in the articular cavity of the temporal bone. The manubrium is terminated by an enlarged extremity, and connected to the membrana tympani by a short conoid pro-

Mallow, common. See Malva.

Mallow, round-leaved. See Malva rotundifolia.

Mallow, vervain. See Malva alcea.

MALOGRANATUM. (From malum, an apple, and granum, a grain; so named from its grain-like seeds.) The pomegranate.

MALPHIGIA GLABRA. (So named in hour of Malphigius.) The systematic nour of Malphigius.) name of a tree which affords an esculent

cherry.

MALTHA. (From μαλασσω, to soften.) Malthacodes. A medicine softened and tempered with wax.

MALTHACTICA (From μαλθακίζω, to soften.) Emollient medicines.

MALTREORUM. Common salt.

MALUM. 1. A disease. 2. An apple. S. In a strict sense, it is the disease called Procidentia oculi; it is when the eyes exceed the bounds of the eye-lids.

MALUM MORTUUM A disease that appears in the form of a pustule, which soon forms a dry, brown, hard, and broad crust. It is seidom attended with pain, and remains fixed for a long time before it can be detached. It is mostly observed on the tibia and os coccygis, and sometimes the face.

MALVA. (Malva, quasi molva; from mollis, soft; named from the softness of its leaves.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Mo-

nadelphia. Order, Polyandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common mallow. Mulva vulgaris. Malva sylvestres of Lin æus :- caule erecto herbaceo, foliis septemlobatis acutis, pedunculis petiolisque pilosis. This indigenous plant has a strong affinity to the althea, both in a hotanical and a medical respect. See Althaa. The leaves and flowers are principally used in fomentations, cataplasms, and emollient enemas. The internal use of the leaves seems to be wholly superseded by the radix althex.

MALVA ALCEA. The vervain mallow. The flowers of this plant are used medi-

cinally in some countries.

MALVA ARBOREA. The mallow-tree. This beautiful tree is the alcea rosacea of Linnaus. The flowers are said to possess adstringent and mucilaginous virtues. They are seldom used medicinally.

MALVA HOTUNDIFOLIA. Round-leaved mallow. The whole herb and root possess similar virtues to, and may be substituted for, the common mallow. See Malva.

Malva sylvestris. The systematic

name of the common mallow. See Mal-

MALVA VERBENACEA. Alcea Alcea. vulgaris major. Vervain mallow. plant is distinguished from the common mallow, by its leaves being jagged, or cut in about the edges. It agrees in virtues with the other mallows, but it is least mucilaginous of any.

MALVAVISCUS. (From malva, the mallow, and viscus, glue; so named from its viscidity.) The marsh-mallow. See Al-

than officinalis.

MALVA VULGARIS. See Malva.
MALVERN WATER. The village of Great Malvern has, for many years, been celebrated for a spring of remarkable purity, which has acquired the name of the holy well, from the reputed sanctity of its waters, and the real and extensive benefit long derived in various cases from its

The holy-well water, when first drawn, appears quite clear and pellucid, and does not become sensibly turbid on standing. It possesses somewhat of an agreeable pungency to the taste; but this is not considerable. In other respects it does not differ in taste from pure good water.

The contents of Malvern holy-well are;—some carbonic acid, which is, in an uncombined state, capable of acting upon iron, and of giving a little taste to the water; but the exact quantity of which has not been ascertained:—a very small portion of earth, either lime or magnesia, united with the carbonic and marine acids;—perhaps a little neutral alkaline salt, and a very large proportion of water:—for we may add, that, the carbonic acid perhaps excepted, the foreign matter is less than that of any spring-water which we use. No iron, or metal of any kind, is found in it, though there are chalybeates in the neighbourhood.

It is singular, that, notwithstanding its apparent purity, this water is said not to keep vell, and soon acquires a fætid smell,

by standing in open vessels.

Malvern water, like many others, was at first only employed as an external application; and this, indeed, is still its principal use, though it is extended, with some advantage, to a few internal diseases. It has been found highly efficacious in painful and deep ulcerations, the consequence of a scrophulous habit of body, and which are atways attended with much local irritation, and often general fever. Applied to the sorc, it moderates the profuseness of the discharge, corrects the fetor, which so peculiarly marks a caries of the bone, promotes the granulating process, and a salutary exfoliation of the carious part; and by a long perseverance in this course, very dangerous and obstinate cases have at last Inflammation of the eye. been cured. especially the ophthalmia, which is so troublesome in scrophulous habits, often yields to this simple application, and we find that, for a great number of years, persons afflicted with sore eyes have been in the habit of resorting to Malvern holy-well. Another order of external diseases, for which this water is greatly celebrated, is cutaneous eruptions; even those obstinate cases of dry desquamations, that frequently follow a sudden application of cold in irritable habits, are often cured by this reme-Where the skin is hot and dry, it remarkably relieves the intolerable itching of herpetic disorders, and renders the surface of the body more cool and perspirable. It appears, however, from a nice observation of Dr. Wall, that this method of treatment is not so successful in the entaneous eruptions of very lax leucophlegmatic habits, where the extremities are cold and the circulation languid; but that it succeeds best where there is unusual irritation of the skin, and where it is apt to break in painful fissures, that once out a watery acrid lymph. On the first application of this water to an inflamed surface, it will often for a time increase the pain and irritation, but these effects go off in a

few days.

The great benefit arising from using Malvern waters, as an external remedy, in diseases of the skin, and surface of the body, have led to its employment in some internal disorders, and often with considerable advantage. Of these, the most important are, painful affections of the kidneys and bladder, attended with the diseharge of bloody, purulent, or foctul urine; the heetic fever, produced by scropintious ulceration of the lungs, or very extensive and irritating sores on the surface of the body; and also fistulas of long standing, that have been neglected, and have become constant and troublesome sores.

The Malvern water is in general a perfectly safe application, and may be used with the utmost freedom, both as an external dressing for sores and as a common

drink.

The internal use of Malvern waters is sometimes attended at first with a slight nausea, and, not unfrequently, for the first day or two, it occasions some degree of drowsiness, vertigo, or slight pain of the head, which comes on a few minutes after drinking it. These symptoms go off spontaneously, after a few days, or may readily be removed by a mild purgative. effects of this water on the bowels are not at all constant; frequently it purges briskly for a few days, but it is not uncommon for the body to be rendered costive by its use, especially, as Dr. Will observes, with those who are accustomed to malt liquors. In all eases it decidedly increases the flow of urine, and the general health of the patient. The duration of a course of Malvern waters must vary very considerably, on account of the different kinds of disease for which this spring is resorted to.

Mamel. The mammoe, momin, or toddy tree. This tree is found in different parts of the West Indies, but those on the Island of Hispaniola are the best. From incisions made in the branches, a copious discharge of pellucid liquor is obtained, which is called momin, or toddy wine; it must be drank very sparingly, because of its very diuretic quality. It is esteemed as an effectual preservative from the stone, as also a solvent of it when generated.

There are two species.

Mamille. (Dim. mamma, the breast.) The breasts of men are so termed. It is likewise applied sometimes to the nipole.

Mamina. It is said, by Paulus Ægineta, to be the root of a plant which is of a detergent quality. Some think it is the root of the doronicum; but what it really is cannot be ascertained. MAMMA. See Breast.

MIMMARY ARTERIES. Ateria mammillares. The internal mainmary artery is a branch of the subclavian, and gives off the mediastinal, thymai, and pericardiac arte ries. The external mammary is a branch of the axillary artery.

MAMMARY VEINS. Venæ mammillares. These vessels accompany the arteries, and evacuate their blood into the subclavian

MAMMEA AMERICANA. The systematic name of the tree on which the mammee

fruit grows. See Mammee.

MANNEE. A dolocous fruit, the produce of the Mammea Americana of Linnaus. They have a very grateful flavour when ripe, and are much cultivated in Jam ica, where they are generally sold in the markets for one of the best fruits of the

MAN. Homo. Man is compounded of solids, fluids, a vital principle, and, what distinguishes him from every other animal,

1. The solids are divided into hard and soft, which analysis demonstrates to be formed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. The hard parts are the bones and cartilages. The soft parts, muscles, nerves, the viscera, and every other part except the fluids. See Bones, Cartilages, Ligaments, Muscles, Arteries, Veins, Nerves, Lymphatics, Viscera, &c.

II. The fluids are very various. See Fluids. Anatomy demonstrates the structure of the various parts of which the human body consists. Chymistry has, of late, made great progress towards ascertaining its principles and elements, which are as

follows :

The constituent principles of man are, 1. The water, which constitutes the greatest part of the humours, and is the vehicle of the other principles. 2. The animal gas, which consists of carbonated hydrogen, and is found, not only in the blood, but in all the other fluids. 3. The inflammable gas, emitted from the large intestines, in flatu. 4. The animal gluten, which consists of carbon and azote, and forms the fibres of the solid parts; the caseous portion of the milk; and the cruor of the blood. 5. The albumen, present in the serum of the blood. 6. The jelly, found in the serum of the blood; lymph of the lymphatic vessels, and other fluids; and the interstices of all the fibres. 7. The cruor, which is the animal gluten impregnated with oxydated iron. 8. The mucus, which lubricates the prima via; the acreal surfaces of the lungs; the parts of generation, and the urinary passages. 9. The animal od, which fills the cells of the adipose membrane. 10. The resin, found in

the bile. 11. The cebacic acid, which is present in animal oil. 12. The phosphoric acid, which enters into the composition of the animal earth of the bones, and the phosphorated salts of the urine. 13. The lactic acid, in the sugar of the serum of the milk. 14. The sugar, latent in the serum of the nack. 15. The animal earth, which is a phosphorated calx, and not only forms the greatest part of the bones, but also is found in the fibres of the soft pares, and ma all the fluids. 16. Phosphorated volatile alk di; and 17. Phosphorated soda, b n of which are detected in the uring, 18, Culinary salt, obtained from the urine, gastric juice, senien, and . 'er humours.

The clementary principles of our body. hitherto known, are, 1. Azot, an element which, combined with hydrogen, constitutes volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, azotic air; with carbon, the gluten of animal fibres. Azot is the primary element of the animal body, for it may be extracted from almost every part of the animal, by means of the nitrous acid, this having a greater affinity with the elements than the azot itself. The mucus, jelly, membranes, tendons, ligaments, and cartilages, afford it in a less degree by means of the nitrous acid. The lymph, serum of the blood, the water of hydropic patients, the liquor amnii, and cheese give out more. The greatest quantity of azot is obtained from the coagulable lymph of the blood, and from muscle. The flesh of young animals contains less than that of old; and it is in greater quantity in sarcophagous, than in the flesh of phytophagous animals and fish. It is not probable that the azot is produced by the decomposition of the acid of nitre; for, after having per-formed the separation, it is capable of saturating the same quantity of alkali as before. 2. The matter of heat, which enters into the composition of both solids and fluids, and which, in a separate form, constitutes the animal heat. 3. The matter of light, which in its free state produces vision, and, when compounded, enters as an element into the composition of oil and all other inflammable parts. The eyes of animals, which shine in the night time, owe this property to the matter of light. 4. The electric matter, which enters into all bodies, and affords the phenomena of animal electricity. 5. Oxygen, which, in combination with the matter of heat, constitutes vital air; with hydrogen, forms water; with acescent bases, the acid salts of our fluids. 6. Hydrogen, which, combined with oxygen, forms water; with azot, volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, inflammable air, which is emitted from the large intestines; and with carbon, animal gas; and lastly, combined with cirbon and the sebacic acid. constitutes the oil of the adipose membrane. 7. Carbon, which, in combination with hydrogen and the sebacic acid, constitutes the oil of the adipose membrane; with hydrogen alone, animal gaz; with azot, animal gluten. 8. Sulphur, which, combined with inflammable ir, constitutes the hepatic air that exhales from muscular fibres, hair, incubated eggs, animal gluten, and, according to Lavoisier, human excrement. 9. Phosphorus, which, with oxygen, forms the phosphoric acid; and, with inflammable air, phosphoric air. The lucid sweat of some men, the phosphorescence, or light, given out by the putrefying bodies of some animals, and the phosphorus obtained from cheese and human bones, sufficiently shew that phosphorus constitutes an element of our body. 10. Soda, or the fixed mineral alkali. 11. Potash, or the fixed vegetable alkali. Each of these is found in several of the fluids of the human body. 12. An earthy element. Of the earths, no kind is so frequently detected as the calcareous, which is found in the bones and other parts. 13. A metallic element. Of so great a number of metals, iron and manganese alone are found in an organized body, whether animal or vegetable. Iron is in greater quantity in the flesh than in the bones; but in the greatest proportion in the cruor or red part of the blood. 14. An odorous principle, perceptible in all the animal fluids; but of a peculiar kind in the human urine and excrements. 15 The nervous fluid, or principle contained in the nerves, and which appears to be an element sui generis, distinct from all known fluids, and not to be collected by art.

III. The vital principle. In all solid and fluid parts of a living body, there exists an element, with properties peculiar to itself, which constitutes life; hence it is justly called vital. This principle induces a mode of union in the other elements, widely differing from that which arises from the common laws of chemical affinity. By the aid of this principle, nature produces the animal fluids, as blood, bile, semen, and the rest, which can never be produced by the art of chymistry. But if, in consequence of death, the laws of vital attraction, or affinity, cease to operate, then the element, recovering their former properties, become again obedient to the common laws of chymical affinity, and enter into new combinations, from which, new principles, or the production of putrefaction, are produced. Thus the hydrogen, combining itself with the azot, forms volatile alkali; and the carbonated hydrogen, with the azot, putrid air, into which the whole body is converted. It also appears from hence, why organized bodies alone, namely, animal and vegetable, are subject to putridity, to which inorganic or mineral substances are in no degree liable, the latter

not being compounded according to the laws of vital affinity, but only according to those of chymical affinity. For the tatiscence, or resolution of the pyrites, or ferrum sulphuratum, in the atmospheric air, is not putrefaction, but only the oxygen, furnished by the air, combining with the sulphur, and forming sulphuric acid.

Fire, as well as putridity, separates the constituent principles of animal bodies into their elements; but these, by a peculiar law, under the action of fire, again combine in a different manner, and form peculiar constituent principles, called the products of fire. Thus the hydrogen, combining with azot, is changed into volatile alkalı; but with a large proportion of carbon, it forms empyreumatic oil. From what has hitherto been said, it will also appear, that the true constituent principles of the animal body cannot be detected, either by putrefaction or the action of fire; for by these means we only discover the elements of those principles. Thus, whenever volatile alkali is tound to be generated, azot and hydrogen may be supposed to have been present in the natural state of the animal substance; and when empyreumatic oil is obtained, it may be concluded it is furnished by the hydrogen and carbon of the animal

Manaca. A Brazil shrub, whose root is

powerfully emetic and cathartic.

MANCORON. According to Oribasius, a kind of sugar, which is found in a sort of cane.

MANDIBULA. (From mando, to chew.)
The lower jaw. See Maxilla inferior.

Mandragora. (From μανθεα, a den, and αγαρα, to collect; because it grows about caves and dens of beasts; or from the German man dragen, bearing nan.) Mandrake. Atropa mandragora of Linnæus. The boiled root is employed in the form of poultice, to discuss indolent tumours.

MANDRAGORITES. (From µandgayoga, the mandrake.) Wine, in which the roots of the male mandrake are infused.

Mandrake. See Mandragora.

Manducaton. (From manduco, to chew.) The muscles which perform the action of chewing.

MANGA. (Indian.) The mango-tree.

MANGANESE. This metallic substance seems, after iron, to be the most frequently diffused metal through the earth; its ores are very common. As a peculiar metal, it was first noticed by Galia and Scheele, in the years 1774 and 1777. It is always found in the state of an oxyd, varying in the degree of oxydation. La Peyrouse affirmed that he had found manganese in a metallic state; but there was probably some mistake in his observation

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They are distingished into grey oxyd of manganese, black oxyd of manganese, reddish white oxyd of manganese, and carbonate of manganese. All these combinations have an earthy texture; they are very ponderous; they occur both amorphous and crystallized; and generally contain a large quantity of iron. Their colour is black, blackish brown, or grey, seldom white. They soil the fingers like soot. They are sometimes crystallized in prisms, tetrahedral, rhombordal, or striated.

Properties.—Manganese is of a whitish grey colour. Its fracture is granulated, irregular, and uneven. It is of a metallic brilliancy, which it, however, soon loses in the air. Its specific gravity is about 6.850. It is very hard, and extremely brittle. It is one of the most refractory metals, and most difficult to fuse, requiring at least 163° of Wedgwood's py-Its oxydability is so rapid, that rometer. exposure to the air is sufficient to render it red, brown, black, and friable, in a very short time; it can, therefore, only be kept under water, oil, or ardent spirit. It is the most combustible of all the metals. It decomposes water, by heat very rapidly, as well as the greater part of the metallic oxyds. It decomposes sulphuric acid. 1t is soluble in nitric acid. It is fusible with earths, and colours them brown, violet, or red, according to its state of oxydation. It discolours glasses tinged by iron. It does not appear to unite with sulphur. It combines with phosphorus. It unites with gold, silver, and copper, and renders them brittle. It unites to arsenic in close vessels, but does not enter into union with mercu-It forms three differently coloured ry. oxyds, by combining with different portions of oxygen.

Method of obtaining Manganese.—This metal is obtained by mixing the black oxyd, finely powdered, with pitch; making it into a ball, and putting this into a crucible, with powdered charcoal, one-tenth of an inch thick at the sides, and one-fourth of an inch deep at the bottom. The empty space is then to be filled with powdered charcoal; a cover is to be luted on; and the crucible exposed, for an hour, to the strongest heat that can be raised. digest the black oxyd of manganese repeatedly, with the addition of one-sixteenth of sugar, in nitric acid; dilute the mixture with three times its bulk of water; filter it, and decompose it by the addition of potash; collect the precipitate, form it into a paste with oil, and put it into a crucible. well lined with charcoal. Expose the crucible for at least two hours to the strongest heat of a forge.

Manganese may also be obtained in the following manner:

Prepare a saturated solution of sulphate

of manganese, bring it to a boiling heat, and add to it, gradually, a solution of tarrite of potash, until no further precipitate ensues; then filter the solution, and wash the precipitate in water, and when dry make it into a paste with oil, and proceed as before.

In this process, the sulphuric acid unites to the potasn, and forms sulphate of potash, and the tartareous acid joins to the manganese, and forms a tartrite of manganese, which is decomposable by heat.

Mangel Wursel. The root of scarcity. A plant of great importance, as a substitute for bread in periods of famine. It has not, however, succeeded so well in this country as in Germany. It is properly a species of beet.

Mangifera Indica. The systematic name of the mango-tree. See Mango.

Mango. The fruit of the Mangifera

Mango. The fruit of the Mangifera Indica of Linnaus, which is cultivated all over Asia. When ripe, they are juicy, of a good flavour, and so fragrant as to perfume the air to a considerable distance. They are eaten either raw or preserved with sugar. Their taste is so luscious, that they soon pall the appetite. The unripe fruits are pickled in the milk of the cocoa-nut that has stood until sour, with salt, capsicum, and garlic. From the expressed juice is prepared a wine; and the remainder of the kernel can be reduced to an excellent flour for the making of bread.

MANGOSTANA. See Mangosteen.

MANGOSTEEN. A fruit about the size of an orange, which grows in great abundance on the tree called Garcinia Mangostana by Linneaus, in Java and the Molucca islands. According to the concurring testimonies of all travellers, it is the most exquisitely flavoured, and the most salubrious of all fruits, it being such a delicious mixture of the tart and sweet. The flesh is juicy, white, almost transparent, and of a more delicate and agreeable flavour than the richest grape. It is eaten in almost every disorder, and the dried bark is used medicinally in dysenteries and tenesmus, and a strong decoction of it is much esteemed as a gargle in ulcerated sore throats.

Mangosteen bark. See Mangosteen.

MANIA. (From μ21/10/221, to rage.) Raving or furious madness. A genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order vesamic of Cullen. The definition of mania is delirium, unaccompanied with fever; but this does not seem altogether correct, as a delirium may prevail without any frequency of pulse, or fever; as happens sometimes with women in the hysteric disease. In mania, the mind is not perfectly master of all its functions; it receives impressions from the senses, which are very different from those produced in health;

the judgment and memory are both lost, and the irritability of the body is much diminished, being incapable, it is supposed, of resisting the usual morbid effects of cold, hunger, and watching, and being likewise less susceptible of other diseases than before.

Mania may be said to be a false perception of things, marked by an incoherence, or raving, and in a resistance of the passions to the command of the will, accompanied, for the most part, with a violence of action, and furious resentment at restraint.

There are two species of madness, viz.

the metancholic and furious.

Machess is occasioned by affections of the mind, such as anxiety, grief, love, religion, terror, or enthusiasm; the frequent and uncurbed indulgence in any passion, or emotion, and by abstruse study. It short, it may be produced by any thing that affects the mind so forcibly as to take off its attention from all other affairs. Violent exercise, frequent intoxication, a sedentary life, the suppression of periodical and ocsasional discharges and secretions, excessive evacuations, and paralytic seizures, are likewise enumerated as remote Certain diseases of the febrile kind have been found to occasion madness, where their action has been very violent. In some cases it proceeds from an hereditary predisposition. Two constitutions are particularly the victims of madness; the sanguine and melancholic; by the difference of which its appearance is somewhat modified. Each species of mania is accompanied with particular symptoms. Those which attend on the melancholic are, sadness, dejection of spirits, and its at-Those which accompany an attack of furious madness arc, severe pains in the head, redness of the face, noise in the ears, wildness of the countenance, rolling and glistening of the eyes, grinding of the teeth, loud roaring, violent exertion of strength, absurd, incoherent discourse, nuaccountable malice to certain persons, particularly to the nearest relatives and friends, a dislike to such places and scenes as formerly afforded particular pleasure, a diminution of the irritability of the body, with respect to the morbid effects of cold, hunger and watching, together with a full, quick pulse.

Mania comes on at different periods of life; but, in the greater number of cases, it makes its attack between thirty and forty years of age. Females appear to be more subject to mania than males.

Dissections of maniacal cases, Dr. Thomas observes, most generally shew an effusion of water into the cavities of the brain; but, in some cases, we are able to discover evident marks of previous in-

flammation, such as thickening and opacity of the tunica arachnoides and pia mater. In a few instances, a preternatural hardness of the substance of the brain.

From Dr. Greding's observations, it appears that the skulls of the greater number of such persons are commonly very thick. Some he found of a most extraordinary degree of thickness; but it appears that the greater number of insune people die of atrophy and hydrothorax.

MANIHOT. The latrophe manihot.

MANIPULUS. (Quad manum, implest b

Manipulus. (Quod manum, implest, because it fills the hand.) A handful.

Manjapumeram. A common tree in the the West Indies, the flowers of which are distilled, and the water used against in-

flammations of the eyes.

MANNA. (From mano, a gift, Syr. it being the rood given by God to the children of Israel in the wilderness; or from malma, what is it? an exclamation occasioned by their wonder at its appearance.) Manna calabrina. Ros calabrinus. Acromeli. Alusar. Drysomeli. That species which is of of a rosy colour, is called nuba. Mel aerium. from the supposition that it descended from heaven. The condensed juice of the flowering ash, or, Fraxinus ornus: -follis ovato-oblongis serratis petiolatis, floribus corrollatis. Hort. Kew, which is a native of the southern parts of Europe, particularly Sicily and Calabria. Many other trees and shrubs have likewise been observed to emit a sweet juice, which concretes upon exposure to the air, and may be considered of the manna kind, especially the Fraxinus rotundifolia and excelsior. In Sicily, these three species of fraxinus are regularly cultivated for the purpose of procuring manna, and with this view are planted on the declivity of a hill with an eastern aspect. After ten years growth, the trees first begin to yield the manna, but they require to be much older, before they afford it in any considerable quantity. Although the manna exudes spontaneously upon the trees, yet, in order to obtain it more copiously, incisions are made through the bark, by means of a sharp crooked instrument; and the season thought to be most favourable for instituting this process is a little before the dog-days commence, when the weather is dry and serene. Manna is generally distinguished into different kinds, viz. the manna in tear, the canulated and flaky manna, and the common brown or fat manna. All these varieties seem rather to depend upon their respective purity, and the circumstance in which they are obtained from the plant, than upon any essential difference of the drug. The best manna is in oblong pieces, or flakes, moderately dry, friable, very light, of a whitish or pale vellow colour, and in some degree transparent: the inferior kinds are

moist, unctons, and brown. Manna is well known as a gentle purgative, so mild in its operation, that it may be given with safety to children and pregnant women, to the delicacy of whose frames and situation it is particularly adapted. It is esteemed a good and pleasant auxiliary to the purgative neutral salts. It sheathes aerimony, and is useful in coughs, disorders of the breast, and such as are attended with fever and inflammation, as in pleuritis, &c. Its is particularly efficacious in bilious complaints, and helps the discharge of mineral waters, when they are not of themselves sufficiently active. It is apt to create flatulencies and gripes; both which are prevented by a small addition of some warm carmitive. It purges in doses of from \$\overline{3}\) to \$\overline{3}\overline{j}\); but its purgative quality is much increased, and its flatulent effects prevented, by a small addition of cassia. The dose for children is from one scruple to three. It is best dissolved in whey.

MANNA BRIGANTIACA. A species of manna brought from Brianconois in Dau-

MANNA CALABRINA. Calabrian manna. Flaky mannna, or MANNA CANULATA. manna concreted on straw, or chips.

MANNA SECUNDA. An inferior or second sort of manna.

MANNA THURIS. A coarse powder of olibanum.

MANNIFERA ARBOR. (From manna, and fero, to bear.) The fraxious ornus.

MANSORIUS. (From mando, to chew.) The masseter muscle.

MANTILE. The name of a bandage. Manus ner. A name of a resolvent plaster, which is described by Lemery. Also for opium.

Mapple. See Saccharum canedense. A species of myrtle, grow-MARANDA. ing in the island of Zeylon, a decoction of the leaves of which are said to be excellent

against the venereal disease.

MARANTA. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Order, Monogynia. Monandria.

2. The name of the Indian arrow-root. There are three species of Maranta, the Arun linacea, Galanga, and Comesa, all of their herbaceous, perennial exotics of the Indies, kept here in hot-houses for curiosity; they have thick, knotty, creeping roots, crowned with long, broad, arandinaccous leaves, ending in points, and upright stalks half a yard high, terminated by bunches of monopetalous, ringent, fiveparted flowers. They are propagated by parting the roots in spring, and planting them in pots of light rich earth, and then plunging them in the bark-bed. The root of the Maranta Galanga, commonly called arrow-root, is used by the Indians to extract the virus communicated by their

poisoned arrows, from whence it has obtained its name. It is cultivated in gardens and provision-grounds in the West Indies; and the starch is obtained from it by the following process: The roots, when a year old, are dug up, well washed in water, and then beaten in a large deep "noden mortar to a pulp; this is thrown into a large tub of clean water: the whole is then well stirred, and the fibrous part wrung out by the hands, and thrown away. The nilky liquor being passed through a hair sieve, or coarse cloth, is suffered to settle, and the clear water drained off. At the bottom of the vessel is a white mass, which is again mixed with clean water, and drained: lastly, the mass is dried on sheets in the sun, and is pure starch.

Arrow-root contains, in small bulk, a greater proportion of nourishment than any other yet known. The powder, boiled in water, forms a very pleasant transparent jelly, very superior to that of sago or tapioca; and is much recommended as a nutritious diet for children and invalids. The jelly is made in the following manner: to a desert spoonful of powder, add as much cold water as will make it into a paste; then pour on half a pint of boiling water: stir it briskly, and boil it a few minutes, when it will become a clear smooth jelly; a little sugar and sherry wine may be added for debilitated patients; but for infants, a drop or two of essence of caraway-seeds. or cinnamon, is preferable, wine being very liable to become acescent in the stomachs of infants, and thus disagree with the bowels. Fresh milk, either alone or diluted with water, may be substituted for the water. For very debilitated frames, and especially for rieketty children, this jelly, blended with an animal jelly, as that of the stag's horn (rasuræ cornu cervi,) affords a more nutritious diet than arrowroot alone, which may be done in the following manner: Boil half an ounce of stag's horn shavings, in a pint of water, for fifteen minutes; then strain, and add two desert spoonfuls of arrow-root powder, previously well mixed with a tea-cupful of water; stir them briskly together, and boil them for a few minutes. If the child should be much troubled with flatulency, two or three drops of essence of carawayseeds, or a little grated nutmeg, may be added; but for adults, port wine, or brandy, will answer best.

MARASMUS. (From mogano, to grow lean.) Atrophia. Emaciation. A wasting away of the flesh, without fever or apparent disease. See Atrophy.

MERATRITES. (From μαςαθεον, fennel.) A vinous infusion of fennel; or wine impregnated with fennel.

MARATHROPHYLLUM. (From magabou, fennel, and puncer, a leaf; so named because its leaves resemble those of the common fennel.) See Peucedanum officinale.

MARATHRUM. (From μαςαινώ, to wither; so called because its stalk and flowers wither in the autumn.) See Faniculum.

MARATHRUM SYLVESTRE. See Peucedanum.

MARBLE. Powdered marble, which is a carbonate of lime, is used in pneumatic medicine, to give out carbonic acid gaz.

Marcasite. See Bismuth.

MARCASSITA. (From marcasite, Germ.) See Bismuth.

MARCHANTIA POLYMORPHA. The systematic name of the liver-wort. See Hepati-

MARCORES. (From marceo, to become lean.) Universal emaciation. The first order in the class cachexia of Cullen's nosology.

Marestail. See Equisetum

MARGARITA. (From margalith, Rab.) 1. The pearl; Perla. Unio. A small calcar ous concretion, of a bright transparent whiteness, found on the inside of the shell Concha margaritifera of Linnæus, or mother-of-pearl fish. Pearls were formerly exhibited as antacids.

2. A tumour upon the eye resembling a

pearl.

MARIGOLD, MARSH. Caltha palustris of Linnæus. The flower buds of this very common plant may be pickled as a good substitute for capers.

Marine acid. See Muriatic acid. Marine salt. See Murias soda.

MARIPENDAM. A plant in the island of St. Domingo: its tops are distilled, and thus a water is obtained, which is held in great esteem against pains in the stomach.

Marisca. An excrescence about the anus, or the piles in a state of tumefaction;

the Hamorrhois tumens of Cullen.

Marisicum. The merculiaris f uticos?. Marjoram, sweet. See Majorana. Marjoram, wild. See Origanum.

MARJORANA. See Origanum.

The pulp of quinces, or MARMALADE. any other fruit, boiled into a consistence with honey.

MARMARYGE.. (From pagpage, to shine.) An appearance of sparks, or coruscations,

flushing before the eyes,

MARMOLARIA. (From marmor, marble; so named because it is spotted like marble.) Bear's-breech. See Acanthus mol-

(From marmor.) MARMORATA AURIUM. Ear-wax.

MARMORIGE. A variety of the Pseudoblepsis Imaginaria, in which sparks and flashes of fire are supposed to present themselves.

MARMOREUS TARTARUS. The hardest species of human calculus.

A purgative extract MAROCOSTINUM. made of the marum and costus; originally made by Mindereus.

The fat sub-MARROW. Medulla. stance secreted by the small arteries of its proper membrane, and contained in the medullary cavities of the long cylindrical bones. See Bones.

Marrow, spinal. See Medulla spinalis.

MARRUBIASTRUM. Ballota, or stinking horehound.

MARRUBIUM. ((From marrob, a bitter jnice, Heb.) Mauro-marson. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the common white horehound. Marrubium album. Marrubium vulgare of Linnaus:dentibus calcynis setaceis uncinatis. The leaves of this indigenous plant have a moderately strong smell of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable; which, by drying, is improved; and in keeping for some months is in great part dissipated; their taste is very bitter, penetrating, diffusive, and durable in the mouth. That horehound possesses some share of medicinal power, may be inferred from its sensible qualities, but its virtues do not appear to be clearly ascertained. It is a favourite remedy with the common people in coughs and asthmas. The usual dose is from half an ounce to an ounce, in infusion, two or three times a day. The dose of the extract is from gr. x to 3ss.

MARRUBIUM ALBUM. See Marrubium. MARRUBIUM AQUATICUM. Water hore-

hound; opening, corroborant.

MARRUBIUM HISPANICUM. Mad-wort. or Spanish horehound.

MARRUBIUM NIGRUM FŒTIDUM. black stinking horehound, or ballota.

MARRUBIUM VERTICILLATUM. bium hispanicum. The base horehound. Galen's madwort.

The systematic MARRUBIUM VULGARE. name of the common horehound. See Marrubium.

MARS. The alchemists gave this name to iron.

MARS ALKALIZATUS SOLUBILIS. Iron and fixed alkali.

MARS SACCHARATUS. Iron mixed with

starch and melted sugar. MARS SOLUBILIS. Ferrum tartarizatum. Iron filings, and MARS SULPHURATUS.

sulphur dephiagrated. Marseilles hart-wort. See Seseli massi-

Marsh-mallow. See Althea.

Marsh trefoil. See Trefolium paludosum. MARSUPIALIS. (Marsupialis, sc musculus; from marsupium, a purse; so named from its resemblance.) See Obturator internus.

MARTAGON LILY. Lilium martagon of Linnæus, who informs us the root makes part of the daily food of the Siberians.

MARTIAL. Sometimes used to express preparations of iron, or such as are impregnated therewith; as the Martial Regulus of antimony, &c.

MARTIATUM UNGUENTUM. Soldiers' ointment. Ointment of laurel, rue, mar-

joram, &c.

MARTIS ESSENTIA. A solution of lead in acid. MARTIS LIMATURA PRÆPARATA. Puri-

fied filings of iron. MARUM CRETICUM.

See Marum Syri-

MARUM SYRIACUM. (From mar, bitter, Heb.) Marum creticum. Majorana syriaca. Marum verum. Marum Coortusi. Chamædrys incana maritima. Marum germander, or Syrian herb mastich. This shrub is the Teucrium marum of Linnaus: -foliis integerrimis ovatis acutis petiolatis, subtus tomentoris, floribus sacemosis secundis. It grows plentifully in Greece, Ægypt, Crete, and Syria. The leaves and younger branches, when recent, on being rubbed betwixt the fingers, emit a volatile aromatic smell, which readily excites sneezing; to the taste they are bitterish, accompanied with a sensation of heat and acrimony. Judging from these sensible qualities of the plant, it may be supposed to possess very active powers. It is recommended as a stimulant, aromatic, and deobstruent; and Linnæus, Rosenstein, and Bergins, speak highly of its utility. Dose, ten grains to half a drachm of the powdered leaves, given in wine. At present, however, marum is chiefly used as an errhine.

MARUM VERUM. See Marum syriacum. MARUM VULGARE Common herb mastich. Sampsuchus. Clinopodium mastichina gallorum. Thumbra hispanica. Jaca indica. Thymus mastichina of Linnæus. A low shrubby plant, a native of Spain, which is employed as an errhine. It has a strong agreeable smell, like mastich. Its virtues are similar to those of marum

syriacum, but less powerful.

Maryisum. Malmsey wine.

Maschale, (Μασχαλη.) The arm-pit.

Maschalister. (From μασχαλιςης.) The second vertebræ of the back.

MASLACH. A medicine of the opiate kind,

in use amongst the Turks.

MASPETAM. Maspetum. The leaves of

the asafætida plant.

MASSA. (From μασσω, to blend together.) A mass. A term generally applied to the compound out of which pills are to be formed.

MASSA CARNEA JACOBI SYLVII. Flexor longus digitorum pedis.

Massalis. A name for mercury.

MASSETER. (From μασσαομαι, to chew; because it assists in chewing.) Zigomato-maxillaire of Dumas. A muscle of the lower jaw, situate on the side of the face. It is a short thick muscle, which arises, by fleshy and tendinous fibres, from the lower edge of the malar process of the maxillary bone, the lower horizontal edge of the os malz, and the lower edge of the zygomatic process of the temporal bone, as far backwards as the eminence belonging to the articulation of the lower jaw. From some little interruption in the fibres of this muscle, at their origin, some writers describe it as arising by two, and others by three, distinct portions, or heads. The two layers of fibres of which it seems to be composed cross each other as they descend, the external layer extending backwards, and the internal one slanting forwards. It is inserted into the basis of the coronoid process, and into all that part of the lower jaw which supports the coronoid and condyloid processes. Its use is to raise the lower jaw, and, by means of the above-mentioned decussation, to move it a little forwards and backwards in the act of chewing.

Massicot. Calcined white lead.

MASSOY CORTEX. See Cortex massoy. Masterwort. See Imperatoria.

MASTICATION. (Masticatio; from mastico, to chew.) Chewing. A natural function. The mixing together and dividing of the particles of the food in the mouth, by the action of the jaws, tongue, lips, and cheeks. By means of this function, the food is lacerated and mixed with the saliva and the mucus of the mouth and fauces, and thus made into a bole of such a consistence as to be formed into a convenient size to be swallowed. See Deginti-

MASTICATORIES. (Masticatoria, sc. medicamenta; from Mastico, to chew.) Such medicines as are intended for chew-

MASTICHE. (From μασσω, to ex-Mastich. The tree press.) Mastix. which affords this resin is the Pistachia lentiscus; foliis abrupte pinnatis, foliis lan-ceolatis of Linnaus. A native of the south of Europe. In the island of Chio the officinal mastich is obtained most abundantly, and, according to Tournefort, by making transverse incisions in the bark of the tree, from whence the mastich exudes in drops, which are suffered to run down to the ground, when, after sufficient time is allowed for their concretion, they are col-lected for use. Mastich is brought to us in small, yellowish, transparent, brittle tears, or grains; it has a light agreeable smell, especially when rubbed, or heated; on bein chewed, it first crumbles, soon after sticks together, and becomes soft

and white, like wax, without impressing any considerable taste. It is considered to be a mild corroborant and adstringent; and, as possessing a balsamic power, it has been recommended in hæmoptysis, proceeding from ulceration, lencorrhæa, debility of the stomach, and in diarrheas and internal ulcerations. Chewing this drug has likewise been said to have been of use in pains of the teeth and gums, and in some catarrhal complaints: it is, however, in the present day, seldom used either externally or internally. The wood abounds with the resinous principle, and a tincture may be obtained from it, which is esteemed in some countries in the cure of hæmorrhages, dysenteries, and gout.

Mastich tree. See Mastiche.

Mastich herb, common. See Marum vul-

Mastich herb, Syrian. See Marum Syri-

Mastich wood. See Mastiche.

(From masixn, mas-MASTICHELÆUM. MASTICHELÆUM. (From μαςιχη, tich, and ελαιον, oil.) Oil of mastich.

MASTICHIA. (From μασιχη, mastich; so called because it smells like mastich.) Nux virginiana, or mastich of ligon.

MASTICHINA. (Dim. of mastiche.) Mastichina gallorum marum, or mastich thyme. See Marum vulgare.

Masticot. See Massicot. MASTIX. See Mastiche.

MASTODYNIA. (From M2505. breast, and odown, pain.) Phlegmon of the breast of women. This disease may take place at any period of life, but it most commonly affects those who give suck. It is characterized by tumefaction, tension, heat, redness, and pain; and comes sometimes in both breasts, but most commonly in one. Pyrexia generally attends the disease. It is sometimes very quickly formed, and in general without any thing preceding to shew it; but now and then a slight shivering is the forerunner. This disease terminates either in resolution, in suppuration, or schirrus. If the disease is left to itself, it generally terminates in suppuration.

The causes which give rise to this disease are those which give rise to most of the phlegmasiz, as cold, violent blows, &c. women who are lying in, or giving suck, it mostly arises either from a suppression of the lochia or a retention of milk. Mastodynia is often of long continuance; it is a very prinful disease, but it is seldom fatal, unless when absolutely neglected, when it may run into scirrhus, and finally cancer. The termination of the disease by gangrene is never to be apprehended; at least few, if any, have seen the disease terminate in this

way.

MASTOID. (Mastoideus; from masos, a breast, and edos, resemblance.) 1. Those processes of bones are so termed that are shaped like the nipple of the breast.

2. The name of a muscle which is insert-

ed into the mastoid process.

MASTOIDÆUM FORAMEN. A hole in the temporal bone of the skull.

MASTOIDEUS LATERALIS. A name for the

complexus.

MASTOIDEUS. (From masoidus, the mas-See Sterno-cleido-mastoitoid process.)

MATALISTA RADIX. A root said to be imported from America, where it is given as a purgative, its action being rather milder than that of jalap.

MATER. (Marne, a mother.) Two membranes of the brain had this epithet given them by the Arabians, who thought they gave origin to all other membranes of the body. See Dura mater and Pia mater. Also a name of the herb mugwort, because of its virtue in disorders of the womb.

MATER DURA. See Dura mater.

MATER HERBARUM. Artemisia, or common mugwort.

MATER METALLORUM. Quicksilver. MATER PERLARUM. Mother of pearl. The concha margaritifera.

MATER PIA. See Pia mater.

MATERIA PERLATA. If, instead of crystallizing the salts contained in the liquor separated from diaphoretic antimony, an acid be poured into it, a white precipitate is formed, which is nothing else but a very refractory calx of antimony.

MATERIATURA. Castellus explains morbi materiaturæ to be diseases of intempe-

MATERIA MEDICA. By this term is understood a general class of substances, both natural and artificial, which are used in the cure of diseases.

Cartheuser, Newman, Lewis, Gleditsch, Linnæus, Vogel, Alston, and other writers on the Materia Medica, have been at much labour to contrive arrangements of these articles. Some have arranged them according to their natural resemblances; others according to their real or supposed virtues; others according to their active constituent

principles.

These arrangements may have their peculiar advantages. The first may be preferred by the natural historian, the second by the physiologist, and the last by the The pharmacopæias published by the Colleges of Physicians of London, Dublin, and Edinburgh, have the articles of the Materia Medica arranged in alphabetical order; this plan is also adopted by almost all the continental pharmacopaias.

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Dr. Cullen has arranged the Materia Medica as follows :--
         NUTRIMENTS, which are
                        Food,
                        Drinks.
                        Condiments;
          MEDICINES which act on the
              Solids,
                            Simple, as
                                   Astringents,
                                   Tonics,
                                   Emmollients,
                                   Corrosives;
                            Living, as
                                   Stimulants,
                                   Sedatives,
                                          Narcotics,
                                          Refrigerants,
                                   Antispasmodics.
              Fluids,
                     Producing a change by
                       fluidity,
                                Attenuants.
                                 Inspissants.
                       Mixture,
                              Correctors of Acrimony,
                                     Demulcents,
                                     Antacids.
                                     Antalkalines,
                                     Antiseptics.
                     Evacuants, viz.
                                     Errhines,
                                     Sialogogues,
                                     Expectorants
                                     Emetics,
                                     Cathartics,
                                     Diuretics,
                                     Diaphoretics,
                                     Menagogues.
    The following is the list of articles which come under the preceding classes :-
  I. NUTRIMENTS.
                               Olives
                                                           2. Tonics.
z. FRUITS.
                                   II. MEDICINES.
                                                             Gentian
  a. Fresh, sweet, acidulous, 1. ASTRINGENTS.
                                                             Lesser centaury
    35
                               Red rose
                                                             Quassia
  Prunes
                               Cinquefoil
                                                             Simarquba
  Oranges
                               Tormentil
                                                             Marsh trefoil
  Lemons
                               Madder
                                                             Fumatory
  Raspberries
                                                             Camomile
                               Sorrel
  Red and black currants
                                                             Tansy
                               Water-dook
  Mulberries
                               Bisturt
                                                             Wormwood
  Grapes
                                                             Southernwood
                               Fern
  b. Dried, sweet, acidulous,
                                                             Sea-wormwood
                               Granate
    ns
                               Oak-bark
                                                             Water-germander
  Raisins
                               Galls
                                                             Virginian snakeroot
  Currants
                               Logwood
                                                             Leopard's bane
  Figs.
                               Quince
                                                             Peruvian bark.
3. OLERACIOUS HERBS.
                               Mulberry
                                                          3. EMOLLIENTS.
  Water-cresses
                                                             Columniferous,
                               Sloe
  Dandelion
                               Gum-arabic
                                                             Marsh mallow
  Parsley
                               Catechu
                                                             Mallow.
  Artichoke.
                                                             Farinaceous,
                               Dragon's blood
y. Roots,
                               Alkanet
                                                             Quince-seeds
  Carrot
                               Balustine flower
                                                             Fænu greek-seed
  Garlick
                               St. John's wort
                                                             Linseed.
                               Millefoil
  Satyrion.
                                                             Various emollients,
J. SEEDS and NUTS,
                               Plantain
                                                             Pellitory
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Almonds, sweet and bitter

Walnuts

Convallaria

Bear's berrry.

Verbascum

White lily

4. Corrosives. 5. STIMULANTS. A. Verticillated. Lavender Balm

Marjoram Sweet marjoram Syrian herb Rosemary Hyssop Ivy Mint Peppermint

Pennyroyal Thyme Mother of thyme

Sage. Umbellated, Fennel Archangel Anise Caraway Coriander Cumin Dill Saxafrage. Siliquose, Horse raddish Water-cresse Mustard Scurvy-grass.

Coniferous, Fir Juniper. Balsamics, Venice turpentine.

Aliacious,

Garlick.

Common turpentine Canada balsam Copaiba balsam Tolu balsam Baim of Gilead.

Resinous, Guaiacum Ladanum Storax Benzoin. Aromatics Cinnamon Nutmeg Mace

Clove Allspice Canella Cascarilla Black pepper

Long pepper Indian pepper Ginger Lesser Cardamom

Zedoary Virginian snake-root

Aromatic reed Acrids, Wake robin

Ginseng

Pellitory Stavesacre Sedatives.

6. NARCOTICS. Rhaadaceous, White poppy Red poppy Umbellated, Hemlock Water hemlock.

Solinaceous. Belladonna Henbane

Tobacco Bitter-sweet Stramonium. Varia.

Laurel Camphire Saffron Wine.

7. REFRIGERANTS. Fruits of plants

Acidulous herbs and fruits. 8. Antispasmodics. Fætid herbs. Worm-wood

Fætid goosefoot Cumin Pennyroyal Rue Savine. Fætid gums, Asafætida Galbanum

Opopanax Valerian. 9. DILUENTS. 10. ATTENUANTS.

Alkalis Sugar Liquorice Dried fruits. 11. INSPISSANTS.

Acids Farinaceous and mucila-

ginous demulcents, 12. Demulcents. Mucilaginous, Gum arabic -tragacanth. Farinaceous, Bland oils. 13. ANTACIDS.

14. ANTALKALINES. 15. ANTISEPTICS. Acid parts of plants

Acescent herbs

Siliquous plants Ahiacious plants Astringents Bitters Aromatics

Essential oils Camphor Gum resins

Saffron Contrayerva Valerian Opium Wine

16. ERRHINES. Asarabacca White hellebore Water iris

Pellitory. 17. SIALOGOGUES. Archangel Cloves Imperatory Tobacco Pepper

Pellitory 18. EXPECTORANTS. Ivy

Horehound Penny-royal Elecampane Florentine oris-root

Tobacco Squill Coltsfoot Benzoin Storax Canada balsam Tolu balsam.

19. EMETICS. Asarabacca Ipecacuan Tobacco Squill Mustard Horse-raddish Bitters.

20. CATHARTICS. Milder, Mild acid fruits Cassia pulp Tamarind Dulcious Sugar Manna Sweet roots

Bland oils Damask rose Violet. Polypody Mustard

Bitters Balsamics. Acrid. Rhubarb Seneka Broom Elder

Castor-oil Senna Black hellebore Jalap

Scammony Buckthorn Tobacco White hellebore

Coloquint Elaterium. 21. DIURETICS. Parsley Carrot Fennel Pimpinel Eryngo Madder Varia Burdock Bitter-sweet Wake-robin

Asarabacca

Tobacco Rue Savine Snake-root Squill Bitters Balsamics Siliquosæ Alliaciæ. 22. DIAPHORETICS. Saffron Bitter-sweet

Opium Camplior

Foxgiove Contrayerva The following is the arrangement of the Materia Medica, according to J. Murray, in his Elements of Materia Medica and Pharmacy

A. General stimulants.

a. Diffusible  $\begin{cases} Narcotics. \\ Antispasmodics \end{cases}$ b. Permanent { Tonic Astringent. B. Local stimulants. Emetics Carthartics Emnienagogues Diuretics

Diaphoretics Expectorants Sialogogues Errhmes Epispastics.

c. Chymical remedies. Refrigerents Antacids

Lithontriptics. Escharotics.

D. Mechanical remedies. Anthelmintics. Demulcents Dituents Emollients.

Under the head of Nancorics are in-

cluded--

Alkohol. Ether. Camphor, Papaver somniferum. Hyoscyamus niger. Auropa Confum belladona. Aconitum napellus. maculatum. Digitalis purpurea. Nicotiana tabacum. Lactuca virosa. Datura Rhododendrum chrysanstramonium. thum. Rhus toxicodendron. Arnica mon-Strychnos nux vomica. Prunus lauro cerassus.

Under the second class, Antispasmonics, are included-Moschus. Castoreum, Ole-Petrole. um animale empyreumaticum. um Ammonia. Ferula asafoetida. gapenum. Bubon galbanum. Valeriana officinalis. Crocus sativus. Melaleuca leucadendron.

. Narcotics used as Antispasmodics-Ether. Camphor. Opium.

Tonics used as Antispasmodics-Cuprum. Zincum. Hydrargyrus. Cinchona.

The head of Toxics embrace-1. From the mineral kingdom,

Serpentary Sage

Water germander Guaiacum

Sassafras Seneka Vegetable acids Essential oil

Wine Diluents.

23. EMMENAGOGUES. Aioe

Fætid gums Fœtid plants Saffron.

Calx. Arsenicum. Barytes. Acidum. Oxy-murias potassæ. Nitricum.

2. From the vegetable kingdom,

Cinchona officinalis. Cinchona caribæa. Cincliona floribunda. Angustura. Aristolochia serpentaria. Dortenia contrayerva. Croton eleutherla. Calomba. Quassia excelsa. Quassia Simarouba. tenia febrifuga. Swietenia mahagoni. Gentiana leutea. Anthemis nobilis. Artemesia absıntlıium. Chironia centaurium. Marrubium vulgare. Menyanthes trifoliata. Centaurea benedicta. Citrus aurantium. Citrus medica. Laurus cinnamomum. Laurus cassia. Canella alba. Acorus calamus. Amomum zinziber. Kæmferia rotunda. Santalum album. Pterocarpus santalinus. Myristica moschata. Caryophyllus aromaticus. Capsicum annuum. Piper nigrum. Piper longum. Piper cubeba. Myrtus pimenta. Amomum repens. Carum carui. Coriandrum sativum. Pimpenella anisum. Anethum fæniculum. Anethum graveolens. Cuminum cyminum. Angelica archangelica. Mentha piperita. Mentha viridis. Mentha pulegium. Hyssopus officinalis.

The class of ASTRINGENTS comprehends

the following :-

1. From the vegetable kingdom. Quercus rubor. Quercus cerris. Tormentilla erecta. Polygonum bistorta. Anchusa tinctoria. Hæmatoxylon campechianum. Rosa gallica. Arbutus uva Mimosa catechu. Kino. l'teroursi. carpus draco. Ficus indica. Pistachia lentiscus.

From the mineral kingdom.

Acidum sulphuricum. Argilla. Super sulplias argillæ et potassæ. Calx. nas calcis. Plumbum. Zincum. Ferrum. Cuprum.

The articles which come under the head of Emmerics are,

I. From the vegetable kingdom.

Callicocca ipecacuanha. Scilla maritima. Anthenus nobilis. Sinapis alba. Europœum. Nicotiana tabacum.

2. From the mineral kingdom.

Antimonium. Sulphas zinci. Sulphas cupri. Subacetas cupri. Ammenia, Hy-Hydrargyrus, Ferrum, Zmcum, Cuprum, dro-sulphuretum ammonia.

CATHATRTICS include

Laxatives. Manna. Cassia fistula.

Tamarindus Indica. Ricinus communis.

Sulphur. Magnesia.

Purgatives. Cassia senna. Rheum paltum. Convolvolus jalapa. Helleborus niger. Brionia alba. Cucumis colocynthis Momordica elaterium. Rhainmus catharticus. Aloe perfoliata. Convolvolus scammonia. Gambojia gutta. Submurias hydrargyri. Sulphas magnesia, Sulphas sodæ. Sulphas potasæ. Supertartris potassæ. Tartris potassæ et sodæ. Murias sodæ. Terebinthina veneta. Nicotiana tabacum,

The medicines arranged under EMMENA-

GOGUES are,

 From the class of Antispasmodics, Castoreum. Ferula asafætida. Bubon galbanum.

2. From the class of Tonics,

Ferrum. Hydrargyrus. Cinchona officinalis.

3. From the class of Cathartics,

Aloe. Helleborus niger. Sinapis alba. Rosmarinus officinalis. Rubia tinctorum. Ruta graveolens. Juniperus sabinæ.

The class of DIURETICS includes,

1. Saline diuretics.

Supertartris potassæ. Nitras potassæ. Murias ammoniæ. Acetis potassæ. Potasssa.

a. From the vegetable kingdom,

Scilla maritima. Digitalis purpurea. Nicotiana tabaccum. Solanum dulcamara. Latuca virosa. Colchicum autumnale. Gratiola officinalis. Spartium scoparium. Juniperus conumnis. Copaifera officinalis. Pinus balsamea. Pinus larix.

b. From the animal kingdom.

Meloe vesicatorius.

Under the class DIAPHORETICS are,

Ammonia. Murias ammoniæ. Acetis ammoniæ. Citras ammoniæ. Submurias lydrargyri. Antimonium. Opium. Camphor. Guaiacum officinale. Dapline mazereum. Smilax sarsaparilla. Laurus sassafras. Cochlearia armoracia. Salvia officinalis.

The class Expectorants comprehends, Antimonium. Ipecacuanha Nicotiana tabaccum. Digitalis purpurea. Scilla maritima. Allium sativum. Polygala senega. Ammoniacum. Myrrha. Styrax benzoin. Styrax officinalis. Toluferia balsamum. Myroxylen peruiferum. Amyris gilcadensis.

The articles of the class SIALAGOGUES are, Hydrargyrus, Anthemis pyrethrum. Arum maculatum. Amomum zinziber. Dapline mezcreum. Nicotiana tabaccum.

The class of Errhines are, Iris florentina. Æsculus hippocastanum Origanum majorana. Lavendula spica. Asarum Europæum. Veratrum album. Nicotiana tabaccum. Euphorbia officinalis.

In the class Epispastics and Ruberacients are, Meloe vesicatorius. Ammonia. Pix Burgundica. Sinapis alba. Al-

lium sativum.

Refrigerants are constituted by the following articles. Citrus aurantium. Citrus medica. Tamarindus Indica. Acidum aceto-um. Supertartris potassæ. Nitras potassæ. Boras sodæ.

The list of articles that come under the class Antacips are, Potassa. Soda. Ammonia. Calx. Carbonas calcis. Mag-

nesia.

In the class Lithontriptics are, Potassa. Carbonas potassæ. Soda. Carbonas

sodæ. Sapo albus. Calx.

In the class Escharotics are, Acida mineralia, Potassa. Nitras argenti. Murias antimonii. Sulphas cupri. Acetis cupri. Murias hydrargyri. Subnitras hydrargyri. Oxydum arsenici album. Juniperus sabina.

In the class Anthelmintics are, Dolichos pruriens. Ferri limatura. Stannum pulveratum. Olea Europæa. Artemesia santonica. Spigelia marilandica. Polypodium filix mas. Tancaetum vulgare. Geoffreca inermis. Gambojia gutta. Submurias lydrargyri.

Demulcents are, Mimosa nilotica. Astragulus tragacantha. Linum usitatissimum. Althæna officinalis. Malva sylvestris. Gylcyrrhiza glabra. Cycas circinalis. Orchis mascula. Maranta arundinacea. Triticum hybernum. Icthyocolla. Olea Europæa. Amygdalus communis.

Sevum ceti. Cera.

Water is the principal article of the class DILUENTS; and as for the last class, ENOLLIENTS, heat conjoined with moisture is the principal, though all unctuous applications may be included.

The New London Pharmacopæia presents us with the following list for the Materia

Medica:—
Abietis resina
Absinthium
Acacia gummi
Acctosæ folia
Acetosella
Acetum
Acidum sulphuricum
Aconiti folia
Adeps
Ærugo

Allie radix
Aloes spicatæ
Aloes vulgaris
Althææ folia
Alumen
Ammoniæ murias
Ammoniacum
Amygdala amara et dulcis
Amylum
Ancthi semina

Anisi semina
Anthemidis flores
Antimonii sulpluretum
Argentum
Armoraciæ radix
Arsenici oxydum
Asara folia
Asafotida gummi
Avenæ senina
Aurantii baccæ

Aurantii cortex Balsamum Peruvianum Balsamum Tolutanum Belladonæ folia Benzoinum Bistorta Cajuputi oleum Calamina Calami radix Calumbæ radix Camphora Canellæ cortex Capsicum baccæ Carbo ligni Cardamines flores Cardamomi semina Caricæ fructus Carici semina Caryopliyli Caryophyli oleum Cascarilla cortex Cassiæ pulpa Castoreum Catechu Centaurii cacumina Cera alba Cera flava Cerevisiæ frumentum

Cinchonæ lancifoliæ cordi- Mentha piperita foliæ et oblongifoliæ cor- Mentha viridis Cinnamomi cortex

Cinnamomi oleum Colchici radix Colocynthidis pulpa Conii folia

Contrayervæ radix Copaiba radix Coriandri semina

Cornua Creta Croci stigmata

Cumini semina Cupri sulphas Cuspariæ cortex Cydoniæ semina Dauci radix Dauci semina Digitalis folia Dolichi pubes Dulcamaræ caulis Elaterii poma

Euphorbiæ gumini resina

Farina Ferrum Filicis radix

Galbani gummi resina

Gallæ

Gentianæ radix Glycyrrhizæ radix Granati cortex Guaiaci resina et lignum Hæmatoxyli lignum

Hellebori fœtidi folia Hellebori nigri radix Hordei semina Humuli strobili Hydrargyrus

Hyoscyami folia et semina Jalapæ radix Ipecacuanliæ radix Juniper bacca et semina

Kino Lapis calcareus Lavendulæ flores Lauri baccæ et folia

Lichen Limones

Limonum cortex Linum catharticum

Lytta Magnesiæ sulphas

Malva Manna Marrubium Mastiche

Mel Menyanthes

Mezerei cortex Mori baccæ Moschus Myristicæ nuclii Myrrha Olibanum Olivæ oleum

Opium Opopanix Origanum Ovum Papaveris capsula

Petroleum Pimentæ baceæ Piperis longi fructus Piper nigrum

Pix arida Pix liquida Plumbum Plumbi carbonas

Porri radix Potassæ nitras Potassæ supertartras

Potassa impura Pterocarpi lignum Pulegium

Pyrethri radix Quassiæ lignum Quereûs cortex Resina flava Rhamni baccæ Rhei radix Rhœados petala Ricini semina et oleum Rosœ caninæ pulpa Rosæ centifoliæ petala

Rosæ gallicæ petala Rosmarini cacumina Rubiæ radix Ruta folia Sabinæ folia Saccharum Salicis cortex Sambuci flores Sapo durus et mollis

Sassafras lignum et radix

Scammoneæ gummi resina Scillæ radix Senegæ radix Sennæ folia Serpentariæ radix

Sarsaparillæ radix

Simaroubæ cortex Sinapis semina Sodæ murias Sodæ boras Sodæ sulphas Soda impura Spartii cacumina

Spigeliæ radix Spiritus rectificatus et tenuis Spongia Stannum

Staphisagriæ semina Styracis balsamum

Succinum Sulphur Tabaci folia Tamarindi pulpa Taraxaci radix

Terebinthina Canadensi et

Testæ Terebinthina vulgaris Terebinthinæ oleum Tormentillæ radix Toxicodendri folia Tragacantha

Tussilago Plumbi oxydum semivitreum Valerianæ radix Veratri radix Violæ flores Vinum Ulmi cortex Uvæ passæ Uvæ ursi folia Zincum Zingiberis radix

affords a mineral water of the acidulous

MATLOCK. A village in Derbyshire went. Several of these springs possess a temperature of 66°. Matlock water scarce. class; its abundant springs same from a ly differs from common good spring water, lime-stone rock, near the banks of the Derin sensible properties. It is extremely transparent, and exhales no vapour, excepting in cold weather. It holds little or no excess of aerial particles; it curdles soap, when first taken up, but it loses this effect upon long keeping, perhaps from the deposition of its calcarcous salts: it appears to differ very little from good spring water, when tasted; and its effects seem referable to its temperature. It is from this latter circumstance that it forms a proper tepid bath for the nervous and irritable, and those of a debilitated constitution; hence it is usually recommended after the use of Bath and Buxton waters, and as preparatory to sea-bathing.

MATRICALIA. (From matrix, the womb.)
Medicines appropriated to disorders of the

MATRICARIA. (From matrix, the womb; so called from its uses in disorders of the womb. Parthenium. Febrifuga. Common fever-few, or febrifuge, and often, but very improperly, feather-few. Mother's wort. The leaves and flowers of this plant Matricaria parthenium :- foliis compositis, planis; foliolis ovatis, incisis; pedunculis ramosis, have a strong, not agreeable, smell, and a moderately bitter taste, both which they communicate, by warm infusion, to water and rectified spirit. The watery infusions, inspissated, leave an extract of considerable bitterness, and which discovers also a saline matter, both to the taste, and in a more sensible manner by throwing up to the surface small crystalline efflorescences in keeping. The peculiar flavour of the matricaria exhales, in the evaporation, and impregnates the distilled water, on which also a quantity of essential oil is found floating. The quantity of spirituous extract, according to Cartheuser's experiments, is only about one-sixth the weight of the dry leaves, whereas the watery extract amounts to near one-half. This plant is evidently the Parthenium of Dioscorides, since whose time it has been very generally employed for medical purposes. In natural affinity, it ranks with camomile and tansy, and its sensible qualities shew it to be nearly allied to them in its medicinal character. Bergius states its virtues to be tonic, stomachic, resolvent, and emmenagogue. It has been given successfully as a vermifuge, and for the cure of intermittents; but its use is most celebrated in female disorders, especially in hysteria; and hence it is supposed to have derived the name matricaria. Its smell, taste, and analysis, prove it to be a medicine of considerable activity; we may therefore say, with Murray-Rarius hodie præscribitur, quam

MATRICARIA CAMMONILLA. The systematic name of the common fever-few. See Chamæmælum vulgare.

MATRICARIA PARTHENIUM. The systematic name of the fever-few. See Matricaria.

MATRIX. (Marng.) The womb. See Uterus.

MATRONALIS. (From matrona, a matron; so called because its smell is grateful to women.) The violet.

MATURANTIA. (From mature, to ripen.) Medicines which promote the sup-

puration of tumours.

MATURATION. (Maturatio; from maturo, to make ripe.) A term in surgery, signifying that process which succeeds inflammation, by which pus is collected in an abscess.

Maudlin. See Ageratum.

MAURO-MARSON. See Marrubium.

MAXILLA. (From μασσαω, to chew.) The jaw.

MAXILLA INFERIOR. Os maxillare inferius. Mandibula. inferior, or lower jaw, which, in its figure, may be compared to a horse-shoe, is at first composed of two distinct bones; but these, soon after birth, unite together at the middle of the chin, so as to form only one bone. The superior edge of this bone has, like the upper jaw, a process, called the alveolar process. This, as well as that of the upper jaw, to which it is in other respects a good deal similar, is likewise furnished with cavities for the reception of the teeth. The posterior part of the bone. on each side, rises perpendicularly into two processes, one of which is called the coronoid, and the other the conduloid, process. The first of these is the highest; it is thin and pointed; and the temporal muscle, which is attached to it, serves to elevate the jaw. The condyloid process is narrower, thicker, and shorter than the other, terminating in an oblong rounded head, which is formed for a moveable articulation with the cranium, and is received into the fore part of the fossa described in the temporal bone. In this joint there is a moveable cartilage, which, being more closely connected to the condyle than to the cavity, may be considered as belonging to the former. This moveable cartilage is connected with both the articulating surface of the temporal bone and the condyle of the jaw, by distinct ligaments arising from its edges all round. These attachments of the cartilage are strengthened, and the whole articulation secured, by an external ligament, which is common to both, and which is fixed to the temporal bone, and to the neck of the condyle. On the inner surface of the ligament, which attaches the cartilage to the temporal bone, and backwards in the cavity, is placed what is commonly called the gland of the joint; at least the ligament is there found to be much more vascular than at any other part. At the bottom of each coronoid process, on its inner part, is a The syste- foramen, or canal, which extends under See Matri- the roots of all the teeth, and terminates at the outer surface of the bone near the

shin. Each of these foramina affords a passes a branch of the fifth pair of nerves, passage to an artery, vein, and nerve, which, together with a small artery, is which send off branches to the several transmitted to the face through the exterteeth.

This bone is capable of a great many motions. The condyles, by sliding from the cavity towards the eminences on each side, bring the jaw horizontally forwards, as in the action of biting; or the condyles only may be brought forwards, while the rest of the jaw is tilted backwards, as is the case when the mouth is open. condyles may also slide alternately backwards and forwards from the cavity to the eminence, and vice versa; so that while one condyle advances, the other moves backwards, turning the body of the jaw from side to side, as in grinding the teeth. The great use of the cartilages seems to be that of securing the articulation, by adapting themselves to the different inequalities in these several motions of the jaw, and to prevent any injuries from friction. This last circumstance is of great importance where there is so much motion, and accordingly this cartilage is found in the different tribes of carnivorous animals, where there is no eminence and cavity, nor other apparatus for grinding.

The alveolar processes are formed of an external and internal plate, united together by thin bony partitions, which divide the processes at the fore part of the jaw into as many sockets as there are teeth. But, at the posterior part, where the teeth have miore than one root, each root has a distinct cell. These processes, in both jaws, begin to be formed with the teeth, accompany them in their growth, and disappear when the teeth fall. So that the loss of the one seems constantly to be attended with

the loss of the other.

MAXILLA SUPERIOR. Os maxillare superius. The superior maxillary bones constitute the most considerable portion of the upper jaw, are two in number, and generally remain distinct through life. Their figure is exceedingly irregular, and not easily to be described. On each of these bones is observed several emi-One of these is at the upper and fore-part of the bone, and, from its making part of the nose, is called the nasal process. Internally, in the inferior portion of this process, is a fossa, which, with the os unguis, forms a passage for the lachry-mal duct. Into this nasal process likewise is inserted the short round tendon of the musculus orbicularis palpebrarum. Backwards and outwards, from the root of the nasal process, the bone helps to form the lower side of the orbit, and this part is therefore called the orbitar process. hind this orbitar process, the bone forms a considerable tuberosity, and at the upper part of this tuberosity, is a channel, which is almost a complete hole. In this channel

which, together with a small artery, is transmitted to the face through the external orbitar foramen, which opens immediately under the orbit. Where the bone on each side is joined to the os mala, and helps to form the cheeks, is observed what is called the malar process. The lower and anterior parts of the bone make a kind of circular sweep, in which are the alveoli, or sockets for the teeth; this is called the ulveolar process. This alveolar process has posteriorly a considerable tuberosity on its internal surface. Above this alveolar process, and just behind the fore-teeth, is an irregular hole, called the foramen incisicum, which separating into two, and sometimes more holes, serves to transmit small arteries and veins, and a minute branch of the fifth pair of nerves, to the nostrils. There are two horizontal lamellæ behind the alveolar process, which, uniting together, form part of the roof of the mouth, and divide it from the nose. tition, being scated somewhat higher than the lower edge of the alveolar process, gives the roof of the mouth a considerable hollowness. Where the ossa maxillaria are united to each other, they project some, what forwards, leaving between them a furrow, which receives the inferior portion of the septum nasi. Each of these bones is hollow, and forms a considerable sinus under its orbiter part. This sinus, which is usually, though improperly, called antrum Highmorianum, is lined with the pi-tuitary membrane. It answers the same purposes as the other sinuses of the nose, and communicates with the nostrils by an opening, which appears to be a large one in the skeleton, but which, in the recent subject, is much smaller. In the fœtus, instead of these sinuses, an oblong depression only is observed at each side of the nostrils, nor is the tuberosity of the alveolar process then formed. On the side of the palate, in young subjects, a kind of fissure may be noticed, which seems to separate the portion of the bone which contains the dentes incisores from that which contains the dentes canini. The fissure is sometimes apparent till the sixth year, but after that period it in general wholly dis-

The ossa maxillaria not only serve to form the cheeks, but likewise the palate, nose, and orbits; and, besides their union with each other, they are connected with the greatest part of the bones of the face and cranium, viz. with the ossa nasi, ossa malarum, ossa unguis, ossa palati, os frontis, os sphenoides, and os ethmoides.

MAXILLARY ARTERIES. Arteriæ maxillariæ. These are the branches of the external carotid. The external maxillary is the fourth branch of the carotid; it proceeds anteriorly, and gives off the facial

or mental, the coronary of the lips, and the angular artery. The internal maxillary is the next branch of the carotid; it gives off the sphano maxillar, the inferior alveolar,

and the spinous artery.

MAXILLARY GLANDS. Glandulæ maxillaria. The glands so called are conglomerate, and are situated under the angles of the lower jaw. The excretory ducts of these glands are called Warthonian, after their discoverer.

MAXILLARY NERVES. Nervi maxillares. The superior and inferior maxiliary nerves are branches of the fifth pair, or tri-The former is divided into the gemini. sphæno-palatine, posterior alveolar, and the infra orbital nerve. The latter is divided into two branches, the internal lingual, and one, more properly, called the inferior maxillary.

May-lily. See Lilium convalium. May-weed. See Cotula fætida.

Mays, Indian. See Zea mays.

Maw worm. See Ascaris vermicularis.

Meadow crowfoot. See Ranunculus pratensis.

Meadow, queen of the. See U Meadow saffron. See Colchicum. See Ulmaria.

Meadow saxifrage. See Saxifraga vul-

Meadow sweet. See U'mari .

MEADOW THISTLE, ROUND LEAVED. The leaves of this plant, Cnicus oleraceus of Linnagus, are boiled, in the northern parts of Europe, and eaten as we do cab-

Measles. See Rubeola.

MEATUS AUDITORIUS EXTERNUS.

See Ear.

MEATUS AUDITORIUS INTERNUS. The internal auditory passage is a small bony canal, beginning internally by a longitudinal orifice at the posterior surface of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, running towards the vestibulum and cochlea, and there being divided into two less cavities by an eminence. The superior and smaller of these is the orifice of the aquaduct of Fallopius, which receives the portio dura of the auditory nerve: the other inferior and larger cavity is perforated by many small holes, through which the portio mollis of the auditory nerve passes into the labyrinth.

MEATUS CÆCUS. A passage in the throat to the ear, called Eustachian's tube.

MEATUS CUTICULARES. The pores of the skin.

MEATUS CYSTICUS. The gall-duct.

MEATUS URINARIUS. In women, this is situated in the vagina, immediately below the symphysis of the pubis, and behind the nymphæ. In men, it is at the end of the glans penis.

Mecca balsam. See Balsam of Gilead. Mechoacan See Mechoacanna.

MACHOACANNA, (From Mechoacan, province in Mexico, whence it is brought.) Jalappa alba. Rhabarbarum album. Mechoacam. The root of a species of convolvulus, Convolvulus Americanus, or Bryonia alba Peruviana, brought from Mexico. possesses aperient properties, and was long used as the common purge of this country, but is now wholly superseded by jalap,

MECHOACANNA NIGRA. See Jalapium. MECON. (From Mayor, buik; so named from the largeness of its head.)

paver, or poppy.

MECONIS. (From MINEW, the poppy; so called because its juice is soporiferous,

like the poppy.) The lettuce.

Meconium. (From μηκων, the poppy.) 1. The inspissated juice of the poppy. Opium. 2. The green excrementitious substance that is found in the large intestines of the fœtus.

MEDIAN NERVE. The second branch

of the brachial plexus.

MEDIAN VEINS. The situation of the veins of the arms is extremely different in most individuals. When a branch proceeds near the bend of the arm, inwardly from the basilic vein, it is termed the basilic medium; and when a vein is given off from the cephalic in the like manner, it is termed the cephalic median. When these two veins are present, they mostly unite just below the bend of the arm, and the common trunk proceeds to the cephalic vein.

The Mediastinum. MEDIANUM.

MEDIASTINUM. (Quasi in medio The membranous septum, formed by the duplicature of the pleura, that divides the cavity of the chest into two parts. It is divided into an anterior and posterior portion.

MEDIASTINUM CEREBRI. The falciform

process of the dura mater.

Medicago. (From medica.) The herb

MEDICAMENTARIA. Pharmacy, or the art of making and preparing medicines.

MEDICAMENTUM. (From medico, to

heal.) A medicine.

MEDICASTER. A false pretender to the

knowledge of medicine; the same as Quack.

MEDICINA DIETETICA. The regulation of regimen, or the non-naturals.

MEDECINA DIASOSTICA. That part of medicine which relates to preserving health.

MEDICINA GYMNASTICA. That part of medicine which relates to exercise.

MEDICINA HERMETICA. The application of chemical remedies.

That part MEDICINA PROPHYLACTICA. of medicine which relates to preserving health.

MEDICINA TRISTITIÆ. Common saffron.

MEDICINE. Any substance that is exhibited with a view to cure or allay the

violence of the disease. It is also very frequently made use of to express the healing art, when it comprehends anatomy, physi-

ology, and pathology.

MEDICINAL DAYS. Such are so called by some writers, wherein the crisis or change is expected, so as to forbid the use of medicines, in order to wait nature's effort, and therefore require all assistance of art to help forward, or prepare the humours for such a crisis: but it is most properly used for those days wherein purging, or any other evacuation, is most conveniently complied with.

MEDICINAL HOURS. Are those wherein it is supposed that medicines may be taken to the greatest advantage, commonly rec-koned in the morning fasting, about an hour before dinner, about four hours after dinner, and at going to bed; but in acute cases, the times are to be governed by the symptoms and aggravation of the distem-

MEDICINALIS. (From medicina.) Medicinal; having a power to restore health, or

remove disease. MEDINA. In Paracelsus it is a species of

MEDINENSIS VENA. (Medinensis; 30 called because it is frequent at Medina.) Dracunculus. Gordius medinensis of Linnaus. The muscular hair-worm. A very singular animal, which, in some countries, inhabits the cellular membrane between the skin and muscles. See Dracunculus.

MEDITULLIUM. (From medius, the

middle. See Diploë.

Medius venter. The middle venter is the thorax, or chest.

Medlar. See Mespilus.

MEDULLA. (Quasi in mediis ossis.) 1. The marrow. See Marrow.

2. The pith or pulp of vegetables.

3. The white substance of the brain is called medulla, or the medullary part, to distinguish it from the cortical.

4. The continuation of the brain, and in the spine, is called medullary spinalis.

MEDULLA CASSLE. The pulp of the cassia

fistularis.

MEDULLA OBLONGATA. The medullary substance, of the same use as the cerebrum, that lies within the cranium, upon the basillary process of the occipital bone. It is formed by the connection of the crura cerebri and crura cerebelli, and terminates in the spinal marrow. It has several eminences, viz. pons varioli, corpora pyramidalia, and corpora olivaria.

MEDULLA SPINALIS. Cerebrum elongatum. Aon. The spinal marrow. A continuation of the medulla oblongata, which descends into the specus vertebralis from the foramen magnum occipitale, to the third vertebra of the loins, where it termi-

nates in a number of nerves, which, from their resemblance, are called canda equina. The spinal marrow is composed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary substance: the former is placed internally. It is covered by a continuation of the dura mater, pia mater, and tunica arachnoidea. The use of the spinal marrow is to give off, through the lateral or intervertebral foramina, thirty pairs of nerves, called cervical, dorsal, lumbar, and sacral nerves.

MEDULLARY. (.Medullaris; from medulla, marrow.) Like unto marrow.

MUDULLARY SUBSTANCE. white or internal substance of the brain is so called.

MEGALOSPLANCHNUS. (From μεγας, great, and σπλαγχνον, a bowel. Having some of the viscera enlarged, from schirrus or other

MEGRIM. A species of cephalalgia, or pain generally affecting one side of the head, towards the eye, or temple, and arising from the state of the stomach.

MEIBOMIUS'S GLANDS. glandulæ. The small glands which are situated between the conjunctive membrane of the eye and the cartilage of the eye-lid, first described by Meibomius.

MEL. See Honey.

Oxymel. "Take of MEL ACETATUM. clarified honey, two pounds; acetic acid, two pints. Boil them down to a proper consistence, in a glass vessel, over a slow fire." This preparation of honey and vinegar possesses aperient and expectorating virtues, and is given, with these intentions, in the cure of humoral asthma, and other diseases of the chest, in doses of one or two drachms. It is also employed in the form of gargle, when diluted with water.

MEL BORACIS. Honey of borax. "Take of borax, powdered, a drachm; clarified honey, an ounce. Mix." This preparation is found very useful in aphthous affections

of the fauces.

MEL DESPUMATUM. Clarified honey; See Honey.

"Take of MEL ROSE. Rose honey. red-rose petals, dried, four ounces; boiling water, three pints; clarified honey, five pounds." Macerate the rose petals in the water, for six hours, and strain; then add the honey to the strained liquor, and, by means of a water-bath, boil it down to a proper consistence. An admirable preparation for the base of various gargles and collutories. It may also be employed with advantage, mixed with extract of bark, or other medicines, to children, who have a natural disgust to medicines.

MEL SCILLE. "Take of clarified honcy, three pounds; vinegar of squills, two pints." Boil them in a glass vessel, with a slow fire, to the thickness of a syrup, nigra. Aperient, expectorant, and detergent virtues, are attributed to the honey of squills. It is given in doses of two or three drachms, along with some aromatic water, as that of cinnamon, to prevent the great nausea which it would otherwise be apt to excite. In large doses it proves emetic.

MELA. (From  $\mu\alpha\alpha$ , to search.)

probe.

MELÆNA. (From μελας, black.) The black vomit. The black disease. Hippocrates applies this name to two diseases. In the first, the patient vomits black bile, which is sometimes bloody and sour; sometimes he throws up a thin saliva; and at others a green bile, &c. In the second, the patient is as described in the article Morbus Niger.

MELAINA NOSOS. See Melana.

MELALEUCA LEUCADENDRON. The systematic name of the plant which affords the

cajeput oil. See Cajeput oil.

Melamphyllum. (From μελας, black, and φυλλου, a leaf; so named from the blackness of its leaf.) Bear's-breech. See Acanthus mollis.

MELAMPODIUM. (From Melampus, the shepherd who first used it.) Black helle-

bore. See Helleborus niger.

MELANAGOGA. (From μελας, black, and ω, to expel.) Medicines which purge aya, to expel.) off black bile.

MELANCHLORUS. (Μελαγχλωςος.) A livid colour of the skin. The black jaundice.

MELANCHOLIA. (From µExas, black, and xwan, bile; because the ancients supposed that it proceeded from a redundance of black bile,) Melancholy madness. A disease in the class neuroses, and order Vesania, of Cullen, characterised by erroneous judgment, but not merely respecting health, from imaginary perceptions or recollection, influencing the conduct, and depressing the mind with ill-grounded fears; not combined with either pyrexia or comatose affections; often appearing without dyspepsia, yet attended with costiveness, chiefly in persons of rigid fibres and torpid insensibility.

MELANOPIPER. (From μελας, black, and Black pepper. See Piтитеци, pepper.)

per nigrum.

MELANORRHIZON. (From μελας, black, and eiga, a root.) A species of hellebore with black roots.

(From μελας, black; so MELANTERIA. called because it is used for blacking leather.) Green vitriol.

MELANTHELEUM. (From μελας, black, and enace, oil.) Oil expressed from the black seeds of fennel flowers.

Melanthium. (From μελας, black; so named from its black seed.) The herb fennel flower.

MELAS. (From MELAS, black.) Vitiligo

Morphea nigra. Lepra maculosa A disease that appears upon the nigra. skin in black or brown spots, which very frequently penetrate deep, even to the bone, and do not give any pain or uneasiness. It is a disease very frequent in, and endemial to, Arabia, where it is supposed to be produced by a peculiar miasma.

MELASMA. (From µexas, black.) Melasmus. A disease that appears not unfrequently upon the tibia of aged persons, in form of a livid black spot, which, in a day or two, degenerates into a very foul

ulcer.

MELASPERMUM. (From µ6225, black, and

σπεςμα, seed.) See Melanthium.

MELCA. (From αμελρω, to milk.) Milk. food made of acidulated milk.

(From  $\mu\alpha\alpha$ , to search.) MELE.

probe.

(From Meleager, whose MELEAGRIS. sisters were fabled to have been turned into this bird.) The guinea-fowl. Also a species of frittillaria, so called because its flowers are spotted like the guinea-fowl.

MELEGETA. Meleguetta. Grains of Para-

MELEIOS. (From Melos, the island where

it is made.) A species of alum.

Melemelum. (From μωλ, honey, and μηλον, an apple; so named from its sweetness.) Paradise apple.

Meli. (Μελί.) Honey.
Meliceria. See Meliceris.
Meliceris. (From μελί, honey, and κεξος, wax.) An encysted tumour, whose contents resemble honey in consistence and appearance.

Melicraton. (From μελι, honey, and κεζαννυμι, to mix.) Hydromel. Mead. Wine

impregnated with honey.

Meligeion. (From μελ, honey.) A fatid humour, discharged from ulcers attended with a caries of the bone, of the consistenee of honey.

Melilot. See Melilotus.

MELILOTUS. (From μελι, honey, and λωτος, the lotus; so called from its smell, being like that of honey.) Lotus sylvestris. Sertula campana. Trifolium caballinum. Coroda regia. Trifolium odoratum. Common melilot. This plant, Trifolium melilotus officinalis of Linnæus, has been said to be resolvent, emollient, anodyne, and to participate of the virtues of chamomile. Its taste is unpleasant, subacrid, subsaline, but not bitter; when fresh it has scarcely any smell; in drying it acquires a pretty strong one, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable. The principal use of melilot has been in clysters, fomentations, and other external applications.

(From μελον, an apple.) Oil MELINUM. made from the flowers of the apple-tree.

MELIPHYLLUM. (From  $\mu\omega\iota$ , honey, and quaker, a leaf; so called from the sweet smell of its leaf, or because bees gather honey from it.) Bauni, or balm. Melissa.

MELISSA. (From μελισσα, a bee, because bees gather honey from it.) Citra-Citraria. Melinum. Mellifolium. Mellitis. Cedronella. Apiastrum. Melissa citrina. Erotion. Balm. Melissa officinalis of Linnæus. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but very common in our gardens. In its recent state, it has a roughish aromatic taste, and a pleasant smell of the lemon kind. It was formerly much esteemed in nervous diseases, and very generally recommended in melancholic and hypochondriacal affections; but, in modern practice, it is only employed when prepared as tea, as a grateful diluent drink in fevers, &c.

MELISSA CALAMINTHA. The systematic name of the field catmint. See Cala-

mintha.

METISSA CITRINA. See Melissa.

MELISSA GRANDIFLORA. The systematic name of the mountain calamint. See Calamintha magno flore.

MELISSA OFFICINALIS. The systematic

name of balm. See Melissa.

MELISSA TURCICA. See Moldavica.

MELISSOPHYLLUM. (From μελισσα, baum, and φυλλον, a leaf.) Melissa, or baum. Also a species of horehound, with leaves resembling baum.

MELITIS MELISSOPHYLLUM. The systematic name of the mountain balm.

Mclyssophyllum.

MELITISMUS. (From Mell, honey.) A

linctus, prepared with honey.

MELITTOMA. (From Men, honey.) A confection made with honey. Honey-dew.

MELIZOMUM. (From MEAL, honey, and Zamos, broth.) Mead. A drink prepared with honey.

MELLAGO. (From mel, honey.) medicine which has the consistence and sweetness of honey.

MELLILOTUS. See Melilotus.

MELLINA. (From mel, honey.) Mead. A sweet drink prepared with honey.

MELLITA. (From mel, honey.) Prepa-

rations of honey.

MELO. The common melon. Musk melon. Cucumis melo of Linnaus. fruit, when ripe, has a delicious refrigerating taste, but must be eaten moderately, with pepper, or some aromatic, as all this class of fruits are obnoxious to the stomach, producing spasms and colic. The seeds possess mucilaginous qualities.

MELOCARPUS. (From MAKEY, all apple, and xxgros, fruit; from its resemblance to an apple, or its root.) The fruit of the

aristolochia.

MELOE VESICATORIUS. The Spanish fly, now called lytta.

MELON. (Mnhov.) A disorder of the eye, in which it protuberates out of the socket.

Melon, common. See Melo. Melon, musk. See Melo.

Melon, water. See Citrullus.

MELONGENA. Improperly called mala insana. Solanum pomiferum. Mad apple. The Spaniards and Italians eat it in sauce and in sweet-meats. The taste somewhat resembles citron.

MELOSIS. Μηλωσις. A term which frequently occurs in Hippocrates, Do Capit. Vulner, for that search into wounds which is made by surgeons with the specillum, or probe.

Used for the MELOTIS. MARWTIS. lesser specillum, and often for that particular instrument contrived to search or cleanse the ear with, more commonly called Auriscalpium.

The systematic MELOTHRIA PENDULA. name of the small creeping cucumber plant. The inhabitants of the West Indies pickle the berries of this plant, and use them as

we do capers. MELYSSOPHYLLUM. (From μελισσα, balm, d φυλλω, a leaf.) Mountain balm, or and φυλλοι, a leaf.) nettle. This elegant plant, Melitis melissophyllum of Linnæus, is seldom used in the present day; it is said to be of service in uterine obstructions and calculous diseases.

MEMBRANA. See Membrane.

MEMBRANA HYALOIDEA. brana arachnoidea. The transparent membrane which includes the vitreous humour of the eye.

MEMBRANA PUPILLARIS. delicate membrane, of a thin and vascular texture, and an ash colour, arising from the internal margin of the iris, and totally covering the pupil, in the fætus, before the six months.

MEMBRANA RUYSCHIANA. celebrated anatomist Ruysch discovered that the choroid membrane of the eye was composed of two laminæ. He gave the name of membrana ruyschiana to the internal lamina, leaving the old name of choroides to the external.

MEMBRANA TYMPANA. The membrane covering the cavity of the drum of the ear, and separating it from the meatus auditorius externus. It is of an oval form, convex below the middle, towards the hollow of the tympanum, and concave towards the meatus auditorius, and convex above the middle towards the meatus, and concave towards the hollow of the tympa-According to the observations of anatomists, it consists of six laminæ; the first, and most external, is a production of the epidermis, the second is a production of the skin lining the auditory passage; the third is cellular membrane, in which the vessels form an elegant net-work; the fourth is shining, thin, and transparent, arising from the periosteum of the meatus; the fifth is cellular membrane, with a plexus of vessels like the third; and the sixth lamina, which is the innermost, comes from the periosteum of the cavity of the tympanum. This membrane, thus composed of several laminæ, has lately been discovered to possess muscular fibres.

MEMBRANALOGIA. (From membrana, a membrane, and λογος, a discourse.)
Membranology. The doctrine of the com-

mon integuments and membranes.

MEMBRANE. Membrana. A thin expanded substance, composed of cellular texture, whose elastic fibres are so arranged and woven together, as to allow of great pliability. The membranes of the body are various, as the skin, peritoneum, pleura, dura mater, &c. &c.

MEMBRANOSUS. See Tensor vaginæ fe-

moris.

MEMBRANUS. See Tensor vagina femo-

MEMBRIE OS. See Occipital bonc. Menagogues. See Emmenagogues.

MENDOSUS. (From mendax, counterfeit,)
This term is used, by some, in the same
sense as spurius, or illegitimus; Mendosa
Coste, false or spurious ribs; Mendosa Sutura, the squamous suture, in the skull, or

bastard suture.

MENINGOPHILAX. (From μνηγέ, a membrane, and φυλασσω, to guard.) An instrument to guard the membranes of the brain, while the bone is cut, or rasped, after the

operation of the trepan.

MENINX. (From µn, to remain.) The Greek term for the membranes enveloping the brain. See Dura mater and Pia mater.

MENINX DURA. See Dura mater. MENINX PIA. See Pia mater.

MENISPERMUM COCCULES. The systematic name of the plant the berries of which are well known by the name of Cocculus indus. Indian berries, or Indian cockles Whilst green, they are used by the Indians to catch fish, which they have the power of intoxicating, and killing. In the same manner they catch birds, making the berry into a paste, forming it into small seeds, and putting these in places where they frequent.

MENORRHAGIA. (From μενια, the menses, and ρεγνυμ, to break out.) Hæmorrhagia uterina. Flooding. An immoderate flow of the menses. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia, and order hæmorrhagiα, of Cullen, characterized by pains in the back, loins, belly, similar to those of labour, attended with a preternatural flux of blood from the vagina, more copious than natural. He distinguishes six

species:--

1. Menorrhagia rubra, proper; from

women neither with child nor in childbirth.

2. Menorrhagia alba, serous; the fluor albus See Leucorrhaa.

3. Menorrhagia vitiorum, from some local disease

4. Menorrhagia lochialis, from women after delivery. See Lochia.

5. Menorrhagia abortus. See Abortion.
6. Menorrhagia nabothi, when there is a serous discharge from the vagina in preg-

nant women.

This disease seldom occurs before the age of puberty, and is often an attendant on pregnancy. It is in general a very dangerous disease, more particularly if it occur at the latter period, as it is then often so rapid and violent as to destroy the female in a very short time, where proper means are not soon adopted. Abortions often give rise to floodings, and at any period of pregnancy, but usually before the fifth month than at any other time. Moles, in consequence of an imperfect conception, at length become detached, and sometimes give rise to a considerable degree of hamorrhage.

The causes which most frequently give rise to floodings are, violent exertions of strength, sudden surprises and frights, violent fits and passion, great uncasiness of mind, uncommon longings during pregnancy, over fullness of blood, profuse evacuations, general weakness of the system, external injuries, as blows and bruises, and the death of the child, in consequence of which the placenta becomes partially or wholly detached from the uterus, leaving the mouths of the vessels of the latter, which anasto-mosed with those of the latter, perfectly open. It is necessary to distinguish be-tween an approaching miscarriage and a common flooding, which may be readily done by inquiring whether or not the hamorrhage has proceeded from any evident cause, and whether it flows gently, or is accompanied with unusual pains. The former usually arises from some fright, surprise, or accident, and does not flow gently and regularly; but bursts out of a sudden and again stops all at once, and also is attended with severe pains in the back and the bottom of the belly; whereas the latter is marked with no such occurrence. The further a woman is advanced in pregnancy, the greater will be the danger if floodings take place, as the mouths of the vessels are much enlarged during the last stage of pregnancy, and of course a vast quantity will be discharged in a short space of time.

Mensa. The second lobe of the liver was so called by the ancients.

Menses. (From mensis, a month.)

Menses cessantes. The menses departing.

Menses deficientes. Menses defective or suppressed. The amenorrhoa of Cullen.

MENSES IMMODICE. The menorrhagia rubra of Cullen.

Menses, immoderate flow of the. Se Menorrhagia.

Menses, interruption of. See Amennor-han.

Menses, retention of. See Catumenia.

Menses rithosophicus, A philosophical, or chymical month. According to some, it is three days and nights; others say it is ten; and there are who reckon it

to be thirty or forty days.

MENSTRUATION. From the uterus of every healthy woman who is not pregnant, or who does not give suck, there is a discharge of blood at certain periods, from the time of puberty to the approach of old age; and, from the periods or returns of this discharge, it is called Menstruation. There are several exceptions to this definition. It is said that some women never menstruate; some menstruate while they continue to give suck; and others are said to menstruate during pregnancy; some are said to menstruate in early infancy, and others in old age; but such discharges, Dr. Denman is of opinion, may, with more propriety, be called morbid, or symptomatic: yet the definition is generally

At whatever time of life this discharge comes on, a woman is said to be at puberty: though of this state it is a consequence, and not a cause The early or late appearance of the menses may depend upon the climate, the constitution, the delicacy or hardness of hving, and upon the manners of those with whom young women converse. In Greece, and other hot countries, girls begin to menstruate at eight, nine, and ten years of age; but, advancing to the northern climes, there is a gradual protraction of the time till we come to Lapland, where women do not menstruate till they arrive at maturer age, and then in small quantities, at long intervals, and sometimes only in the summer. But, if they do not menstruate according to the genius of the country, it is said they suffer equal inconveniences as in warmer climates, where the quantity discharged is much greater, and the periods shorter. In this country, girls begin to menstruate from the fourteenth to the eighteenth year of their age, and sometimes at a later period, without any signs of the disease; but if they are luxuriously educated, sleeping upon down beds, and sitting in hot rooms, menstruation usually commences at a more early pe-

Many changes in the constitution and appearance of women are produced at the time of their first beginning to menstruate.

Their complexion is improved, their countenance is more expressive and animated, their attitudes graceful, and their conversation more intelligent and agreeable; the tone of their voice becomes more harmonious, their whole frame, but particularly their breasts, are expanded and enlarge, and their minds are no longer engaged in childish pursuits and amusements.

Some girls begin to menstruate without any preceding indisposition; but there are generally appearances or symptoms which indicate the change that is about to take These are usually more severe at the first than in the succeeding periods: and they are similar to those produced by uterine irritation from other causes, as pains in the back and inferior extremities, complaints of the viscera, with various hysteric and nervous affections. These commence with the first disposition to menstruate, and continue till the discharge comes on, when they abate, or disappear, returning, however, with considerable violence in some women, at every period during life. The quantity of blood discharged at each evacuation depends upon the climate, constitution, and manner of living; but it varies in different women in the same climate, or in the same woman at different periods; in this country it amounts to about five or six ounces.

There is also a great difference in the time required for the completion of each period of menstruation. In some women the discharge returns precisely to a day, or an hour, and in others there is a variation of several days, without inconvenience. In some it is finished in a few hours, and in others it continues from one to ten days; but the intermediate time, from three to

six days, is most usual.

There has been an opinion, probably derived from the Jewish legislator, afterwards adopted by the Arabian physicians, and credited in other countries, that the menstruous blood possessed some peculiar malignant properties. The severe regulations which have been made in some countries for the conduct of women, at the time of menstruation: - the expression used, Isaiah, chap. xxx. and in Ezekiel ;-the disposal of the blood discharged, or of any thing contaminated with it:-the complaints of women attributed to its retention; -and the effects enumerated by grave writers, indicate the most dreadful apprehensions of its baneful influence. Under peculiar circuinstances of health, or states of the uterus, or in hot climates, if the evacuation be slowly made, the menstruous blood may become more acrimonious or offensive than the common mass, or any other secretion from it; but in this country and age no malignity is suspected, the menstruous woman mixes in society as at all other

times, and there is no reasan for thinking otherwise than that this discharge is of the most inoffensive nature.

At the approach of old age, women cease to menstruate; but the time of cessation is commonly regulated by the original early or late appearances of the menses. With those who began to menstruate at ten or twelve years of age, the discharge will often cease before they arrive at forty; but if the first appearance was protracted to sixteen or eighteen years of age, independently of disease, such women may continue to menstruate till they have passed the fiftieth, or even approach the sixtieth year of their age. But the most frequent time of the cessation of the menses, in this country, is between the forty-fourth and forty-eighth year; after which women never bear children. By this constitutional regulation of the menses, the propagation of the species is in every country confined to the most vigorous part of life; and had it been otherwise, children might have become parents, and old women might have had children, when they were unable to supply them with proper or sufficient nourishment. See Catamenia.

MENSTRUUM. Solvent. All liquors are so called which are used as dissolvents, or to extract the virtues or ingredients by infusion, decoction, &c. The principal menstrua, made use of in Pharmacy, are water, vinous spirits, oils, acid, and alkaline liquors. Water is the menstruum of all salts, of vegetable gums, and of animal jellies. Of the first it dissolves only a determinate quantity, though of one kind of salt more than of another; and being thus saturated, leaves any additional quantity of the same salt untouched. It is never saturated with the two latter, but unites readily with any proportion of them, forming, with different quantities, liquors of different consistences. It takes up like-wise, when assisted by trituration, the vegetable gummy resins, as ammoniacum and myrrh; the solutions of which, though imperfect, that is, not transparent, but turbid and of a milky hue, are nevertheless applicable to valuable purposes in medicine. Rectified spirit of wine is the menstruum of the essential oils and resins of vegetables; of the pure distilled oils of animals, and of soaps, though it does not act upon the expressed oil and fixed alkaline salt, of which soap is composed. Hence, if soap contains any superfluous quantity of either the oil or salt, it may, by means of this menstruum, be excellently purified therefrom. It dissolves, by the assistance of heat, volatile alkaline salts; and more readily the neutral ones, composed either of fixed alkali and the acetous acid, as the sal diureticus, or of volatile

alkali and the nitrous acid. Oils dissolve vegetable resins and balsams, wax, animal fats, mineral bitumens, sulphur, and certain metallic substances, particularly lead. The expressed oils are, for most of these bodies, more powerful menstrua than those obtained by distillation; as the former are more capable of sustaining, without injury, a strong heat, which is in most cases necessary to enable them to act. All acids dissolve alkaline salts, alkaline earths, and metallic substances. The different acids differ greatly in their action upon these last: one dissolving some particular metals, and another others. The vegetable acids dissolve a considerable quantity of zinc, iron, copper, and tin; and extract so much from the metallic part of the antimony as to become powerfully emetic; they likewise dissolve lead, if previously calcined by fire; but more copiously if corroded by their steam. The marine acid dissolves zinc, iron, and copper; and though it scarce acts on any other metallic substance in the common way of making solutions, may nevertheless be artfully combined with them all, except gold. The corrosive sublimate, and antimonial caustic of the shops, are combinations of it with mercury and the metallic part of antimony, effected by applying the acid, in the form of fume, to the subjects, at the same time strongly heated. The nitrous acid is the common menstruum of all metallic substances, except gold and the antimonial semi-metal, which are soluble only in a mixture of the nitrous and marine. The vitriolic acid easily dissolves zinc, iron, and copper; and may be made to corrode, or imperfectly dissolve, most of the other metals. Alkaline lixivia dissolve oils, resinous substances, and sulphur. Their power is greatly promoted by the addition of quick-lime, instances of which occur in the preparation of soap and in the common caustic. Thus assisted, they reduce the flesh, bones, and other solid parts of animals, into a gelatinous matter. Solutions made in water and spirit of wine possess the virtue of the body dissolved; whilst oils generally slicathe its activity, and acids and alkalies vary its quality. Hence watery and spiritous liquors are the proper menstrua of the native virtues of vegetable and animal matters. Most of the foregoing solutions are easily effected, by pouring the menstruum on the body to be dissolved, and suffering them to stand together for some time, exposed to a suitable warmth. A strong heat is generally requisite to enable oils and alkaline liquors to perform their office; nor will acids act on some metallic bodies without its assistance. The action of watery and spirituous menstrua is likewise expedited by a moderate heat, though the quantity which

they afterwards keep dissolved, is not, as some suppose, by this means increased. All that heat occasions these to take up, more than they would do in a longer time in the cold, will, when the heat ceases, subside again. The action of acids on the bodies which they dissolve, is generally accompanied with heat, effervescence, and a copious discharge of fumes. The fumes which arise during the dissolution of some metals, in the vitriolic acid, prove inflammable; hence, in the preparation of the artificial vitriols of iron and zinc, the operator ought to be careful, especially where the solution is made in a narrow mouthed vessel, lest, by the imprudent approach of a candle, the exhaling vapour be set on fire. There is another species of solution in which the moisture of air is the menstruum. Fixed alkaline salts, and those of the neutral kind, composed of alkaline salts and the vegetable acids, or of alkaline earths, and any acid except the vitriolic, and some metallic salts, on being exposed for some time to a moist air, gradually attract its liumidity, and at length become liquid. Some substances, not dissoluble in water in its grosser form, as the butter of antimony, are easily liquified by this slow action of the aërial moisture. This process is termed Deliquation. The cause of solution assigned by some naturalists, namely, the admission of the fine particles of one body into the pores of another, whose figure fits them for their reception, is not just, or adequate, but hypothetical and ill-presumed; since it is found that some bodies will dissolve their own quantity of others, as water does of Epsom salt, alkohol of essential oils, mercury of metals, one metal of another, &c. whereas the sum of the pores or vacuities of every body must be necessarily less than the body itself, and consequently those pores cannot receive a quantity of matter equal to the body wherein they reside.

How a menstruum can suspend bodies much heavier than itself, which very often happens, may be conceived, by considering, that the parts of no fluids can be so easily separated, but they will a little resist or retard the descent of any heavy bodies through them: and that this resistance is, ceteris paribus, still proportional to the surface of the descending bodies. But the surface of bodies do by no means increase or decrease in the same proportion as their solidities do: for the solidity increases as the cube, but the surface only as the square of the diameter; wherefore it is plain, very small bodies will have much larger surfaces, in proportion to their solid contents, than larger bodies will, and consequently, when grown exceeding small, may easily be buoyed up in the liquor.

MENTAGRA. (From mentum, the chin,

and ayea, a prey.) Impetigo. An eruption about the chin, forming a tenacious crust, like that on scald heads.

MENTASTRUM. (Dim. of mentha, mint.) The red water-mint. See Mentha aqua-

MENTHA. (From Minthe, the harlot who was changed into this herb.) Hidyosnus. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia. Mant.

MENTHA AQUATICA. Mentastrum. Si-symbrium menthastrum. Mentha rotundifolia palustris. Water-mint. This plant is frequent in moist meadows, marshes, and on the banks of rivers. It is less agreeable than the spear mint, and in taste bitterer and more pungent. It may be used with the same intentions as the spearmint, to which, however, it is much inferior.

MENTHA CATARIA. Menthu felina. Herba felis. Calamintha. Nepetella. Nep, or cat-

mint. See Nepeta.

MENTHA CERVINA. The systematic name of the hart's penny-royal. See Pulegium cer-

MENTHA CHISPA. Colymbifera minor. The achillæa ageratum. This species of mentha has a strong and fragrant smell, its taste is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter. In flatulences of the primæ viæ, hypochondriacal, and hysterical affections, it is given with advantage.

MENTIIA PIPERITA. The systematic and pharmacopæial name of peppermint. Mentha piperitis. Mentha piperita of Linnæus :- floribus capitatis, foliis oratis petiolatis, staminibus corolla brevioribus. The spontaneous growth of this plant is said to be peculiar to Britain. It has a more penetrating smell than any of the other mints; a strong pungent taste, glowing like pepper, sinking, as it were, into the tongue, and followed by a sense of coolness. The stomachic, antispasmodic, and carminative properties of peppermint, render it useful in flatulent cholics, hysterical affections, retchings, and other dispeptic symptoms, acting as a cordial, and often producing an immediate relief. Its officinal preparations are an essential oil, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTHA PIPERITIS. See Mentha pipe-

The systematic MENTHA PULEGIUM. name of the pennyroyal. See Pulegium. MENTHA SARACENICA. See Balsamita

MENTHA SATIVA. See Mentha viridis. MENTHA SPICATA. Hart-mint, and com-Mentha vulgaris. See mon spear-mint. Mentha viridis.

MENTHA VIRIDIS. Spear-mint. Called also Mentha vulgaris. Mentha spicata. Mentha viridis of Linnaus :- spicio oblongis, foliis lanceolatis nudis serratis ses-

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silibus, staminibus corolla longioribus. plant grows wild in many parts of England. It is not so warm to the taste as peppermint, but has a more agreeable flavour, and is therefore preferred for culinary purposes. Its medicinal qualities are, similar to those of peppermint; but the different preparations of the former, though more pleasant, are, perhaps, less effica-cious. The officinal preparations of spearmint are, an essential oil, a conserve, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTI LEVATOR. See Levator labii in-

ferioris.

MENTULA. (From matah, a staff, Heb.)

The penis.

MENTULAGRA. (From mentula, the penis, and ayex, a prey.) A disorder of the penis, induced by a contraction of the erectores musculi, and causing impo-

MENYANTHES. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class,

Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA. The systematic name of the buckbean. See Trifolium paludosum.

Methetic air. See Nitrogen.

MEPHITIS. (From mephuhith, a blast. Syr.) A poisonous exhalation. See Contagion.

MERCURIALIS. (From Mercurius, its inventor.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dioe-

cia. Order, Emeandria.

2. The phartnacopæial name of the French mercury. Mercurialis annua of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable smell, and very little taste. It is ranked among the emollient oleraceous herbs, and is said to be gently aperient. Their principal use has been in clys-

The systematic MERCURIALIS ANNUA. name of the French mercury. See Mercuri-

MERCURIALIS MONTANA. The Mercurialis perennis of Linnæus. See Cynocrambe.

The syste-MERCURIALIS PERENNIS. matic name of dog's mercury. See Cynocrambe.

The Mer-MERCURIALIS SYLVESTRIS. curialis perennis of Linnæus. See Cyno-

MERCURIUS ACETATUS. See Hydrargyrus

MERCURIUS ALKALIZATUS. See Hydrargyrus cum creta.

MERCURIUS CALCINATUS. See Oxydum hydrargyri rubrum.

Quicksil-MERCURIUS CHEMICORUM.

MERCURIUS CINNABARINUS. Cinnahar factitia, now called sulphuretum hydrargyri.

Mercurius corrosivus. See Oxymurias hudrargyri.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS RUBER. See Nitrico oxydum hydrarguri,

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS SUBLIMATUS. See Oxymurias hydrargyri.

MERCURIUS DULCIS SUBLIMATUS. Dulcified mercurial sublimate, now called submurias hydrargyri; formerly called calo-

MERCURIUS EMETICUS FLAVOS. See Ilydrargyrus vitriolatus.

See

MERCURIUS MORTIS.

MERCURIUS PRECIPITATUS ALBUS.

Hydrargyrus pracipitatus albus. MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS DULCIS.

Submuria hydrargyri.

MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS RUBER.

Nitrico oxydum hydrargyri.
MERCURIUS VITE. The mercury of life. Pulvis angelicus. Mercurius mortis. Algarothi pulvis. An oxyd, of antimony, formerly preferred to the vitrum antimonii, for making of emetic tartar.

MERCURY. Hydrargyrus. Mercurins. A metal found in five different states in nature. 1. Native, (native mercury,) adhering in small globules to the surface of cinnabar ores, or scattered through the crevices, or over the surfaces of different kinds of stones. 2. It is found united to silver, in the ore called amalgam of silver, or native amalgam. This ore exhibits thin plates, or grains; it sometimes crystallizes in cubes, parallelopipeds, or pyramids. Its colour is of a silver white, or grey; its lustre is considerably metallic. Combined with sulphur it constitutes native cinnabar, or sulphuret of mercury. This ore is the most common. It is frequently found in veins, and sometime crystallized in tetrahedra, or three-sided pyramids. Its colour is red. Its streak metallic. 3.4. Mercury, united either to muriatic or sulphuric acid, forms the ore called horn quicksilver, or corneous mercury. These ores are, in general, semi-transparent, of a grey or white colour, sometimes crystallized, but more frequently in grains. 5. United to oxygen it constitutes the ore called native oxyd of Mercurial ores particularly mercury. abound in Spain, Hungary, China, and South America.

Properties .- Mercury, or quicksilver, is the only one of the metals that remains fluid at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, but when its temperature is reduced to - 40° Fahr. it assumes a solid form. This is a degree of cold, however, that only occurs in high northern latitudes, and, in our climate, mercury cannot be exhibited in a solid state, but by means of artificial cold. When rendered solid, it possesses both ductility and malleability. It crystallizes in octahedra, and contracts

strongly during congelation. It is divisible in very small globules. It presents a convex appearance in vessels to which it has little attraction, but is concave in those to which it does adhere. becomes electric and phosphorescent by rubbing upon glass, and by agitation in a vacuum. It is a very good conductor of caloric, of electricty, and of Galvanism. The specific gravity of mercury is 13.563. Although fluid, its opacity is equal to that of any other metal, and its surface, when clean, has considerable lustre. Its colour is white, similar to silver. Exposed to the temperature of 600° Fahr, it is volatilized. When agitated in the air, especially in contact with viscous fluids, it becomes converted into a black oxyd. At a temperature nearly the same as that at which it boils, it absorbs about 14 or 16 per cent. of oxygen, and then becomes changed into a red crystallizable oxyd, which is spontaneously reducible by caloric and light at a higher temperature. The greater number of the acids act upon mercury, or are at least capable of combining with its oxyds. It combines with sulphur by trituration, but more intimately by heat. It is acted on by the alkaline sulphurets. It combines with many of the metals; these compounds are brittle, or soft, when the mercury is in large proportion. There is a slight union between mercury and phosphorus. It does not unite with carbon, or the earths.

Method of obtaining Mercury.—Mercury may be obtained pure by decomposing ciunabar, by means of iron filings. For that purpose, take two parts of red sulphuret of mercury (cinnabar), reduce it to powder, and max it with one of iron filings, put the mixture into a stone retort, direct the neck of it into a bottle, or receiver, filled with water, and apply heat. The mercury will then be obtained in a state of

purity.

In this process, the sulphuret of mercury, which consists of sulphur and mercury, is heated in contact with iron, the sulphur quits the mercury and unites to the iron, and the mercury becomes disengaged; the residue in the retort is a sulphuret of iron.

Mercury is a very useful article both in the cure of diseases and the arts. There is scarcely a disease against which some of its preparations are not exhibited; and over the venereal disease it possesses a specific power. It is considered to have first gained repute in curing this disease, from the good effects it produced in eruptive diseases. In the times immediately following the venereal disease, practitioners only attempted to employ this remedy with timorous caution, so that, of several of their formulæ, mercury scarcely composed a fourth part, and few cures were On the other hand, empiries, who noticed the little efficacy of these small doses, ran into the opposite extreme,

and exhibited mercury in such large quantities, and with such little care, that most of their patients became suddenly attacked with the most violent salivations, attended with dangerous consequences. From these two very opposite modes of practice, there originated such uncertainty respecting what could be expected from mercury, and such fears of the consequences which might result from its employment, that every plan was eagerly adopted, which offered the least chance of cure without having recourse to this mineral. A medicine, however, so powerful, and whose salutary effects were seen, by attentive practitioners, amid all its inconveniences, could not sink into oblivion. After efforts had been made to discover a substitute for it, and it was seen how little confidence those means deserved on which the highest praises had been lavished, the attempts to discover its utility were renewed. A medium was pursued, between the too timid methods of those physicians who had first administered it, and the inconsiderate boldness of the empiries. Thus the causes from which both parties failed were avoided; the character of the medicine was revived in a more durable way, and from this period its reputation has always been maintained.

It was about this epoch that mercury began to be internally given; hitherto it had only been externally employed, which was done in three manners. The first was in the form of limiment, or ointment; the second as a plaster; and the third as a fumigation. Of the three methods just described, only the first is at present much in use, and even this is very much altered. Mercurial plasters are now only used as topical discutient applications to tumours and indurations. Fumigations, as anciently managed, were liable to many objections, particularly from its not being possible to regulate the quantity of mercury to be used, and from the effect of the vapour on the organs of respiration frequently occasioning trembling, palsies, &c. Frictions with ointment have always been regarded as the most efficacious mode of administer-

ing mercury.

Mercury is carried into the constitution in the same way as other substances, either by being absorbed from the surface of the body, or that of the alimentary canal. It cannot, however, in all cases, be taken into the constitution in both ways, for sometimes the absorbents of the skin will not readily receive it; at least no effect is produced, either on the disease or constititution, from this mode of application. On the other hand, the internal absorbents will, sometimes, not take up the medicine. or, at least, no effect is produced either on the disease or constitution. In many persons, the bowels can hardly bear mercury at all; and it should then be given in the mildest form possible, conjoined with such medicines as will lessen or correct its violent effects, although not its specific ones, on the constitution. When mercury can be thrown into the constitution with propriety, by the external method, it is preferable to the internal plan; because the skin is not nearly so essential to life as the stomach, and is therefore in itself capable of bearing much more than the stomach. The constitution is also less injured. Many courses of mercury would kill the putient if the medicine were only given internally, because it proves hurtful to the stomach and intestines, when given in any form, or joined with the greatest correctors.

Mercury has two effects; one as a stimulus on the constitution and particular parts, the other as a specific on a discased action on the whole body, or of parts. The latter action can only be compared.

puted by the disease disappearing.

In giving mercury in the venereal disease, the first attention should be to the quantity, and its visible effects in a given time; which, when brought to a proper pitch, are only to be kept up, and the decline of the disease to be watched; for by this we judge of the invisible or specific effects of the medicine, and know what variation in the quantity may be necessary. The visible effects of mercury affect either the whole constitution, or some parts capable of secretion. In the first, it produces universal irritability, making it more sus-ceptible of all impressions. It quickens the pulse, increases its hardness, and oc-casions a kind of temporary fever. In some constitutions, it operates like a poison. In some it produces a kind of hectic fever; but such effects commonly diminish on the patient becoming accustomed to the medicine.

Mercury often produces pains, like those of rheumatism, and nodes of a scrophulous nature. The quantity of mercury to be thrown in for the cure of any venereal complaint, must be proportioned to the violence of the diseasc. A small quantity, used quickly, will have equal effects to those of a large one employed slowly; but if these effects are merely local, that is, upon the glands of the mouth, the constitution at large not being equally stimulated, the effects upon the diseased parts must be less, which may be known by the local disease not giving way in proportion to the effects of mercury on some particular part. If it be given in very small quantities, and increased gradually, so as to steal insensibly on the constitution, a vast quantity at a time may at length be thrown in without any visble effects at all.

The constitution, or parts, are more susceptible of mercury at first than after-

wards.

Mercury occasionally attacks the bowels, and causes violent purging, even of blood.

This effect is remedied by intermitting the use of the medicine, and exhibiting At other times, it is suddenly determined to the mouth, and produces inflammation, ulceration, and an excessive flow or saliva. To obtain relief in this circumstance, purgatives, nitre, sulphur, gum-arabic, lime-water, camphor, bark, kali-sulphuratum, blisters, &c. have been advised. Mr. Pearson, however, does not place much confidence in the efficacy of such means; and, the mercury being discontinued for a time, he recommends the patient to be freely exposed to a cold air, with the occasional use of cathartics, mineral acids, Peruvian bark, and the assiduous application of astringent gargles. The most material objection (says Mr. Pearson,) which I foresec against the method of treatment I have recommended, is the hazard to which the patient will be exposed of having the saliva suddenly checked, and of suffering some other disease in consequence of it.

The hasty suppression of a ptyalism may be followed by serious inconveniencies, as violent pains, vomiting, and general con-

vulsions.

Cold liquids taken into the stomach, or exposure of the body to the cold air, must be guarded against during a course of mercury. Should a suppression of the ptyalism take place, from any act of indiscretion, a quick introduction of mercury should be had recourse to, with the occasional use of the warm bath.

Mercury, when it falls on the mouth, sometimes produces inflammation, which now and then terminates in mortification. The ordinary operation of mercury does not permanently injure the constitution; but, occasionally, the impairment is very material; mercury may even produce local diseases, and retard the cure of chancres, buboes, and certain effects of the lues venerea, after the poison has been destroyed. Occasionally, mercury acts on the system as a poison, quite unconnected with its agency as a remedy, and neither proportionate to the inflammation of the mouth nor actual quantity of the mineral ab-Mr Pearson has termed this sorbed. morbid state of the system erethismus; it is characterised by great depression of strength, a sense of anxiety about the præcordia, irregular action of the heart, frequent sighing, trembling, a small, quick, and sometimes intermitting pulse, occasional vomiting, a pale contracted countenance, a sense of coldness; but the tongue is seldom furred, and neither the natural or vital functions are much dis-When this effect of mercury takes place, the use of mercury should be discontinued, whatever may be the stage, extent, or violence of the venereal disease. The patient should be exposed to a dry and cool air, in such a way as not to give

fatigue; in this way the patient will often recover in ten or fourteen days. In the · carly stage, the erethismus may often be averted by leaving off the mercury and giving campnor mixture with volatile alkali. Occasionally, the use of mercury brings on a peculiar eruption, which has received the names of mercurial rash, eczema mercuriale, lepra mercurialis, mercurial disease, and erythema mercuriale.

In order that mercury should act on the human body, it is necessary that it should be oxydised, or combined with an acid. The mercury contained in the unguentum hydrargyri is an oxyde. The metal, however, in the mercural ointment, is the most simple and least combined form of all its preparations, and hence, (says Mr. S. Cooper,) it not only operates with more mildness on the system, but with more specific effect on the disease. Various salts of mercury operate more quickly when given internally than mercurial frictions; but few practitioners of the present day confide in the internal use of mercury alone; particularly when the venereal virus has produced effects in consequence of absorption. Rubbing in mercurial ointment is the mode of affecting the system with mercury in the present day; and, as a substitute for this mode of applying mercury, Mr. Abernethy recommends the mercurial fumigation, where the patient has not strength to rub in ointment, and whose bowels will not bear the internal exhibition

The preparations of mercury now in use

1. Nitrico-oxydum hydrargyri.

2. Oxydum hydrargyri cinercum.

3. Oxydum hydrargyri rubrum. 4. Oxy-murias hydrargyri.

5. Submurias hydrargyri.

6. Sulphuretum hydra: gyri rubrum.

7. Hydrargyrus cum creta.

8. Hydrargyrus precipitatus albus.

9. Hydrargyrus perificetus.
Mercury, dug's. See Cynocrambe

Mercury, English. See Bonus henricus. Mercury, French. See Mercurialis.

Mercoley, From μερος, a part, and βαλανείον, a buth.) A partitibath.

MEROCELE. (From μερος, the thigh,

and anan, a tumour.) A femoral hernia. See Hernia.

Minnen. (Magos.) The thigh.

Manus. Appled to several things in the same sense as genuine, or unadulterated, as merum vinum, neat wine.

Massarum. (From peroc, the middle,

and agaix, the belly.) The mesentery.

MISEMBRY ANTHEUM CHRYSTALLINUM. The juice of this plant, in a dose of four spoonfuls every two hours, it is asserted has removed an obstinate spasmodic affection of the neck of the bladder, which would not yield to other remedics.

MESENTERIC. Meseraic. Belonging to the mesentery. See Mesentery.

MESENTERIC ARTERIES. Arteriæ mesentericæ. Two branches of the sorta in the abdomen are so called. The superior mesenteric is the second branch; it is distributed upon the mesentery, and gives off the superior or right colic artery. The inferior mesenteric is the fifth branch of the aorta; it sends off the internal hamorrhoidal,

MESENTERIC GLANDS. mesenterica. These are conglobate, and are situated here and there in the cellular membrane of the mesentery. The chyle from the intestines passes through these glands to the thoracic duct.

MESENTERIC PLEXUS OF NERVES. Nervorum plexus mesentericus. The superior, middle, and lower mesenteric plexuses of nerves are formed by the branches of the

great intercostal nerves.

MESENTERIC VEINS. Venæ mesenterice. They all run into one trunk, that evacuates its blood into the vena porta-See Vena portæ.

MESENTERITIS. (From μεσενθεριον, the mesentery.) An inflammation of the mesentery. A species of peritonitis of Cul-

MESENTERY. (Mesenterium; from A membrane in the cavity of the abdomen, attached to the vertebræ of the loins, and to which the intestines adhere. It is formed of a duplicature of the peritonæum, and contains within it, adipose membrane, lacteals, lymphatics, lacteal glands, mesen-teric arteries, veins, and nerves. Its use is to sustain the intestines in such a manner that they possess noth mobility and firmness; to support and conduct with safety the blood-vessels, lacteals, and nerves; to fix the glands, and give an external coat to the intestines.

It consists of three parts: one uniting the small intestines, which receives the proper name of mesentery; another connecting the great intestines, termed mesocolon; and a third attached to the rectum. termed mesorectum.

MESERAIC. The same as mesenteric.

Muserion. See Mezerium.

Messue A disorder of the liver, mentioned by Avicenna, accompanied with a sense of heaviness, tumour, inflammation,

pungent pain, and blackness of the tongue.
MESOCOLON (From 12005, the middle, and nanov, the colon.) The portion of the mesentery to which the colon is attached. The mesentery and mesocolon are the most important of all the productions of the peritonoum. In the pelvis, the peritonaum spreads itself shortly before the rectum. But where that intestine Lecomes loose, and forms the semilunar curve, the peritonaum there rises consi-

derably from the middle iliac vessels, and region of the psoas muscle, double, and with a figure adapted for receiving the hollow colon. But above, on the left side, the colon is connected with almost no intermediate loose production to the peritonæum, spread upon the psoas muscle, as high as the spleen, where this part of the nigh as the spheet, make the pare periton aum, which gave a coat to the colon, being extended under the spleen, receives and sustains that viscus in a hol-

low superior recess. Afterwards the peritonæum, from the left kidney, from the interval between the kidneys, from the large vessels, and from the right kidney, emerges forwards under the pancreas, and forms a broad and sufficiently long continuous production, called the transverse mesocolon, which, like a partition, divides the upper part of the abdomen, containing the stomach, liver, spleen, and pancreas, from the lower part. The lower plate of this transverse production is continued singly from the right mesocolon to the left, and serves as an external coat to a pretty large portion of the liver, and descending part of the duodenum. But the upper plate, less simple in the course, departs from the lumbar peritonænum at the kidney, and region of the vena cava, farther to the right than the duodenum, to which it gives an external membrane, not quite to the valve of the pylorus; and beyond this intestine, and beyond the colon, it is joined with the lower plate, so that a large part of the duodenum lies within the cavity of the mesocolon. Afterwards, in the region of the liver, the mesocolon is inflected, and descending over the kidney of the same side much shorter, it includes the right of the colon, as far as the intestinum cæcum, which rests upon the iliac muscle and the appendix, which is provided with a peculiar long curved mesentery. There the mesocolon terminates, almost at the bifurcation of the aorta.

The whole of the mesocolon and of the mesentery is hollow, so that the air may be forced in between its two laminæ, in such a manner as to expand them into a bag. At the place where it sustains the colon, and also from part of the intestinum rectum, the mesocolon, continuous with the outer membrane of the intestine, forms itself into small slender bags, resembling the omentum, for the most part in pairs, with their loose extremities thicker and bifid, and capable of admitting air blown in between the plates of the mesocolon.

Mesocranium. (From μεσος, the middle, and κζανίον, the skull.) The crown of

tine head, or vertex.

MESOGASTRIUM. (From peros, the mid-dle, and pasng, the stomach.) The substance on the concave part of the stomach, which attaches itself to the adjacent parts.

Mesoglossus. (From peros, the middle, and alwora, the tongue.) A muscle inserted in the middle of the tongue.

MESOMERIA. (From μεσος, the middle, and μεσος, the thigh.) The parts between

the thighs.

MESOMPHALIUM. (From μεσος, the middle, and ompanos, the navel.) The middle of the navel.

(From peros, the mid. MESOPHRYUM. dle, and oqqua, the eyebrows.) The part between the eyebrows.

MESOPLEURUM. (From peros, the middle, and masugor, a rib.) The space or mus-

cles between the ribs.

MESORECTUM. (From Mesos, the middle, and rectum, the straight gut.) The portion of peritonæum which connects the rectum to the pelvis.

MESOTHENAR. (From peros, the middle, and bevae, the palm of the hand.) A muscle situated in the middle of the palm of the hand.

MESPILUS. (Οτι εν μεσος πιλος, because it has a cap or crown in the middle of it.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Icosandria.

Order, Pentagynia.

2. The pharmocopæial name of the medlar. This fruit, and also its seeds, medlar. have been used medicinally. The tree which bears them is the Mespilus ger-manica of Linnæus. The immature fruit is serviceable in checking diarrhoas; and the seeds were formerly esteemed in allaying the pain attendant on nephritic diseases.

MESPILUS GERMANICA. The systematic name of the medlar-tree. See Mespilus.

METABASIS. (From μεταβαινώ, to digress.) Metabole. A change of remedy. of practice, or disease; or any change from one thing to another, either in the curative indications, or the symptoms of a distemper.

METABOLE. See Metabasis.

METACARPAL BONES. The five longitudinal bones that are situated between the wrist and the fingers: they are distinguished into the metacarpal bone of the thumb, fore-finger, &c.

(From µETA, after, METACARPIUS. and uzgros, the wrist.) Metacarpium. That part of the hand which is between the

wrist and the fingers.

METACARPUS. A muscle of the carpus. See Adductor metacarpi minimi digiti manus.

METACERASMA. (From mera, after, and κεξαντυμι, to mix.) Cerasma. A mixture tempered with any additional substance.

METACHEIRIXIS. (From μεταχειείζω, to perform by the hand.) Surgery. manual operation.

(From μεταχωςεν, to METACHORESIS. digress.) The translation of a disease from one part to another.

METACINEMA. (From pera and sives,

METALS. 495

to remove.) Diseased pupil of the eye, or distortion of it.

Metaconnylus. (From μετα, after, and κονδυλος, a knuckle.) The last joint of a finger, or that which contains the nail.

METALLAGE. (From μεταλλατίω, to change.) A change in the state or treat-

ment of a disease.

METALLURGIA. (From μεταλλον, a metal, and ερρον, work, labour.) That part of cllymistry which concerns the operations of metals.

METALS. We are at present acquainted with twenty-two metals, essentially dif-

fering from each other, namely,

Arsenic, Tungsten, Molybdena, Chrome, Columbium, Titanium, Uranium, Cobalt, Nickel, Manganese, Bismuth, Antimony, Tellurium, Mercury, Zinc, Tin, Lead, Iron, Copper, Silver, Gold, Platina,

The ancient division of these substances into noble or perfect, and semi or imperfect metals, is now abandoned, and we class them into different genera; proceeding in a gradation from those which possess, in a centain sense, the *least*, to those which possess the *most* metallic properties.

Classification of Metals.

1. Very brittle and acidifiable Metals.— Arsenic. Tungsten. Molybdena. Chrome. Columbium.

2. Less brittle and simply oxydable Metals.—Titanium. Uranium. Cobalt. Nickel. Manganese. Bismuth. Antimony. Tellurium.

3. Partly ductile and oxydable Metals.—

Mercury. Zinc.

4. Very ductile and ensily oxydable Metals.—Tin. Lead. Iron. Copper.

5. Exceedingly ductile and difficultly oxydable Metals.—Silver. Gold. Platina.

All the metals are found in the bowels of the earth, though sometimes they are on the surface. They are met with in different combinations with other matters, such as sulphur, oxygen, and acids; particularly with the carbonic, muriatic, sulphuric, and phosphoric acids. They are also found combined with each other, and sometimes, though rarely, in a pure metallic state, distinguishable by the naked eye.

In their different states of combination, they are said to be mineralized, and are The ores of metals are, called ORES. for the most part, found in nature in mountainous districts; and always in such as form a continued chain. There are mountains which consist entirely of iron ore, but, in general, the metallic part of a mountain bears a very inconsiderable proportion to its bulk. Ores are also met with in the cavities or crevices of rocks, forming what are termed VEINS, which are more easily discovered in these situations than when they lie level in plains.

The metallic matter of ores is very generally incrusted, and intermindled with some

earthy substance, different from the rock in which the vein is situated; which is termed its MATRIX. This, however, must not be confounded with the mineralizing substance with which the metal is combined, such as sulphur, &c.

General physical Properties of Metals.

All metals are combustible bodies. They possess a certain brilliancy, in consequence of the complete reflection of the light that falls upon them, which is termed metallic lustre. They are the most dense and heavy substances in nature; the heaviest fossil, not metallic, having a specific gravity much below that of the lightest metal. They are the most opaque of all bodies. A stone of the greatest opacity, when divided into thin plates, has more or less transparency; whereas gold is the only metal which admits of being reduced to such a degree of thinness as to admit the smallest perceptible transmission of light. Gold leaf, which is about 1-280,000 part of an inch in thickness, transmits light of a lively green colour; but silver, copper, and all the rest of the metals, are perfectly opaque. Another property, which belongs exclusively to metals, (though they do not all possess it,) is malleability; by which is meant a capacity of having their surface increased, either in length or breadth, without being liable to fracture. capacity is not precisely the same in those metals which do possess it, for some, which admit of extension when struck with a hammer, cannot be drawn into wire, which property is termed ductility: this property depends, in some measure, on another peculiar quality of metals, namely tenacity; by which is meant the power which a metallic wire, of a given diameter, has of resisting the action of a weight suspended from its extremity. All metals are fusible, though the degree of temperature at which this can be effected differs very much. Mercury is always fluid at the ordinary temperature of our atmosphere, while platina can scarcely be melted by the most intense heat of our furnaces. Metals are perfectly opaque when in a state of fusion; and are crystallizable when suffered to cool slowly and undisturbed. The tetrahedron and the cube are their primitive figures, though they very often take the octahedral form. They can likewise be volatalized at very high temperatures. They are the best conductors of caloric and electricity. Their susceptibility of combination is very great: they unite with carbon, sulphur, and phosphorus. They do not combine with earths by fusion; but their oxyds readily unite to acids, alkalies, and earths. They decompose water and several acids. Some effect this at common temperatures: some require a red heat, and others the interposition of another body. Water does not dissolve any of the metals, though it is a solvent of some of their oxyds. They are insoluble in ardent spirit, ether, or oils. They are all capable of combining with oxygen, though many of them require very high temperatures to effect this mnion, and others cannot be united to it but in an indirect manner. Most of the metals can be combined with each other; they then form alloys, many of which are of the greatest

utility in the arts. METAMORPHOPSIA. (From metamogφωσις, a change, and ofic, sight.) Visus defiguratus. Disfigured vision. It is a defect in vision, by which persons perceive objects changed in their figures. The species are, 1. Metamorphopsia acuta, when objects appear much larger than their size. 2. Metamorphopsia diminuta, when objects appear diminished in size, arising from the same causes as the former. 3. Metamorphopsia mutans, objects seem to be in motion; to the vertiginous and intoxicated persons, every thing seems to stagger. 4. Metamor-phopsia tortuosa seu flexuosa, when objects appear tortuous, or bending. 5. Metamorphopsia inversa, when all objects appear inverted. 6. Metamorphopsia imaginaria, is the vision of a thing not present, as may be observed in the delirious, and in maniacs. 7. Metamorphopsia from a remaining impression: it happens to those who very attentively examine objects, particularly in a great light, some time after to perceive the impression.

METAPEDIUM. (From μετα, after, and πες,

the foot ) The metatarsus.

METAPHRENUM. (From mera, after, and opens, the diaphragm.) That part of the back which is behind the diaphragm.

METAPOROPOIESIS. (From μετα, πορος, a duct, and ποιεω, to make.) A change in the

pores of the body.

METAPTOSIS (From μεταπιπτω, to digress) A change from one disease to another.

METASTASIS. (From μεθιστημι, to change, to translate.) The translation of a disease from one place to another.

METASYNCRISIS. (From μετασυγκεινω, to transmute.) Any change of constitu-

METATARSAL BONES. The five longitudinal bones between the tarsus and the toes; they are distinguished into the metatarsal hone of the great toe, fore

toe, &c.

METATARSUS. (From μετα, after, and ταgeos, the tarsus.) That part of the

foot between the tarsus and toes.

METELLA NUX. See Nux vomica.

METEORISMUS. (From μετεορος, a vapour.)

1. A flatulent dropsy.

2. A tympanitic state of the abdomen, taking place suddenly in acute diseases.

METEOROS. (Μετεωρος: from μεθα, and καιρα, to elevate.) Elevated, suspended, erect, sublime, tumid. Galen expounds pains of this sort, as being those which affect the periton xum, or other more su-

perficial parts of the body: these are opposed to the more deep-seated ones.

METHEGLIN. A drink prepared from honey by fermentation.

METHEMERINUS. (From µ672, and nµ692,

a day.) A quotidian fever.

METHODICA MEDICINA. Signifies that practice which was conducted by rules, such as are taught by Galen and his followers, in opposition to the empirical practice.

METHODUS. (From μετα, and οδος, a way.) The method, or ratio, by which any

operation or cure is conducted.

METOPION. Μετωτιεν. American sumach, a species of Rhus. It is a name of the bitter almond, also of an oil, or an ointment, made by Dioscorides, which was thus called because it had galbanum in it, which was collected from a plant called Metopium.

METOPIUM. Metamion. An ointment made

of galbanum.

METOPUM. (From μετα, after, and ωψ, the eye.) The forehead.

Metosis. A kind of amaurosis, from an excess of short sightedness.

METRA. (From untile, a mother.) The

METRENCHTTA. (From μετζα, the womb, and εγχυω, to pour into.) Injections into the

womb.

METRENCHYTES. (From μετζα, the womb, and εγχυα, to pour in.) A syringe to inject

fluids into the womb.)

METRITIS. (From μητζα, the womb.)
Inflammation of the uterus. See Hysteri-

tio

METROCELIDES. (From μητης, a mother, and μηλίς, a spot, or mole.) A mole, or mark, impressed upon the child by the mother's imagination.

METROCELIS. (From untrig, a mother, and under, a blemish.) A mole, or mark, impressed upon the child by the mother's

imagination.

METRO-MANIA. A rage for reciting verses. In the Acta Societatis Medicæ Havniensis, published 1779, is an account of a tertian attended with remarkable symptoms; one of which was the metro-mania, which the patient spoke extempore, having never before had the least taste for poetry; when the fit was off, the patient became stupid, and remained so till the return of the paroxysm, when the poetical powers returned again.

METROPTOSIS. (From μπτζα, the uterus, and πιπλω, to fall down.) Prolapsus uteri. The descent of the uterus

through the vagina.

METRORRHAGIA. (From μπτς2, the womb, and ξηγνυμι, το break out.) An excessive discharge from the womb.

MEU. See Meum athamanticum.

MEUM ATHAMANTICUM. (From µuων, less; so called, according to Minshew, from its diminutive size.) Meu. Spignel.

Baldmoney. The root of this plant, Æthusa mæum, is recommended as a carminative, stomachic, and for attenuating viscid humours, and appears to be nearly of the same nature as lovage, differing in its smell being rather more agreeable, somewhat like that of parsnips, but stronger, and being in its taste less sweet, and more warm, or acrid.

MEXICANUM. (From Mexico, whence it is brought.) A name of the balsam of

Peru.

Mexico seed. See Ricinus.

Mexico tea. See Botrys m. Mezereon. See Mezereum. See Botrys mexicana.

MEZEREUM. (A word of some barba-rous dialect.) Mezereon. Spurge-olive. Widow-wail. This plant, Daphne mezereum of Linnxus:-foribus sessilibus ternis caulinis, foliis lanceolatis deciduis, is extremely acrid, especially when fresh, and, if retained in the mouth, excites great and long continued heat and inflammation, particularly of the mouth and fauces; the berries also have the same effects, and, when is the part employed medicinally in the decoctum sarsaparille compositum, to assist mercury in resolving nodes and other obstinate symptoms of syphilis. The antisy-philitic virtues of mezereum, however, have been by many writers very justly doubted. The result of my own experience (says Mr. Pearson, of the Lock Hospital) by no means accords with the rcpresentation given of this root by former writers. From all that I have been able to collect, in the course of many years observation, I feel myself authorised to assert, unequivocally, that the mezereum has not the power of curing the venereal disease in any one stage, or under any one form. If a decoction of this root should ever reduce a venereal node, where no mercury has been previously given, yet the patient will by no means be exempted from the necessity of employing mercury for as long a space of time, and in as large a quantity, as if no mezereum had been taken. With respect to the power it is said to possess, of alleviating the pain, and diminishing the bulk of membranous nodes, nothing peculiar and appropriate can be ascribed to the mezereum on these accounts, since we obtain the same good effects from sarsaparilla, guaiacum, volatile alkali, blistering plasters, &c. Nevertheless, venereal nodes, which have subsided under the use of any of these articles of the materia medica, will appear again, and often with additional symptoms, if a full and efficacious course of mercury be not submitted to. It has, indeed, been al-leged, that mezereum always alleviates the pain occasioned by a venereal node, and generally reduces it, where the periosteum only is affected; and that it sel-

dom fails of removing those enlargements of the periosteum which have not yielded during the administration of mercury.

That some instances of success, in cases like these, may have fallen to the share of those who made the assertion, it would not become me to deny; but I have met with few such agreeable evidences of the efficacy of this medicine. I have given the mezereum in the form of a simple decoction, and also as an ingredient in compound decoctions of the woods, in many cases, where no mercury had been previously employed, but never with advantage to a single patient. I have also tried it, in numerous instances, after the completion of a course of mercury; yet, with the excep-tion of two cases, where the thickened state of the periosteum was removed during the exhibition of it, I never saw the least benefit derived from taking this medicine. In a few cases of anomalous pains, which I supposed were derived from irregularities during a mercurial course, the mezeswallowed, prove a powerful corrosive reum was of service, after I had tried the poison, not only to man, but to dogs, common decoction of the woods without wolves, and foxes. The bark of the root success; but even in this description of cases, I have always found it a very uncertain remedy. I have made trial of this vegetable in a great number of scrofulous cases, where the membranes covering the bones were in a diseased state, and I am not sure that one single patient obtained any evident and material benefit from

The late Dr. Cullen, whose reports may justly claim attention from all medical men, when treating of the mezereum, in his Materia Medica, says, "I have fre-quently employed it in several cutaneous affections, and sometimes with success." It were to have been wished, that the professor of medicine had specified what those diseases of the skin were, in which the mezereum was sometimes employed with success; for, if I except an instance or two of lepra, in which the decoction of this plant conferred a temporary benefit, I have very seldom found it possessed of medicinal virtue, either in syphilis, or in the sequelæ of that disease, in scrofula, or in cutaneous affections. Indeed the mezereum is of so acrimonious a nature, often producing heat and other disagreeable sensations in the fauces, and, on many occasions, disordering the primæ viæ, that I do not often subject my patients to the certain inconveniences which are connected with the primary effects of this medicine, as they are rarely compensated by any other important and useful qualities.

MEZEREUM ACETATUM. Very thin slices of the bark of the fresh mezereon root are to be steeped for twenty-four hours in common vinegar-The late Dr. Morris usually directed the application of this remedy to issues, when a discharge from them could not be encouraged by the

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common means. It generally answers this purpose very effectually in the course of one night, the pea being removed, and a small portion of the bark applied over the opening.

MIASMA. (From μιανεω, to infect.) See

Contagion.

MICROCOSMIC BEZOAR. See Calculus.

MICROLEUCONYMPHÆA. (From mixeos, small, revues, white, and vougara, the waterlily.) The small white water fily.

MICRONYMPHEA. (From pingos, small, and νυμφαια, the water-lily.) The smaller

water-lily.

Microrchis. (From ungos, small, and oexis, a testicle.) One whose testicles are unusually small.

MICROSPHYXIA. (From pungos, small, and σφυξις, the pulse.) A debility and smallness

of the pulse.

Midriff. See Diaphragm.
Migma. (From μηνυω, to mix.) A con-

fection, or ointment.

MIGRANA. A corruption of hæmicrania. Milfoil, common. See Millefolium.

MILIARIA. (From milium, millet; so called because the small pustules, or vesicles, upon the skin resemble millet-seed.) Miliary fever. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia, and order exanthemata of Culien; characterized by synochus; cold stage considerable; hot stage attended with anxiety and frequent sighing; perspiration of a strong and peculiar smell; eruption, preceded by a sense of pricking, first on the neck and breast, of small red pimples, which in two days become white pustules, desquamate, and are succeeded by fresh pimples. Miliary fever has been observed to affect both sexes, and persons of all ages and constitutions; but females of a delicate habit are most liable to it, particularly in child-bed. Moist variable weather is most favourable to its appearance, and it occurs most usually in the spring and autumn. It is by some said to be a contagious disease, and has been known to prevail epidemically.

Very violent symptoms, such as coma, delirium, and convulsion-fits, now and then attend miliary fever, in which case it is apt to prove fatal. A numerous eruption indicates more danger than a scanty one. The eruption being steady is to be considered as more favourable than its frequently disappearing and coming out again, and it is more favourable when the places covered with the eruption appear swelled and stretched than when they remain flaccid. According to the severity of the symptoms, and depression of spirits, is the danger greater. See also Sudamina.

MILIOLUM. (Dim. of milium, millet.) A small tumour on the eyelids, resembling in

size a millet-seed.

MILITARIS. (From miles, a soldier; so called from its efficacy in curing fresh wounds.) See Millefolium.

MILITARIS HERBA. See Millefolium.

MILIUM. (From milium, a millet-seed.) Grutum. A very white and hard tubercle, in size and colour resembling a millet-seed. Its seat is immediately under the cuticle, so that, when pressed, the contents escape, appearing of an atheromatous nature.

MILIUM SOLIS. See Lithospermum.

Lac. A fluid secreted by MILK. peculiar glands, and designed to nourish young animals in the early part of their life. It is of an opaque white colour, a mild saccharine taste, and a slightly aromatic smell. It is separated immediately from the blood, in the breasts or udders of female animals. Man, quadrupeds, and cetaceous animals, are the only creatures which afford milk. All other animals are destitute of the organs which secrete this fluid. Milk differs greatly in the several animals.

The following are the Properties of ani-

mal and human milk:

Milk separates spontaneously into cream, cheese, and serum of milk; and that sooner in a warm situation than in a cold one. In a greater temperature than that of the air, it acesces and coagulates, but more easily and quicker by the addition of acid salts, or coagulating plants. Lime-water coagulates milk imperfectly. It is not coagulated by alkali pure, for it dissolves its caseous part. With carbonated alkali the caseous and cremoraceous parts of milk are changed into a liquid soap, which separates in the form of white flakes: such milk, by boiling, is changed into a yellow and then into a brown colour. Milk, distilled to dryness, gives out an insipid water, and leaves a whitish brown extract, called the extract of milk; which, dissolved in water, makes a milk of less value. Milk, fresh drawn, and often agitated in a warm place, by degrees goes into the vinous fermentation, so that alkohol may be drawn over by distillation, which is called spirit of milk. It succeeds quicker, if yeast be added to the milk. Mare's milk, as it contains the greatest quantity of the sugar of milk, is best calculated for vinous fermentation.

The Principles of milk, or its integral parts, are, 1. The Aroma, or odorous volatile principle, which flies off from freshdrawn milk in the form of visible vapour. 2. Water, which constitutes the greatest part of milk. From one pound, eleven ounces of water may be extracted by distillation. This water, with the sugar of milk, forms the serum of the milk. Bland oil, which, from its lightness, swims. on the surface of milk after standing, and forms the cream of milk. 4. Cheese, separated by coagulating milk, falls to the bottom of the vessel, and is the animal gluten. 5. Sugar, obtained from the serum of milk by evaporation. unites the caseous and butyraceous part with the water of the milk. 6. Some neu.

tral salts, as the muriate of potash and murinte of lime, which are accidental, not being found at all times, nor in every milk. These principles of milk differ widely in respect to quantity and quality, according

to the diversity of the animals.

The aroma of the milk is of so different an odour, that persons accustomed to the smell, and those whose olfactory nerves are very sensible, can easily distinguish whether milk be that of the cow, goat, mare, ass, or human. The same may be said of the serum of the milk, which is properly the seat of the aroma. The serum of milk is thicker and more copious in the milk of the sheep and goat, than in that of the ass, mare, or human milk. The butter of goats and cows is easily separated from the milk, and will not again unite itself with the butter-milk. Sheep's butter is soft, and not of the consistence of that obtained from the cow and goat. Asses', mares', and human butter, can only be separated in the form of cream; which cream, by the assistance of heat, is with ease again united to the milk from which it is separated. The cheese of cows' and goats' milk is solid and elastic, that from asses and mares soft, and that from slieep's milk almost as soft as gluten. It is never separated spontaneously from the milk of a woman, but only by art, and is wholly fluid. The serum abounds most in human, asses', and mares' milk. The milk of the cow and goat contains less, and that of the sheep least of all. The sugar of milk is in the greatest quantity in the mares and asses, and somewhat less in the human milk.

MILK, ASSES'. Asses' milk has a very strong resemblance to human milk in colour, smell, and consistence. When left at rest for a sufficient time, a cream forms upon its surface, but by no means in such abundance as a woman's milk. Asses' milk differs from cows' milk, in its cream being less abundant and more insipid; in its containing less curd; and in its possessing a

greater proportion of sugar.
MILK, COWS'. The milk of women, mares, and asses, nearly agree in their qualities; that of cows, goats, and sleep, possess properties rather different. Of these, cows' milk approaches nearest to that yielded by the female breast, but differs very much in respect to the aroma; it contains a larger proportion of cream and cheese, and less serum than human milk; also less sugar than mares' and asses' milk.

Cows' milk forms a very essential part of human sustenance, being adapted to every state and age of the body; but particularly

to infants, after being weaned.

MILK, EWES'. This resembles almost precisely that of the cow; its cream, however, is more abundant, and yields a butter not so consistent as cow's milk butter. makes excellent cheese.

MILK, GOATS'. It resembles cows', except in its greater consistence; like that milk, it throws up abundance of cream, from which butter is easily obtained.

MILK, HUMAN. The white, sweet-ish fluid, secreted by the glandular fabric of the breasts of women. The secretory organ is constituted by the great congrome-rate glands, situated in the fat or both breasts, above the musculus pectoralis ma-From each actius composing a mammary gland, there arises a radicle of a luctiferous or galactiferous duct. All these canals, gradually converging, are terminated without anastomosis, in the papillæ of the breasts, by many orifices, which, upon pressure, pour forth milk. The smell of fresh-drawn milk is peculiar, animal, fatuous, and not disagreeable. Its taste sweetish, soft, bland, agreeable. The spe-cific gravity is greater than water, but lighter than blood; hence it swims on it. Its colour is white and opake. In consistence it is oily and aqueous. A drop put on the nail flows slowly down, if the milk be

Time of Secretion. The milk most frequently begins to be secreted in the last mouths of pregnancy; but, on the third day after delivery, a serous milk, called Colostrum, is separated; and at length pure milk is secreted very copiously into the breasts, that, from its abundance, often spontaneously drops from the nipples.

If the secretion of milk be daily pro-moted by suckling an infant, it often continues many years, unless a fresh pregnancy supervene. The quantity usually secreted within twenty-four hours, by nurses, is various, according as the nourishment may be more or less chylous. It appears that not more than two pounds of milk are obtained from five or six pounds of meat. But there have been known nurses, who have given from their breasts two, or even more than three pounds, in addition to that which their child has sucked. That the origin of the milk is derived from chyle carried with the blood of the mammary arteries into the glandular facric of the breasts is evident, from its more copious secretion a little after meals; its dimmished secretion from fasting; from the smell and taste of food or medicines in the secreted milk; and lastly, from it spontaneous acescence; for humours perfectly animal become putrid.

The milk of a woman differs: 1. in respect to food. The milk of a woman who suckles, living upon vegeto-animal food, never acesces nor coagulates spontaneously, although exposed for many weeks to the heat of a furnace. But it evaporates gradually in an open vessel, and the last drop continues thin, sweet, and bland. The reason appears to be, that the caseous and cremoraceous parts cohere together, by means of the sugar, more intimately

than in the milk of animals, and do not so prevented. It does acesce, if mixed or boiled with vinegar, juice of lemons, cremor tartar, dilute sulphuric acid, or with the human stomach. It is coagulated with the acid of salt, or nitre, and by an acid gastric juice of the infant; for infants often vomit up the coagulated milk of the nurse. The milk of a sucking woman, who lives upon vegetable food only, like cows' milk, easily and of its own accord acesces, and is acted upon by all coagulating substances like the milk of animals. 2. In respect of the time of digestion. During the first hours of digestion the chyle is crude, and the milk less subacted; but towards the twelfth hour after eating, the chyle is changed into blood, and then the milk becomes yellowish and nauseous, and is spit out by the infant. Hence the best time for giving suck is about the fourth or fifth hour after meals. 3. In respect of the time after delivery. The milk secreted immediately after delivery is serous, purges the bowels of the infant, and is called colostrum. But in the following days it becomes thicker and more pure, and the longer a nurse suckles, the thicker the milk is secreted; thus, new-born infants cannot retain the milk of a nurse who has given suck for a twelve-month, on account of its spissitude. 4. In respect of food and medicines. Thus, if a nurse eat garlic, the milk becomes highly impregnated with its odour, and is disagreeable. If she in-dulge too freely in the use of wine or beer, the infant becomes ill. From giving a purging medicine to a nurse, the child also is purged; and, lastly, children affected with tormina of the bowels, arising from acids, are often cured by giving the nurse animal food, 5. In respect of the affections of the mind. There are frequent examples of rinfants being seized with convulsions from sucking mothers irritated by anger. infant of one year old, while he sucked milk from his enraged mother, on a sudden was seized with a fatal hæmorrhage, and died. Infants at the breast in a short time pine away, if the nurse be afflicted with grievous care; and there are also infants who, after every coition of the mother, or even if she menstruate, are taken ill.

The use of the mother's milk is, 1. It affords the native allinent to the new-born infant, in which respect milk differs little from chyle. Those children are the stronggest, who are nourished the longest by the mothers's milk. 2. The colostrum should not be rejected; for it relaxes the bowels, which in new-born infants ought to be open, to clear their intestines of the meconium. 3. Lactation defends the mother from a dangerous reflux of the milk into the blood, whence lacteal metastasis, and leucorrhæa, are so frequent in lying in women, who do not give suck. The mo-

tion of the milk also being hastened through the breast by the sucking of the child, prevents the very common induration of the breast, which arises in consequence of the milk being stagnated. 4. Men may live upon milk, unless they have been accustomed to the drinking of wine. For all nations, the Japanese alone excepted, use milk, and many live upon it alone.

MILK, MARES'. This is thinner than that of the cow, but scarcely so thin as human milk. Its cream cannot be converted into butter by agitation. The whey con-

tains sugar.

MILK BLOTCHES. An eruption of white vesicles, which assume a dark colour, resembling the blackening of the small-pox, and are succeeded by scabs producing an ichory matter, attended with considerable itchiness. It generally appears on the forehead and scalp, extending half over the face, and at times even proceeding farther. The period of its attack is the time of teething; and it is probably the same disease as the crustea lectea.

Milk fevor. See Puerperal fever.

Milk-teeth. See Teeth.

MILK-THISTLE. The leaves of this plant, when young, surpasses, when boiled, the finest cabbage, and possesses diuretic qualities. See also *Carduus mariæ*.

Milk-vetch. See Tragacantha. Milk-wort. See Polygala.

Milk-wort, rattle-snake root. See Seneka. MILLEFOLIUM. (From mille, a thousand, and folium, a leaf; named from its numerous leaves.) Achilea Myriophyllon. Chiliophullon. Lumbus veneris. Militaris herba. Stratiotes. Carpentaria. Speculum veneris. Common yarrow, or milfoil. The leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant, Achillea millefolium of Linnæus:—foliis bipianatis nudis; laciniis linearibus dentatis; caulibus superne sulcatis, have an agreeable, weak, aromatic smell, and a bitterish, rough, and somewhat pungent taste. They are both directed for medicinal use, in the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia; in the present practice, however, they are almost wholly neglected.

MILLEMORBIA. (From mille, a thousand, and morbus, a disease; so called from its use in many diseases.) See Scrophularia vulgaris.

MILLEPEDÆ. See Millepedes.

MILLEPEDES. (From mille, a thousand, and pes, a foot, named from their numerous feet.) Millipede. Wood-lice. The Oniscus asellus of Linneus. These insects, though they obtain a place in the pharmacopæias, are very seldom used medicinally in this country; they appear to act as stimulants and slight diuretics, and for this purpose they ought to be administered in a much greater dose than is usually prescribed. The expressed juice, or forty or fifty living millepedes, given in a mild

drink, is said to cure very obstinate jaundiccs.

MILLET-SEED. The fruit of the Panicum miliaceum of Linnaus. They are esteemed as a nutricious article of diet, and are often made into puddings in this country.

MILLET-SEED, INDIAN. The fruit of the Panicum italicum of Linnaus. It is much esteemed in Italy, being a constant ingredient in soups, and made into a variety of forms for the table.

MILLIUM. (From mille, a thousand; so called from the multitude of its seed.) Milium. The millet.

Mill-mountain. · See Linum Catharticum. MILPHOSIS. Μιλφωσις. A baldness of

the eyebrows.

MILTOS. MINTOS. Minium, or red-lead.

Miltwaste. See Geterach.

(From milza, the spleen, MILZADELLA. Span.; so called from its supposed virtues in diseases of the spleen.) The herb arch-

MIMOSA CATECHU. The systematic name of the tree which affords the terra japonica.

See Catechu.

MIMOSA NILOTICA. Supposed to be the tree which afforded the gum-arabic, but now considered to be the acacia vera. See Arabic gum.

MIMOSA SENEGAL. The systematic name of the tree from which the gum senegal

exudes.

Mindererus spirit. See Liquor ammoniæ acetatis.

MINERALIA. See Minerals.

MINERALOGY. That part of natural history which relates to minerals.

Mineral poisons. See Poisons.

MINERAL WATERS. .1qua mineralea, Aqua medicinales. Waters holding minerals in solution are called mineral waters. But as all water, in a mineral state, is impregnated, either more or less, with some mineral substances, the name mineral waters should be confined to such waters as are sufficiently impregnated with mineral matters to produce some sensible effects on the animal economy, and either to cure or prevent some of the diseases to which the human body is liable. On this account, these waters might be with much more propriety, be called medicinal waters, were not the name by which they are commonly known too firmly established by

The mineral waters which are the most esteemed, and consequently the most resorted to for the cure of diseases, are those

1. Aix. 2. Berege. 5. Buxton.

S. Bath. 4. Bristol. 6. Borset. 7. Cheltenham.8. Carlsbad.

17. Scarborough. 9. Epsom.

10. Harrowgate. 18. Spa. 11. Hartfell. 19. Sedlitz. 12. Holywell. 20. Sea-water.

13. Malvern. 21. Seltzer. 14. Matlock. 22. Tunbridge. 15. Moffat. 23. Vichy, and others 16. Pyrmont. of less note.

For the properties and virtues of these consult their respective heads.

Fourcroy divides all mineral and medicinal waters into nine orders, viz.

Cold alcidulous waters.

2. Hot or thernal acidulous waters.

3. Sulphuric saline waters. 4. Muriatic salinc waters.

5. Simple sulphureous waters.

6. Sulphurated gazeous waters. 7. Simple ferruginous waters.

8. Ferruginous and acidulous waters.

Sulphuric ferruginous waters.

Dr. Saunders arranges mineral waters into the following classes:

1. Simple cold.

thernal.

3. \_\_\_\_saline.

4. Highly carbonated alkaline.

5. Simple carbonated chalybeate. 6. Hot carbonated chalybeate.

7. Highly carbonated chalybeate. 8. Saline carbonated chalybcate.

9. Hot saline highly carbonated chalvbeate.

10. Vitriolated chalybeate.

11. Cold, sulphureous. 12. Hot, alkaline, sulphureous.

In order to present the reader, under one point of view, with the most conspicuous features in the composition of the mineral waters of this and some other countries, the following Synoptical Table is subjoined, from Dr. Saunders' works on mineral waters.

The reader will please to observe, that under the head of Neutral Purging Salts are included the sulphats of soda and magnesia, and the muriats of lime, soda, and magnesia. The power which the earthy muriats may possess of acting on the intes-tinal canal is not quite ascertained, but, from their great solubility, and from analogy with salts, with similar component parts, we may conclude that this forms a principal part of their operation.

The reader will likewise observe, that where the spaces are left blank, it signifies that we are ignorant whether any of the substance at the head of the column is contained in the water; that the word none implies a certainty of the absence of that substance; and the term uncertain means that the substance is contained, but,

that the quantity is not known.

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				Contained	in an English	Contained in an English Wine Pint of 28.875 Cubic Inches.	of 28.875 Cul	ie Inches.	-
CLASS.	NAME.	High st Tempe-	Azotic Gas.	Carbonie Acid Gas.	Sulphers ted Hydren n.	Carbonated Soda.	Neutral Purging Salts.	Selenite and Earthy Car- bonates.	Oxyd of Iron.
		Fahrenheit.	Cubic Inches	Cubic Inches Cubic Inches	Cubic Inches	Grains.	Grains.	Grains.	Grains.
Simpler cold	Malvern			neert in	9:11:	none	meercain	meertain	none
	olvwell				nene	euo'.	uncertain	unceriain	none
	Bristol	740	unc rtam	3.75	Borre	oiie	2 81	3.16	none
Simpler thermal	Ma. ock	65°		macetta.n	-sone	ع	uncetrain	uncertain	none
	Buxton	82°	0.474	uncertain	none	one	0.25	1.625	none
	ditz			1	none	1101 e	185.6	89.8	none
simple saline	Epsem				0.0	none	40.7	8.3	none
History Contract of the last	Sea				none	n.ne	.75	.9	нопе
righty carbonated alkaline	Seltzer			17.	75 C	4	17.5	8.	none
Simple carb haved charboare	Turbr d e		90	1 325	n: ne	none	0.544	0.156	0.125
trol carbonated chaivocate	Barr	1169	1.2	13	none	Diale	10.2	10.3	uncertain
Highly carbonated chalybeate \$	Spa			12.79	1.6	1.47	4.632	1.47	0.56
	rmont			2t.	ne	11: Ne	7 13	23.075	0.56
Saline, carbonated chalybeate	Chelte niva o		uncertain	5.687	ner tin	Authe	62,195	6.85	0.625
	Scarborough			uncertain	nc ne	one	20.	10.	uncent in
Hot, saliine, highly carbonated	Vichy	1200 ?		uncert in	ויטני	uncertain.		uncertain	une itain
Visiol 1997 and 1997	' r.sbad	165°		uncertain	∴0n-	11.76	47 0.4	4.15	unc-rain
viciolated chary beate	Hartell				100.16	ноше	Longe	попе	4 815*
Cold sulphureous	Harrowgate		0.875	1.	3375	none	91 25	3.	попе
7	von.t		0.5	0.625	1 25	allon.	4.5	noe	none
	Als	1430		uncer sin	ncertain	12.	5	4.75	попе
riot, aikaline, sulphureous	B ret	1320		u cert i	mee tam	uncerta	U.Cet.III		none
	156.646	12.5	A PARTICIONAL PROPERTY OF THE PARTY OF THE P	THE REAL PROPERTY OF STREET	mc, rtain	2.25	0.5	uncertain	none
I hat is, 2.94 contained in the sulphat of iron, (this salt, when crystallized, containing 28 per cent. of oxyd of iron, according to Kirwan,) and 1.875	ohat of iron, (	this salt, whe	en crystallized, containin additional of oxyd of iron	l, containing xyd of iron.	28 per cent.	i oxyd of i	on, accordin	g to Kirwan,)	and 1.875

Mr. Henry, in his epitome of chymistry, gives the following concise and accurate account for the analysis of mineral wa-

Water is never presented by nature in a state of complete purity. Even when collected as it descends in the form of rain, chymical tests detect in it foreign ingredients. And when it has been absorbed by the earth, has traversed its different strata, and is returned to us by springs, it is found to have acquired various impregnations. The readiest method of judging of the contents of natural waters is by applying what are termed tests, or reagents, i. e. substances which, on being added to a water, exhibits, by the phoenomena they produce, the nature of the saline and other ingredients. For example, if, on adding an infusion of litmus to any water, its colour is changed to red, we infer that the water contains an uncombined acid; if this change ensue even after the water has been boiled, we judge that the acid is a fixed and not a volatile one: and if, on adding the muriate of barytes, a precipitate falls down, we safely conclude that the peculiar acid present in the water is either entirely or in part the sulphuric acid. Mr. Henry first enumerates the tests generally employed in examining mineral waters, and describes their ap-plication, and afterwards indicates by what particular tests the substances generally found in waters may be detected.

A. Infusion of Litmus. Syrup of Violets, &c - As the infusion of litmus is apt to spoil by keeping, some solid litmus should The infusion is prepared by be kept. steeping this substance, first bruised in a mortar, and tied up in a thin rag, in distilled water, which extracts its blue co-If the colour of the infusion tends too much to purple, it may be amended by a drop or two of pure aminonia; but of but not by carbonated earths. this no more should be added that what is 3. The red infusion of Bra barely sufficient, least the delicacy of the test should be impaired. The syrup of violets is not easily obtained pure. The genuine syrup may be distinguished from the spurious by a solution of corrosive sublimate, which changes the former to green, while it reddens the latter. When it can be procured genuine, it is an excellent test of acids, and may be employed in the same manner as the infusion of litmus. Paper stained with the juice of the marsh violet, or with that of radishes, answers a similar purpose. In staining paper for the purpose of a test, it must be used unsized; or, if sized, it must previously be washed with warm water; because the alum which enters into the composition of the size will otherwise change the vegetable colour to a red.

Infusion of litmus is a test of most uncombined acids.

If the infusion redden the unboiled but not the boiled water under examination, or if the red colour occasioned by adding the infusion to a recent water return to blue on boiling, we may infer that the acid is a volatile one, and most probably the carbonic acid. Sulphuretted hydrogen gas, dissolved in water, also reddens litmus, but not after boiling. To ascertain whether the change be produced by carbonic acid, or sulphuretted hydrogen, when experiment shews that the reddening cause is volatile, add a little lime-water. This, if carbonic acid be present, will occasion a precipitate, which will dissolve with effervescence, on adding a little muriatic acid. Sulphuretted hydrogen may also be contained in the same water, which will be ascertained by the tests hereafter to be described.

Paper tinged with litmus is also reddened by the presence of carbonic acid, but regains its blue colour by drying. The mineral and fixed acids redden it permanent-That these acids, however, may produce their effect, it is necessary that they should be present in a sufficient propor-

Infusion of litmus reddened by vinegar-Spirituous tincture of Brazil wood-Tincture of turmeric, and paper stained with each of these three substances-Syrup of violets. All these different tests have one and the same object.

1. Infusion of litmus reddened by vinegar, or litmus paper reddened by vinegar, has its blue colour restored by alkalis and pure earths, and by carbonated alkalis and earths.

2. Turmeric paper and tincture are changed to a reddish brown by alkalis, whether pure or carbonated, and by pure earths;

3. The red infusion of Brazil wood, and paper stained with it, become blue by alkalis and earths, and even by the latter, when dissolved by an excess of carbonic acid. In the last mentioned case, however, the change will either cease to appear, or be much less remarkable, when the water has been boiled.

4. Syrup of violets, when pure, is by the same causes turned green, as also paper stained with the juices of violets, or raddishes.

B. Tincture of Galls.

Tincture of galls is the test generally employed for discovering iron, with all the combinations of which it produces a black tinge, more or less intense, according to the quantity of iron. The iron, however, in order to be detected by this test, must be in the state of red oxyd, or, if oxydated in

a less degree, its effects will not be apparent, unless after standing some time in contact with air. By applying this test before and after evaporation, or boiling, we may know whether the iron be held in solution by carbonic acid or a fixed acid; for,

1. If it produce its effects before the application of heat, and not afterwards, car-

bonic acid is the solvent.

2. If after, as well as before, a mineral

acid is the solvent.

3. If, by the boiling, a yellowish powder be precipitated, and yet galls continue to strike the water black afterwards, the iron, as often happens, is dissolved both by carbonic acid and a fixed acid. A neat mode of applying the gall test was used by M. Klaproth, in his analysis of the Carlsbad water. A slice of the gall-nut was suspended by a silken thread, in a large bottle of the recent water; and so small was the quantity of iron, that it could only be discovered in water fresh from the spring.

C. Sulphuric Acid.

1. Sulphuric acid discovers, by a slight effervescence, the presence of carbonic acid, whether uncombined or united with alkalis, or earths.

2. If lime be present, whether pure or uncombined, the addition of sulphuric acid occasions, after a few days, a white pre-

· cipitate.

3. Barytes is precipitated instantly in the

form of a white powder.

4. Nitrous and muriatic salts, on adding sulphuric acid and applying heat, are decomposed; and if a stopper, moistened with pure ammonia, be held over the vessel, white clouds appear. For distinguishing whether nitric or muriatic acid be present, rules will be given hereafter.

Nitric and Nitrous Acids.

These acids, if they occasion effervescence, give the same indications as the sulphuric. The nitrous acid has been recommended, as a test distinguishing between hepatic waters that contain sulphuret of potash, and those that only contain sulphuretted hydrogen gas. In the former case, a precipitate ensues on adding nitrous acid, and a very fortid smell arises; in the latter, a slight cloudiness only appears, and the smell of the water becomes less disagreeable.

D. Oxalic Acid and Oxalates.

This acid is a most delicate test of lime, which it separates from all its combina-

1. If a water, which is precipitated by oxalic acid, becomes milky on adding a watery solution of carbonic acid gas, or by blowing air through it by means of a quill, or glass tube, we may infer that pure lime

(or barytes, which has never yet been found pure in water) is present.

2. If the oxalic acid occasion a precipitate before, but not after boiling, the lime is dissolved by an excess of carbonic acid.

3. If, after boiling by a fixed acid, a considerable excess of any of the mineral acids, however, prevents the oxalic acid from occasioning a precipitate, even though lime be present; because some acids decompose the oxalic, and others, dissolving the oxalate of lime, prevent it from ap-

pearing. The oxalate of ammonia, or of potash, (which may easily be formed by saturating their respective carbonates with a solution of oxalic acid) are not liable to the above objections, and are preferable, as reagents, to the uncombined acids. Yet even these oxalates fail to detect lime when supersaturated with muriatic or nitric acids; and if such an excess be present, it must be saturated before adding the test with pure ammonia. Fluat of ammonia is the best test of lime. It is made by adding carbonate of ammonia to diluted fluoric acid.

E. Pure Alkalis and Carbonated Alkalis.

1. The pure fixed alkalis precipitate all earths and metals, whether dissolved by volatile or fixed menstrua, but only in certain states of dilution: for example, sulphate of alumine may be present in water, in the proportion of 4 grains to 500, without being discovered by pure fixed alkalis. As the alkalis precipitate so many substances, it is evident they cannot afford any precise information when employed as reagents. From the colour of the precipitate, as it approaches to pure white, or recedes from it, an experienced eye will judge that the precipitated earth contains less or more of the metallic admixture.

2. Pure fixed alkalis decompose all salts with basis of ammonia, which becomes evident by its smell, and also by the white fumes it exhibits when a stopper is brought near it, moistened with muriatic acid.

3. Carbonates of potash and soda have

similar effects.

4. Pure ammonia precipitates all earthy and metallic salts. Besides this property, it also imparts a deep blue colour to any liquid that contains copper in a state of solution.

Carbonate of ammonia has the same properties, except that it does not precipitate magnesia from its combinations. Hence, to ascertain whether this earth be present in any solution, add the carbonate of ammonia till no further precipitation ensues, filter the liquor, and then add pure ammonia. If any precipitation now occurs, we may infer the presence of magnesia.

Y. Lime-Water.

1. Lime-water is applied for the purposes of a test, chiefly for detecting carbonic acid. Let any liquor, supposed to contain this acid, be mixed with an equal bulk of this acid. If carbonic acid be present, either free or combined, a precipitate will immediately appear, which, on adding a few drops of muriatic acid, will immediately dissolve with effervescence.

2. Lime-water will immediately shew the presence of corrosive sublimate, by a brick-dust coloured sediment. If arsenie be present in any liquid, lime-water, when added, will occasion a precipitate, consisting of lime and arsenic, which is very difficultly soluble in water. This precipitate, when mixed up with oil, and laid on the hot coals, yields the well-known garlic smell of arsenic.

G. Pure Barytes, and its Solution in Water.

1. A solution of pure barytes is even more effectual than lime-water, in detecting the presence of carbonic acid, and is much more portable and convenient; since from the crystals of this earth, the solution may at any time be prepared. In discovering fixed air, the solution of barytes is used similarly to lime-water; and, if this acid be present, gives, in like manner, a precipitate soluble with effervescence in muriatic acid.

Pure strontites has similar virtues as a test.

11. Metals.

1. Of the metals, silver and mercury are tests of the presence of sulphurets, and of sulphuretted hydrogen gas. If a little quicksilver be put into a bottle, containing water impregnated with either of these substances, its surface soon acquires a black film, and, on shaking, a blackish powder separates from it. Silver is immediately tarnished from the same cause.

2. The metals also may be used as tests of each other, on the principle of elective affinity. Thus, for example, a polished iron plate, immersed in a solution of sulphate of copper, soon acquires a coat of this metal, and the ssme in other similar

examples.

I. Sulphate of Iron.

This is the only one of the sulphrices, except that of silver, applicable to the purposes of a test. When used in this view, it is generally employed to ascertain the presence of oxygenous gas, of which a natural water may contain a small quantity.

A water suspected to contain this gas, may be mixed with a little recently dissolved sulphate of iron, and kept corked up. If an oxyd of iron be precipitated in the course of a few days, the water may be inferred to contain oxygeneus gas.

Sulphate, Nitrate, and Acetate of Silver. These solutions are, in some measure,

applicable to the same purpose.

1. They are peculiarly adapted to the discovery of muriatic acid and muriates. For the silver, quitting the nitric acid, combines with the muriatic, and forms a flaky precipitate, which at first is white, but, on exposure to the sun's light, acquires a bluish colour. This precipitate, Dr. Black states to contain, in 1000 parts, as much muriatic acid as would form 425 parts and a half of chrystallised muriate of soda, which estimate scarcely differs at all from that of Klaproth. A precipitation, however, may arise from other causes, which it may be proper to state.

2. The solutions of silver in acids are precipitated by carbonated alkalis and earths. The agency of these may be prevented by previously adding a few drops of the same acid in which the silver is dis-

solved.

3. The nitrate and acetate of silver are decomposed by the sulphuric and sulphureous acids; but this may be prevented by adding previously a few drops of nitrate or acetite of barytes, and after allowing the precipitate to subside, the clear liquor may be decanted, and the solution of silver added. Should a precipitation now take place, the presence of muriatic acid, or some one of its combinatious, may be suspected. To obviate uncertainty, whether a precipitation be owing to sulphuric or muriatic acid, a solution of sulphure of silver may be employed, which is effected only by the latter acid.

4. The solutions of silver are precipitated by extractive matters; but in this case also the precipitate is discoloured, and is

soluble in nitrous acid.

K. Nitrate and Acetate of Lead.

1. Aceite of lead, the most eligible of these two tests, is precipitated by sulphuric and muriatic acids; but as, of both these, we have much better indicators, it is not necessary to enlarge on its application to

this purpose.

2. The acetite is also a test of sulphuretted hydrogen and of sulphurets of alkalis, which occasion a black precipitate; and if a paper on which characters are traced with a solution of acetite of lead, be held over a portion of water containing sulphuretted hydrogen, they are soon rendered visible.

3. The acetite of lead is employed in the discovery of uncombined boracic acid, a very rare ingredient of waters. To ascertain whether this be present, some cautions are necessary. The uncombined alkalis and earths (if any be suspected) must be saturated with acetic or acetous acid. The sulphates must be decomposed by acetite or narate of barytes, and the

muriates by acetite or nitrate of silver. The filtered liquor, if boracic acid be contained in it, will give a precipitate soluble in nitric acid of the specific gravity of 1.3.

L. Nitrate of Mercury prepared with and without Heat.

This solution, differently prepared, is sometimes employed as a test. But, since other tests answer the same purposes more effectually, it is not absolutely necessary to have these tests.

M. Muriate, Nitrate, and Acetite

of Barytes.

1. These solutions are all most delicate tests of sulphuric acid and of its combinations, with which they give a white precipitate, insoluble in dilute muriatic acid. They are decomposed, however, by carbonates of alkali; but the precipitate occasioned by these is soluble in dilute muriatic and nitric acid with effervescence, and may even be prevented by adding previously a few drops of the acid contained in the

barytic salt.

One lundred grains of dry sulphate of barytes (acording to Klaproth, p. 168.) contains about 45 one-fifth of sulphuric acid, of the specific gravity 1850, according to Clayfield, 33 of acid of s. g. 2240, according to Thenard, after calcination about 25. These estimates differ very considerably. From Klaproth's experiments it appears that 1000 grains of sulphate of barytes indicate 595 of desiccated sulphate of soda, or 1416 of the crystallized salt. The same chymist has shewn that 100 grains of sulphate of barytes are produced by the precipitation of 71 grains of sulphate of lime.

2. Phosphoric salts also occasion a precipitate which is soluble in muriatic acid

without effervescence.

N. Prussiates of Potash and Lime.

Of these two, the prussiat of potash is the most eligible. When pure, it does not speedily assume a blue colour on the addition of acid, nor does it immediately precipitate muriated barytes. Prussiat of potash is a very sensible test of iron, with the solutions of which in acids it produces a Prussian blue precipitate, in consequence of a double elective affinity. To render its effect more certain, however, it may be proper to add, previously to any water suspected to contain iron, a little muriatic acid, with a view to the saturation of uncombined alkalis, or earths, which, if present, prevent the detection of any minute portions of iron.

1. If a water, after boiling and filtration, does not afford a blue precipitate on the addition of prussiat of potash, the solvent of the iron may be inferred to be a volatile one, and probably the carbonic acid

2. Should the precipitation ensue in the boiled water, the solvent is a fixed acid,

the nature of which must be ascertained by other tests.

O. Solution of Soap in Alkohol.

This solution may be used to ascertain the comparative hardness of waters. With distilled water it may be mixed without producing any change; but, if added to a hard water, it produces a milkiness, more or less considerable as the water is less pure; and from the degree of milkiness as experienced eye will judge of its quality. The acids, alkalis, and all earthy and metallic salts, decompose soap, and occasion that property in water termed hardness.

Alkohol.

Alkohol, when mixed with any water in the proportion of about an equal bulk, precipitates all the salts which it is capable of dissolving.

P. Hydro-sulphuret of Ammonia.

This and other sulphurets, as well as water saturated with sulphurated hydrogen, may be employed in detecting lead and arsenic, with the former of which they give a black, and with the latter a yellowish precipitate. As lead and arsenic, however, are never found in natural waters, these tests are not required.

MINERALS. (Mineralia; from mina, a mine of metal.) All substances which do not possess organization, or are not produced by an organized body, belong to the class called minerals. Among this varied class of materials, which require the attention of the chymist and manufacturer, many are compounded of such principles and formed under such circumstances and situations in the earth, that it is difficult to distinguish them without having recourse to the test of experiment; several are formed with considerable regularity as to the proportion of their principles, their fracture, their colour, specific gravity, and figure of crystallization.

Mineral bodies which enter into the composition of the globe, are classed by mineralogists under four heads:—1. Earths. 2. Salts. 3. Inflammable fossils; and 4. Metals and their ores. Under the term earths are arranged stones and earths, which have no taste, and do not burn when

heated with contact of air.

Under the second, salts, or those saline substances which melt in water and do not burn, they require, according to Mr. Kirwan, less than two hundred times their weight of water to dissolve them.

By inflammable fossils are to be understood all those minerals not soluble in water, and exhibiting a flame more or less evident when exposed to fire in contact with air.

The fourth class, or ores, are compound bodies. Nature has bestowed their proper metallic appearance on some substances, and when this is the case, or they are alloyed with other metals, or semi-metals, they are called native metals. But such as are distinguished, as they commonly are, in mines, in combination with some other unmetallic substances, are said to be mineralized. The substance that sets them in that state, is called the mineralizer, and the compound of both, an ore. For example, in the common ore of copper, this metal is found oxydated, and the oxyd combined with sulphur. The copper may be considered as mineralized with oxygen and sulphur, and the compound of the three bodies forms an ore of copper.

Mineral salts. See Sults.

MINIMUM. A minim. The sixticth part of a drachm. An important change has been adopted in the last London Pharmacopæia, for the mensuration of liquids, and the division of the wine pint, to insure accuracy in the measurement of qualities of liquids below one drachm. The number of drops contained in one drachm has been assumed to be sixty; and taking water as a standard, this number, though by no means accurate, would still be sufficient for ordinary purposes; but when other liquids of less specific gravity are used, a much larger number is required to fill the same measure, as of proof spirit, 140 drops are required to equal the bulk of 60 of water, dropped from the same vessel. If, therefore, in the composion of medicines, measures suited to the standard of water were used occasionally only, and it was generally assumed that sixty drops were equal to one fluid-drachm, and one fluid-drachm was substituted for sixty drops prescribed, twice the dose intended would be given. There are further objections to the use of drops; that their bulk is influenced by the quantity of liquid contained, in the bottle from which they fall, by the thickness of the lip, and even by the inequalities on the surface of the lip of the same bottle; that volatile liquids, to which this mode is most commonly applied, are thus exposed with extensive surfaces, and their evaporation promoted, and on all these accounts the adoption of some decisive convenient and uniform substitute became necessary. The subdivision of the wine pint has therefore been extended to the sixtieth part of the fluid-drachm, which is termed minim; and glass measures, expressive of such subdivision have been adapted by the college.

MINIUM. Red lead. See Lead.
MINIUM GRECORUM. Native cinnabar.
Mint, common. See Mentha sativa.
Mint, pepper. See Mentha piperita.
Mint, water. See Mintha aquatica.
Miscarriage. See Abortion.
MISFERE MEI. (Have compassion on

me; so called from its unhappy torments.)
The liliac passion.

Mislaw. See Musa paradisiaca.

Misocurmicus. Thus some were called who professed themselves enemies to the chymists, and their enthusiastic conceits.

MISPICKLE. A white, brilliant, granulated iron ore, composed of iron in combi-

nation with arsenic.

Missletoe. See Viscum.
MISTURA, A mixture. A fluid composed of two or more ingredients. It is mostly contracted in prescriptions thus, mist, e. g.—f. mist. which means, let it be made into a mixture.

MISTURA CAMPHORE. Camphire mixture. "Take of camphor, half a drachm; rectified spirit, ten minims; water, a pint. First rub the camphor with the spirit, then with the water gradually added, and strain the liquor." A very elegant preparation of camphire, for delicate stomachs, and those who cannot bear it in substance, as an antispasmodic and nervine. There is a great loss of camphire in making it as directed by the pharmacopæia. Water can only take up a certain quantity. For its virtues, see Camphora.

MISTURA CORNU USTI. "Take of hartshorn, burnt and prepared, two ounces; acacia gum, an ounce; water, three pints." Boil down to two pints, constantly stirring, and strain. For its virtues, see Cornu.

MISTURA CRETE. Chalk mixture. "Take of prepared chalk, half an ounce; refined sugar, three drachms; gum arabic, powdered, half an ounce." Mix. A very useful and pleasant form of administering chalk as an adstringent and antacid. It is particularly calculated for children, in whom it allays the many deranged actions of the prime vize, which are produced by acidities. Dose, one ounce to three, frequently, See Creta and Carbonas calcis.

MISTURA FERRI COMPOSITA. " Take of myrrh, powdered, a drachm; subcarbonate of potash, twenty-five grains; rose-water, seven ounces and a half; sulphate of iron, powdered, a scruple; spirit of nutmeg, an ounce; refined sugar, a drachm. Rub together the myrrh, the subcarbonate of potash and sugar; and, during the trituration, add gradually, first, the rose water and spirit of nutmegs, and last, the suiphate of iron. Pour the mixture immediately into a proper glass bottle, and stop it close," This preparation is the celebrated mixture of Dr. Griffiths. A chymical decomposition is effected in forming this mixture, a subcarbonate of iron is formed, and a sulphate of potash.

MISTURA GUALACI. "Take of guaiacum gnm resin, a drachm and a halt; refined sugar, two drachms; mucilage of acacia gum, two fluid ounces; cinnamon water, eight fluid ounces. Rub the guniacum with the sugar, then with the mucilage; and, when they are mixed, pour on the cinnamon water gradually." For its virtues

see Guaiacum.

MISTURA MOSCHI. "Take of musk, acacia gum, powdered, refined sugar, of each a drachm; rose-water, six fluid ounces." Rub the musk first with the sugar, then with the gum, and add the rose-water by degrees. An excellent diaphoretic and antispasmodic. It is by far the best way of administering musk; when boluses cannot be swallowed. Dose, one ounce to three, frequently.

Mithridate mustard. See Thluspi cam-

pestre.

The electuary called MITHRIDATIUM. Mithridate, from Mithridates, king of Pontus and Bythinia, who experienced the virtues of the simples separately, afterwards combined them; but then the composition consisted of but few ingredients, viz. twenty leaves of rue, two walnuts, two figs, and a little salt: of this he took a dosc every morning, to guard himself against the effects of poison.

MITRAL VALVES. Valvule mithrales. The valves of the left ventricle of the heart are so called from their resemblance to a

mitre.

MIVA. An antient term for the form of a medicine, not unlike a thick syrup, now called Marmalade.

MIXTURE. 1. See Mistura.

2. Chymical mixture should be distinguished from the chymical solution; in the former, the aggregate particles can again be separated by mechanical means, and the proportion of the different particles determined; but, in solution, no mechanical power whatsoever can separate them.

Mochlia. (From μοχλος, a lever.) A reduction of the bones from an unnatural

to a natural situation.

Mochlics. (From μοχλευω, to move.) Violent purges.

MODIOLUS. (Dim. of modus, a measure.) The nucleus, as it were, of the cochlea of the ear is so termed. It ascends from the basis of the cochlea to the apex.

Mofette. See Nitrogen.

MOFFAT WATER. A cold snlphureous water, of a very simple composition. miles south-west of Edinburgh, affords this mineral water; when first drawn, it appears rather milky and bluish; the smell is exactly similar to that of Harrogate, the smell is sulphureous and saline, without any thing bitter. It sparkles somewhat on being poured from one glass to another.

According to Dr. Garnett's analysis, a wine gallon of Moffat water contains thirty-

six grains of muriate of soda, five cubic inches of carbonic acid gas, four of azotic gas, and ten of sulphurated hydrogen, making altogether nineteen cubic inches of gas. Moffat water is, therefore, very simple in its composition, and hence it produces effects somewhat similar to those of Harrogate. It is, perhaps, on this account also that it so soon loses the hepatic gas, on which depends the greater part of its medicinal power. The only sensible effect of this water is that of increasing the flow of urine; when it purges, it appears rather to take place from the expessive dose than from its mineral ingredients. This water appears to be useful chiefly in cutaneous eruptions, and as an external application in an increased temperature, scrofula in its early stage appears to be alleviated, it is also used as an external application to irritable ulcers, and is recommended in dyspepsia, and where there is inaction of the alimentary canal.

MOGILALIA. (From μονις, difficulty, and λαλιω, to speak. A difficulty of speech.

Mola. (Heb.) 1. The knee-pan; so named because it is shaped like a mill-stone. 2. A mole, or shapeless mass of flesh in the uterus. Sec Mule.

MOLAR GLANDS. Glandulæ molares. Two salival glands situated on each side of the mouth, between the masseter and buccinator muscles, the excretory ducts of which open near the last dens molaris.

(From molaris, a grind-MOLARIS. stone; because they grind the food.) A double-tooth. See Teeth.

Molasses. See Treacle.

Melissa Tursica, Turkey MOLDAVICA. balsam. Canary balsam. Balsam of Gilead. This plant, Dracocephalum moldavica; floribus verticellatis, bracteis lanceolatis, serraturis capillaleis of Linnxus, affords a fragrant essential oil, by distillation, known in Germany by the name of cleum syriae. The whole herb abounds with an aromatic smell, and an agreeable taste, joined with an aromatic flavour; it is recommended to give tone to the stomach and nervous system.

MOLE. Mola. By this term authors have intended to describe different productions of, or excretions from the uterus.

By some it has been used to signify every Moffat, a village situated about fifty-six kind of fleshy substance, particularly those which are properly called polypi; by others, those only which are the consequence of imperfect conception, or when the ovum is in a morbid or decayed state; and by many, which is the most popular opinion, every coagulum of blood which continues long enough in the uterus to assume in form, and to have only the fibrous part, as it has been called, remaining, is denominated a mole.

There is surely much impropriety, says Dr. Denman, in including, under one general name, appearances so contrary, and substances so different.

For an account of the first kind, see Po-

lyfnis.

Of the second kind, which has been defined as an own deforme, as it is the consequence of conception, it might more justly be arranged under the class of monsters; for though it has the appearance of a shapeless mass of flesh, if examined carefully with a knife, various parts of a child may be discovered, lying together in apparent confusion, but in actual regularity. The pedicle also by which it is connected to the uterns, is not of a fleshy texture, like that of the polypus, but has a regular series of vessels like the umbilical cord, and there is likewise a placenta and membranes containing water. The symptoms attending the formation, growth, and expulsion of this apparently confused mass from the uterus, corresponding with those of a wellformed child.

With respect to the third opinion of a mole, an incision into its substance will discover its true nature; for, although the external surface appears at the first view to be organized flesh, the internal part is composed merely of coagulated blood. As substances of this kind, which mostly occur after delivery, would always be expelled from the action of the uterus, there seems to be no reason for a particular inquiry, if popular opinion had not annexed the idea of mischief to them, and attributed their formation or continuance in the utcrus to the negligence or misconduct of the practitioner. Hence the persuasion arose of the necessity of extracting all the coagula of blood out of the uterus, immediately after the expulsion of the placenta, or of giving medicines to force them away; but abundant experience hath proved, that the retention of such coagula is not, under any circumstances, productive of danger, and that they are most safely expelled by the action of the uterns, though at very different periods after their formation.

MOLLE. Indian mastich.

MOLLITIES OSSIUM. (Mollities, from mollis, soft.) A disease of the bones, wherein they can be bent without fracturing them, in consequence either of the inordinate absorption of the phosphate of lime, from their natural solidity is derived, or else of this matter not heing duly secreted and deposited in their fabric. Is rickets, the bones only yield and become distorted by slow degrees, and retain their natural inflexibility; but in the present disease they may be at once bent in any direction. The mollities ossium is rare, and its causes not well understood. All the cases of mollities ossium yet on record have proved

fatal, and no means of cure are yet known. On dissection of those who have died, all the bones, except the teeth, have been found unusually soft, so that scarce any of them could resist the knife, the periosteum has been found thicker than usual, and the bones have been found to contain a great quantity of oily matter and little earth.

MOLLITIES UNGUINUM. A preternatural softness of the nails; it often accom-

panies chlorosis.

Mollificatio. A barbarous term of a palsy of the muscles in any particular part. Mollicense lienum. See Lignum pavuna.

MOLYBDAT. Molybdas. A salt formed by the union of the molybdic acid with different bases: thus, molybdat of alumin,

molybdat of antimony, E-c.

MOLYBDENA. (From monuffer, lead.) Molybditis. A metal which exists mineralized by sulphur in the ore called sulphuret of Molybdena. This ore, which is very scarce, is so similar in several of its properties to plumbago that they were long considered as varieties of the same substance. It is of a light lead-grey colour, its surface is smooth, and feels unctuous, its texture is lamellated, it soils the fingers, and marks paper bluish-black, or silver-grey. It may be cut with a knife. It is generally found in compact masses; seldom in particles, or crystalized. It is met with in Sweden's Spain, Saxony, Siberia, and Iceland. Scheele shewed that a peculiar metallic acid might be obtained from it; and later chymists have succeeded in reducing this acid to the metallie state. We are indebted to Mr. Hatchett, for a full and accurate analysis of

The native sulphuret of molybdena is the only ore hitherto known which contains this metal.

Properties of Molybdena - Molybdena is either in an agglutinated blackish friable mass, having little metallic brilliancy, or in a black powder. The mass slightly united, shews, by a magnifying glass, small round brilliant grains. Its weight is from 6 600 to 7.500. It is one of the most infusible of the metals. It is capable of combining with a number of metals by fusion. It forms with sulphur an artificial sulphuret of molybdena analogous to its ore. It unites also to phosphorous. The affinity of molybdena for oxygen is very feeble, according to Mr. Hatchett. The alkalies have no action on molybdena in the moist way, but it enters readily into fusion with potash and soda. It is oxydable by boiling sulphuric acid, and acidifiable by the nitric acid. Muriatic acid does not act upon it. It is capable of existing in not less than four different degrees of oxygenation.

Method of obtaining Molybdena. - To oh.

tain molybdena is a task of the utmost difficulty. Few chymists have succeeded in producing this metal, on account of its great infusibility. The method recommended in general is the following:—Molabdic acid is to be formed into a paste with oil, dried at the fire, and then exposed to a violent heat in a crucible lined with charcoal. By this means the oxyd becomes decomposed; a black agglutinated substance is obtained, very brittle under the finger, and having a metallic brilliancy. This is the metal called molybdena.

MOLYBDITIS. See Molybdena.

MOLYBDOS. (OTI MONEI ELS BABOS, from its

gravity.) Lead.

Molyza. (Dim. of μωλυ, moly.) Garlic, whose head, like moly, is not divided into

Momiscrs. (From μωμος, a blemish.) That part of the teeth which is next the gums, and which is usually covered with a foul tartareous crust.

MOMORDICA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class,

Monoecia. Order, Syngenesia.

Momordica ellaterium. (Momordica; from mordeo, to bite; from its sharp taste.) The systematic name of the squirting cu-

cumber. See Elaterium.

MONARDA FISTULOSA. The systematic name of the purple monarda. The leaves of this plant have a fragrant smell, and an aromatic and somewhat bitter taste, possessing nervine, stomachic, and deobstruent virtues. An infusion is recommended in the cure of intermittent fevers.

MONELLI. A species of Anagallis.

Money-wort. See Nummularia.

Monks rhubarb. See Rhaburbarum monachorum.

oculus, the eye.) A name given cacum, or blind gut, by Paracelsus, because it is perforated only at one end.

Monoculus. (From mores, one, and oculus, an eye.) Monopia. A very uncommon species of monstrosity, in which there is but one eye, and that mostly above the root of the nose.

MONOHEMERA. (From movos, single, and ημεςα, a day.) A disease of one day's continuance.

The intestinum ca-Monomachon. cum.

(From moves, single, and MONOPEGIA. συγνυμι, to compress. A pain in only one side of the head. MONOPIA. (From μονος, single, and ωφ,

the eye.) See Monoculus.

Mononchis. (From μονος, one, and οξχις, a testicle.) An epithet for a person that has but one testicle.

Mons. A mount, or hill.

MONS VENERIS. The triangular child being born perfect, had such a power

eminence immediately over the os pub women, that is covered with hair.

MONSTER. Lusus natura. man divides monsters into, 1st, Monsters from redundance or multiplicity of parts; 2d, Monsters from deficiency or want of parts; 3d, Monsters from confusion of

parts.

To these might perhaps be added, without impropriety, another kind, in which there is neither redundancy, nor deficiency, nor confusion of parts, but an error of place, as in transposition of the viscera. But children born with diseases, as the hydrocephalus, or their effects, as in some cases of blindness, from previous inflammation, cannot be properly considered as monsters, though they are often so denominated.

Of the first order there may be two kinds, redundance or multiplicity of natural parts, as of two heads and one body, of one head and two bodies, an increased number of limbs, as legs, arms, fingers, and toes; or excrescences or additions to parts of no certain form, as those upon the head and other parts of the body, not surprising that we should be ignorant also of the manner in which monsters or irregular births are generated or produced; though it is probable that the laws by which these are governed are as regular, both as to cause and effect, as in common or natural productions. Formerly, and indeed till within these few years, it was a generally-received opinion, that monsters were not primordial or aboriginal, but that they were caused subsequently, by the power of the imagination of the mother, transferring the imperfection of some external object, or the mark of something for which she longed, with which she was not indulged, to the child of which she was pregnant; or by some accident which happened to her during her pregnancy. Such opinions, it is reasonable to think, were permitted to pass current, in order to protect pregnant women from all hazardous and disagreeable occupations, to screen them from severe labour, and to procure for them a greater share of indulgence and tenderness than could be granted to them in the common occurrences of life. The laws and customs of every civilized nation have, in some degree, established a persuasion that there was something sacred in the person of a pregnant woman: and this may be right in several points of view; but these go a little way towards justifying the opinion of monsters being caused by the imagination of the mother. The opinion has been disproved by common ohservation, and by philosophy, not perhaps by positive proofs, but by many strong negative facts; as the improbability of any

existed; the freedom of children from any blemish, their mothers being in situations most exposed to objects likely to produce them; the ignorance of the mother of any thing being wrong in the child, till, from information of the fact, she begins to recollect every accident which happened during her pregnancy, and assigns the worst, or the most plausible, as the cause; the organization and colour of these adventitions substances; the frequent occurrence of monsters in the brute creation, in which the power of the imagination cannot be great; and the analogous appearances in the vegetable system, where it does not exist in any degree. Judging, however, from appearances, accidents may perhaps be allowed to have considerable influence in the production of monsters of some kinds, either by actual injury upon parts, or by suppressing or deranging the principle of growth, because, when an arm, for instance, is wanting, the rudiments of the deficient parts may generally be discovered.

MORBILLI. (Dim. of morbus, a dis-

ease.) See Rubeola.

MORBUS ANQUATUS. The jaundice.
MORBUS ATTONITUS. The epilepsy.
MORBUS GALLICUS. The venereal disease.

Monnus infantilis. The epilepsy.

Monnus infantilis. The epilepsy.

Mornus Indicus. The Indian disease, the venereal disease.

Monbus MAGNUS. The epilepsy.

The black disease. Monbus Nigen. So Hippocrates named it, and thus described it. This disorder is known by vomiting a concrete blood of a blackish red colour, and mixed with a large quantity of insipid, acid, or viscid phlegm. This evacuation is generally preceded by a pungent tensive pain, in both the hypoeliondria; and the appearance of the disease is attended with anxiety, a compressive pain in the præcordia, and fainting, which last is more frequent and violent, when the blood which is evacuated is fætid and corrupt. The stomach and the spleen are the principal, if not the proper seat of this disease.

MORBUS SACER. The paindice. MORBUS SACER. The epilepsy.

Morei. Phallus esculentus of Linnaus. It grows on moist banks and wet pasture, and springs up in May. It is used in the same manner as the truffle, for gravies and stewed dishes, but gives an inferior flavour.

Moneros. (From morum, the mulberry.)

A decoction of mulberries.

Monta. (From pages, foolish.) Idiotism. Fatuity.

Mono. (From morom, a mulberry.) 3 small absects resembling a mulberry.

Monosis. (From μοζος, folly.) See

Morrhea alba. (From μοςφη, form.) A species of cutaneous leprosy. See Alphus. Morsellus. Morsulus. A lozenge.

, Morsuli. An ancient name for those forms of medicines which were to be chewed in the mouth, as a lozenge, the word signifying a little mouthful.

MORTUS DIABOLI. The frimbrize of the

Fallopian tubes.

MORTA. See Pemphigus.

MORTARIOLUM. (Dim. of mortarium, a mortar.) In chymistry, it is a sort of mould for making cupels with, also a little mortar. In anatomy, it is the sockets of

the teeth.

MORTIFICATION. (From mors, death, and fo, to become.) Mortificatio. Gangrena. Sphacelus. The loss of vitality of a part of the body. Surgeons divide mortification into two species, the one preceded by inflammation, the other without it. In inflammations that are to terminate in mortification, there is a diminution of power joined to an increased action; this becomes a cause of mortification, by destroying the balance of power and action, which ought to exist in every part. There are, however, cases of mortification that do not arise wholly from that as a cause: of this kind are the carbuncle and the slough, formed in the small-pox pustule. Healthy phlegmonous inflammation seldom ends in mortification, though it does so when very vehement and extensive. Erysipelatous inflammation is observed most frequently to terminate in gangrene; and whenever phlegmon is in any degree conjoined with an erysipelatous affection, which it not unfrequently is, it seems thereby to acquire the same tendency, being more difficult to bring to resolution, or suppuration, than the true phlegmon, and more apt to run into a mortified

Causes which impede the circulation of the part affected, will occasion mortification, as is exemplified in strangulated hernia, tied polypi, or a limb being deprived of circulation from a dislocated joint.

Preventing the entrance of arterial blood into a limb, is also another cause. Paralysis, conjoined with pressure, old age, and ossification of the arteries, may produce mortification; also cold, with the sudden application of warmth, and likewise ex-

cessive heat applied to a part.

The symptoms of mortification that take place after inflammation are various, but generally as follows:—the pain and sympathetic fever suddenly diminish, the part affected becomes soft, and of a livid colour, losing at the same time more or less of its sensibility.

When any part of the body loses all motion, sensibility, and natural heat, and becomes of a brown livid or black colour, it is said to be affected with sphacelus. When the part becomes a cold, black, fibrous, senseless substance, it is termed a slough. As long as any sensibility, motion, and warmth continue, the state of the disorder is said to be gangrone. This last term is synonymous with mortification.

When gangrene takes place, the patient is usually troubled with a kind of hiccough: the constitution always suffers an immediate dejection, the countenance assumes a wild cadaverous look, the pulse becomes small, rapid, and sometimes irregular; cold perspirations come on, and the patient is often affected with diarrhoza and deli-

rium.

MORUM. The mulberry. The tree that affords this fruit is the Morus nigra; foliis cordatis scabris of Linnaus. berries abound with a deep violet coloured juice, which, in its general qualities, agrees with that of the fruits called acido dulces, allaying thirst, partly by refrigerating, and partly by exciting an excretion of mucus from the mouth and fauces, a similar effect is also produced in the stomach, where, by correcting putrescency, a powerful cause of thirst is removed. The London College directs a syrupus mori, which is an agreeable vehicle for various medicines. The bark of the root of this tree is said, by Andrée, to be uscful in cases of tænia.

MORUS. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnman system. Class, Monecia. Order, Tetandria. The mulberry.

tree.

Morus Nigra. The systematic name of the mulberry-tree. See Morum.

Moschata Nux. See Nux moschata. (Mosch, Arab.) MOSCHUS. Musk. An unctuous substance, contained in excretory follicles about the navel of the male called moschus moschiferus by animal Linnæus, a ruminating quadruped, resembling the antelope, from which it does not differ sufficiently to form a particular genus; the strong and permanent smell of which is peculiar to it. It is contained in a bag placed near the umbilical region. The best musk is brought from Tonquin, in China; an inferior sort from Agria and Bengal, and a still worse from Russia.

It is slightly unctuous, of a black colour, having a strong durable smell and a bitter taste. It yields part of its active matter to water, by infusion; by distillation the water is impregnated with its flavour, alkohol dissolves it, its impurities excepted. Chewed, and rubbed with a knife on paper, it looks bright, yellowish, smooth, and free from grittiness. Laid on a red-hot iron, it catches flame and burns almost

entirely away, leaving only an exceeding small quantity of light greyish ashes. If any earthy substances have been mixed with the musk the impurities will discover them. The medicinal and chymical properties of musk and castor are very similar: the virtues of the former are generally believed to be more powerful, and hence musk is preferred in cases of imminent danger. It is prescribed as a powerful antispasmodic, in doses of three grains or upwards, even to half a drachm, in the greater number of spasmodic diseases, especially in hysteria and singultus, and also in diseases of debility. In typhus, it is employed to remove subsultus tendinum, and other symptoms of a spasmodic nature. In cholera it frequently stops vomiting, and, combined with ammonia, it is given to arrest the progress of gangrenc. It is best given in the form of bolus. To children it is given in the form of enema, and is an efficacions remedy in the convulsions arising from dentition. It is also given in hydrophobia, and in some forms of ma-

Moschus Moschifenus. The systematic name of the musk animal. See Moschus.

Mosquita. (From mosquita, a gnat, Span.) An itching eruption of the skin, produced in hot climates by the bite of gnats.

Mossyllum. (Mosundov.) The best cin-

namon.

tion.

Mother of thyme. Sec Serpyllum. Motherwort. See Cardiaca.

Motion, musular. See Muscular motion. Motion, peristaltic. Sec Peristaltic mo-

MOTORH OCULORUM. (Nervi Motorii; so called from their office.) The third pair of nerves of the brain. They arise from the crura cerebii, and are distributed on the muscles of the builb of the eye.

Mould. See Fontanella.

Mountain parsley, black. See Oreoseli-

Mouse-par. See Pilosella.

MOUTH. Os. The cavity of the mouth is well known. The parts which constitute it are the common integuments, the lips, the muscles of the upper and under jaw, the palate, two alveolar arches, the gums, the tongue, the checks, and salival glands. The bones of the mouth are the two superior maxillary, two palatine, the lower jaw, and thirty-two teeth. The arteries of the external parts of the mouth are granches of the infra-orbital, inferior alveolar, and fascial arteries. The vens empty themselves into the external jugulars. The nerves are branches from the fifth and seventh pair. The use of the mouth is for

tion, suction, and taste.

MOXA JAPONICA. (Japonese.) Artemesia Chinensis. Musia pattræ. Moxa. Mugwort of China. A soft lanuginous substance, prepared in Japan, from the young leaves of a species of mugwort, by beating tnem when thoroughly dried, and rubbing them betwixt the hands, till only the fine fibres are left. Moxa is celebrated in the eastern countries for preventing and curing many disorders, by being burnt on the skin; a little cone of it laid upon the part, previously moistened, and set on fire on the top, burns down with a temperate and glowing heat, and produces a darkcoloured spot, the ulceration of which is promoted by putting a little garlic, and the ulcer is either healed up when the eschar separates, or kept running for a length of time, as different circumstances may require.

MUCILAGE. Mucilago. A solution

of gum. See Gum.

MUCILAGINOUS EXTRACTS. Extracts that readily dissolve in water, scarcely at all in spirits of wine, and undergo

spirituous fermentation.

Mucilage of aca-MUCILAGO ACACIÆ. cix. Mucilago gummi arabici. " Take of heat or cold. acacia gum, powdered, four ounces; boiling water, half a pint." Rub the gum with the water, until it incorporates into a mucilage. A demulcent preparation, more frequently used to combine medicines, than in any other form.

MUCILAGO ANYLI. Starch mucilage. " Take of starch, three drachms; water, a pint." Rub the starch, gradually adding the water to it; then boil until it incorporates into a mucilage. This preparation is mostly exhibited with opium, in the form of clysters, in diarrhoas and dysenteries, where the tenesmus arises from an abrasion of the mucus of the rectum.

See Mu-MUCILAGO ARABICI GUMMI.

cilago acaciæ.

MUCILAGO SEMINIS CYDONII. See De-

coctum cydonii.

Mucilage MUCILAGO TRAGACANTHE. of tragacanth joined with syrup of mulberries, this forms a pleasant demulcent, and may be exhibited to children, who are fond of it. These two last mucilages are omitted in the last London Pharmacopæia, as possessing no superiority over the mucilage of acacia.

MUCOCARNEUS, In M. A. Severinus, it is an epithet for a tumour, and an abscess, which is partly fleshy and partly mu-

MUCOUS GLANDS. Glandula. mu-Muciparous glands. Glands that secrete mucus, such as the glands of the Schneiderian membrane of the nose, the

mastication, speech, respiration, degluti- glands of the fauces, œsophagus, stomach,

intestines, bladder, urethra, &c. Animal mucus MUCUS, ANIMAL. Animal mucus differs from that obtained from the vegetable kingdom, in not being soluble in water, swamming on its surface; nor capable of mixing oil with water, and being soluble in mineral acids, which vegetable mucus is not. The use of this substance is to lubricate and defend the parts upon which it is secreted, as the nose, æsophagus, stomach, intestines, urethra, vagina, &c. Mr. Everard Home, in his dissertation on the properties of pus, informs us of a curious and apparently decisive mode of distinguishing between pus and animal mucus. The property, he observes, which characterizes pus, and distinguishes it from most other substances, is, its being composed of globules, which are visible when viewed through a microscope; whereas animal mucus, and all chymical combinations of animal substances, appear in the microscope to be made up of flakes. This property was first noticed by the late Mr. J. Hunter.

MUCUS, VEGETABLE. See Gum. Mugwort. See Artemisia vulgaris.

MULE. Pustules contracted either by

Mulberry. See Morum. Mullein. See Verbascum.

MULSUM. Musus. Mulse. Hydromel. Honey-water; though sometimes it signi-

fies wine sweetened with honey.

MULTIFIDUS SPINÆ. (From multus, many, and findo, to divide.) Transverso spinalis lumborum. Musculus sacer. Semispinalis internus, sive transverso-spinalis dor-Semi-spinalis, sive transverso-spinalis colli, pars interna of Winslow. Transversalis lumborum vulgo sacer. Transversalis dorsi. Transversalis colli of Douglas. Lum. bo dorsi spinal of Dumas. The generality of anatomical writers have unnecessarily multiplied the muscles of the spine, and hence their descriptions of these parts are confused, and difficult to be understood. Under the name of multifidus spinæ, Albinus has therefore very properly included. those portions of muscular flesh, intermixed with tendinous fibres, which lie close to the posterior part of the spine, and which Douglas and Winslow have described as three distinct muscles, under the names of transversales, or transverso-spinales, of the loins, back, and neck. The multifidus spinæ arises tendinous and fleshy from the upper convex surface of the os sacrum, from the posterior adjoining part of the illium, from the oblique and transverse processes of all the lumbar vertebræ, from the transverse processes of all the dorsal vertebræ, and from those of the cervical vertebræ, excepting the three first. From all these

origins the fibres of the muscles run in an oblique direction, and are inserted, by distinct tendons, into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the loins and back, and likewise into those of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck. When this muscle acts singly, it extends the back obliquely, or moves it to one side; when both muscles act, they extend the vertebræ backwards.

MULTIFORME OS. See Ethmoid bone.

MULTIPES. (From multus, many, and pes, a foot.) 1. The wood-louse. 2. The polypus. 3. Any animal having more than four feet.

Mumps. See Cynanche.

MUNDICATIVA. (From mundo, to cleanse.) Mundificantia. Medicines which purify and clean away foulness.

MUNDIFICANTIA. See Mundicativa.

Mungos. Radix serpentum. This bitter root of the plant Ophiorrhiza mungos of Linnæus is much esteemed in Java, Sumatra, &c. as preventing the effects which usually follow the bite of the naja, a venomous serpent, with which view it is eaten by them. It is also said to be exhibited medicinally in the cure of intestinal worms.

MURALIS. (From murus, a wall; so called because it grows upon walls.) Pelli-

tory. See Parietaria.

MURARIA. (From murus, a wall; because it grows about walls.) A species of maiden hair.

MURIAS. A muriate, or salt, formed by the union of the muriatic acid with certain basas, as muriate of ammonia, &c.

MURIAS AMMONIACÆ monia muriata, and Sal ammoniac.

MURIAS BARYTÆ. Terra ponderosa salita. The muriate of barytes, or heavy earth, is a very acrid and poisonous preparation. In small doses it proves sudorific, diuretic, deobstruent, and atterative; in an over-dose, emetic, and violently purgative. The late Dr. Crawford found it very serviceable in all diseases connected with scrophula; and the Germans have employed it with great success in some diseases of the skin and viscera, and obstinate ulcers. The dose of the saturated solution in distilled water, is from five to fifteen drops for children, and from fifteen to twenty for adults.

MURIAS CALCIS. Calx salita. Sal ammoniacus fixus. This preparation is exhibited with the same views as the muriate of barytes. It possesses deobstruent, diuretic, and cathartic virtues, and is much used by the celebrated Fourcroy against scrophula, and scrophulous diseases. Six, twelve, and twenty grains, are given to children three times a day, and a drachm

to adults.

MURIAS FERRI. Ferrum salitum.

Olum martis per deliquium. This preparation of iron is styptic and tonic, and may be given in chlorosis, intermittents, rachitis, &c.

MURIAS FERRI AMMONIACALIS. See Ferrum ammoniatum.

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI. There are two simple muriates of mercury. See Submurias hydrargyri, and Oxymurias hydrargy-

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI AMMONIACALIS. See Hydrargyrus precipitatus albus.

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI OXYGENATUS. Sec

oxymurias Hydrargyri.

MURIAS HYPEROXYGENATUS PO-TASSÆ. The oxygenated nouriate of potash has lately been extolled in the cure of the venereal disease. It is exhibited in doses of from fifteen to forty grains in the course of a day. It increases the action of the heart and arteries, oxygenates the blood, and proves of great service in scorbutus, asthenia, and cachectic diseases.

Alkali vegeta-MURIAS POTASSÆ. bile salitum. Sal digestivus. Sal febrifugus Sylvii. This salt is exhibited with the same intention as the muriate of soda, and was formerly in high estimation in the cure of

intermittents, &c.

MURIAS SODÆ, Muriate of soda. Alkali minerale salitum. Sal communis. Sal culinaris. Sal fontium. Sal gemmæ. marinus. Natron muriatum. Soda muriata. Common culinary salt. This salt is more abundant in nature than any other. It is found in prodigious masses in the internal part of the earth, in Calabria, in Hungary, in Muscovy, and more especially Weilicska, in Poland, near Mount Capax, where the mines are very large, and afford immense quantities of salt. It is also obtained by several artificial means from sea-water. It possesses antiseptic, dinretic, and resolvent qualities, and is frequently employed in form of clyster, fomentation, lotion, pediluvium, and bath, in obstipation, against worms, gangrene, scrophulous, tumours, herpetic eruptions, arthritis, &c.

MURIAS STIBII HYPEROXYGENATUS.

Antimonium muriatum

MURIATIC ACID GAS. The basis of this gas is still unknown. The presence of oxygen has not been even demonstrated in it, and it is only by analogy that we may venture to suppose it instrumental in this acid gas.

Properties .-- It has a very pungent and suffocating odour, which excites coughing. It is readily absorbed by water, by ardent spirit, ether, fat and essential oils, melted wax, phosphorus, and many other bodies. It is a true acid. It suffocates animals, and is so very caustic as to excoriate the skin. It extinguishes a lighted taper, the flame of which becomes green, or rather light

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tube becomes filled with dense white vapours, which are muriatic acid gas, con-densed again by means of the moisture of the atmosphere. The sulphuric acid, added to the muriatic acid, deprives the latter of part of its water, a combination and penetration of the two liquids take place, and caloric is evolved, contributing to render

the gas aëriform, which is thus forced to escape. This experiment proves that the affinity of sulphuric acid for water is greater than

that of muriatic acid.

Water impregnated with this gas forms MURIATIC ACID.

Properties.-Liquid muriatic acid, or water impregnated with muriatic acid gas, is a colourless, very oderous, and pungent fluid. It emits copious white fumes in contact with moist atmospheric air; these fumes are muriatic acid gas that escapes from it, and condenses again by combining with the humidity of the air. If a widemouthed bottle, containing strong muriatic acid, be opened, and the hand brought near its orifice, a sensible warmth is perceived, which arises from the combination of the acid gas with the water of the atmosphere. Liquid muriatic acid is unal-terable by any known combustible body. It disengages the carbonic, phosphoric, and sulphureous acids from all their combinations, but it is constantly expelled by the action of the sulphuric acid.

Method of obtaining Muriatic Acid .- Muriatic acid is best obtained by decomposing muriate of soda, or common salt, by means of sulphuric acid, in the following

manner:

Put into a tubulated retort, lodged in a connected with Pepy's distillatory vessel, or Woulf's bottles, every one containing a small quantity of distilled water, three parts of muriate of soda, and pour on it one of sulphuric acid very gradually, or rather let it be suffered to drop into the retort, by means of a funnel fastened to its tubulure, and whose inner opening may at pleasure be closed, wholly or in part, by means of a ground-glass rod. Muriatic acid gas will be plentifully disengaged, which passes through the neck of the retort, and becomes absorbed by the water. When the water in the first bottle is fully saturated, it absorbs no more, and becomes cold, butthe gas continues to pass into the next bottles, and heats the water they contain. The water, thus impregnated with muriatic acid gas, is muriatic acid.

Remark.-If sulphuric acid, diluted with an equal quantity, by weight, of water, be made use of in this process, the apparatus of Pepys or Woulf may be dispensed with,

blue, at the upper part of its disk. Light effervesence takes place, and the whole has no effect upon it. Caloric rarifies it. It is heavier than common air. The specific gravity of the former is to that of the latter as 1.750 to 1.000. When brought into contact with atmospheric air, or oxygen gas, it forms a white cloud. Ice is melted by it as speedily as if thrown into the fire. It unites to alkaline and terrene substances, and forms with them new compounds. It has no action on siliceous earths. It combines with alumine and magnesia. It absorbs oxygen, when in the state of gas, feebly, though there are methods of uniting them readily. If ammoniacal gas be mixed with it, and heat applied, both gases lose their gazeous form in a moment, and are transformed to a concrete salt. Carbonic acid gas, nitrogen, gas, gazeous oxyd of nitrogen, sulphurated hydrogen gas, and carbonated hydrogen gas, have no action upon it. It has never been found in a disengaged state in nature. When electric explosions are made to pass through it, its bulk is diminished and hydrogen gas is evolved. These changes are owing to a quantity of water contained in the gas, and cease when it is deprived of moisture, as has been proved by Mr. Henry.

Method of obtaining Muriatic Acid Gas -1. By decomposing muriate of soda, by means of sulphuric acid. For this purpose, put into a turbulated retort two parts of very dry muriate of soda, and pour on it gradually one part of concentrated sulphuric A violent action takes place and muriatic acid gas becomes liberated, which must be collected over mercury in the usual manner. The sulphuric acid has a greater affinity for the soda than the muriatic acid has, it therefore unites to it and forms sulphate of soda. The muriatic acid, being sand-heat, or supported over a lamp, and liberated, takes the gazeous form, and appears as muriatic acid gas, and as the decomposition takes place very rapidly, it is not necessary to apply heat, until the disengagement of the gas begins to slacken, after which the further extrication may be

assisted by the heat of a lamp.

2. Muriatic acid gas may likewise be obtained by expelling it from its combination with water.

For this purpose put concentrated muriatic acid into a retort, immerse the beak of it under a receiver placed in a mercurial pneumatic trough, and filled with that On exposing the acid to a gentle heat, muriatic acid gas will be obtained. If the process be very carefully managed, nothing but water remains in the retort.

3. Muriatic acid gas is likewise produced by putting any quantity of liquid muriatic acid into a long glass tube, and adding to it about one-third or one-fourth by measure of concentrated sulphuric acid. A violent

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and a common receiver may be used with

The salts formed by the combination of muriatic acid with different bases, are called

MURIATES. This acid possesses active tonic powers, In typhus, or nervous fevers, although employed on the Continent with success, and used in very liberal quantities in this country, is apt to determine to the bowels. the fevers of children, the oxymuriatic acid is said frequently to act as a specific. ternally, the muriatic acid has been applied in the form of a bath, to the feet, in gout. In a late publication, there are accounts of its successful application as a lithontriptic.

Muriatic acid, oxygenated. See Oxyge-

nated muriatic acid.

Musadi. Sal ammoniac.

Musa paradistaca. Musa. Palma hu-Ficus Indica. Bala. uilis. Platanus. The plantain-tree. It grows spontaneously in many parts of India, but has been immemorially cultivated by the Indians in every part of the continent of South-America. It is an herbaceous tree, growing to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. The fruit are nearly of the size and shape of ordinary cucumbers, and, when ripe, of a pale yellow colour, of a mealy substance, a little clammy, a sweetish taste, and will dissolve in the mouth without chewing. The whole spike of fruit often weighs forty or fifty pounds. When they are brought to table by way of desert, they are either raw, fried, or roasted; but, if intended for bread, they are cut before they are ripe, and are then either roasted or boiled. trees being tall and slender, the Indians cut them down to get at the fruit; and in doing this they suffer no loss, for the stems are only one year's growth, and would die if not cut; but the roots continue, and new stems soon spring, up which in a year produceripe fruit also. From the ripe plantains they make a liquor called mistaw. When they make this, they roast the fruit in their husks, and, after totally beating them to a mash, they pour water upon them, and, as the liquor is wanted, it is drawn off. the nature of this fruit is such, that they will not keep long without running into a state of putrefaction; and therefore, in order to reap the advantage of them at all times, they make cakes of the pulp, and dry them over a slow fire, and, as they stand in need of mistaw, they mash the cakes in water, and they answer all the purposes of fresh fruit. The cakes are exceedingly convenient to make this liquor in their journeys, and they never fail to carry them for that purpose The leaves of the tree being large and spacious, serve the Indians for table-cloths and napkins.

MUSA SAPIENTUM. The systematic name of the banana-tree. See Banana.

Muscipala. (From mus, a mouse, and capio, to take, so called from its viscidity. by which flies are caught as with bird-lime.)

A species of lychnis.

MUSCLE. Musculus. The parts that are usually included under this name consist of distinct portions of flesh, susceptible of contraction and relaxation; the motions of which, in a natural and healthy state, are subject to the will, and for this reason they are called voluntary muscles. Besides these, there are other parts of the body that owe their power of contraction to their muscular fibres: thus the heart is a muscular texture, forming what is called a hollow muscle; and the urinary bladder, stomach, intestines, &c. are enabled to act upon their contents, merely because they are provided with muscular fibres; these are called involuntary muscles, because their motions are not dependent on the will. The muscles of respiration being in some measure influenced by the will. are said to have a mixed motion. The names by which the voluntary muscles are distinguished are founded on their size, figure, situation, use, or the arrangement of their fibres, or their origin and insertion; but, besides these particular distinctions, there are certain general ones that require to be noticed. Thus, if the fibres of a muscle are placed parallel to each other, in a straight direction, they form what anatomists term a rectilinear muscle; if the fibres cross and intersect each other, they constitute a compound muscle; when the fibres are disposed in the manner of rays, a radiated muscle; when they are placed obliquely with respect to the tendon, like the plume of a pen, a penniform muscle. Muscles that act in opposition to each other are called antagonists; thus every extensor has a flexor for its antagonist, and vice versa. Muscles that concur in the same action are termed congeneres. The muscles being attached to the bones, the latter may be considered as levers, that are moved in different directions by the contraction of those organs. That end of the muscle which adheres to the most fixed part is usually called the origin; and that which adheres to the more moveable part the insertion of the muscle. In almost every muscle two kinds of fibres are distinguished; the one soft, of a red colour, sensible, and irritable, called fleshy fibres, see Muscular Fibres; the other of a firmer texture, of a white glistening colour, insensible, without irrritability or the power of contracting, and named tendinous fibres. They are occasionally intermixed, but the fleshy fibres generally prevail in the belly, or middle part of the muscle, and the tendinous ones in the extremities. If these tendinous fibres are formed into a round slender cord, they form what is called the

tendon of the muscle; on the other hand, if they are spread into a broad flat sur-

face, it is termed an aponeurosis.

Each muscle is surrounded by a very thin and delicate covering of cellular membrane, which encloses it as it were like a sheath, and, dipping down into its substance, surrounds the most minute fibres we are able to trace, connecting them to each other, lubricating them by means of the fat which its cells contain in more or less quantity in different subjects, and serving as a support to the blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves, which are so plentifully distributed through the muscles .-This cellular membrane, which in no respect differs from what is found investing and connecting the other parts of the body, has been sometimes mistaken for a membrane peculiar to the muscles; and hence we often find writers giving it the name of membrana propria musculosa. The muscles owe the red colour, which so particularly distinguishes their belly part, to an infinite number of arteries, which are every where dispersed through the whole of their reticular substance; for their fibres, after having been macerated in water, are (like all other parts of the body divested of their blood) found to be of a white co-These arteries usually enter the muscles by several considerable branches, and ramify so minutely through their substance, that we are unable, even with the best microscopes, to trace their ultimate branches. Ruysch fancied that the muscular fibre was hollow, and a production of a capillary artery; but this was merely conjectural. The veins, for the most part, accompany the arteries, but are found to be larger and more numerous. The lymphatics, likewise, are numerous, as might be expected from the great proportion of reticular substance, which is every where found investigating the muscular fibres. The nerves are distributed in such abundance to every muscle, that the muscles of the thumb alone are supplied with a greater proportion of nervous influence than the largest viscera, as the liver for instance. They enter the generality of mus-cles by several trunks, the branches of which, like those of the blood-vessels, are so minutely dispersed through the cellular substance, that their number and minuteness soon elude the eye and the knife of the anatomist. This has given rise to a conjecture, as groundless as all the other conjectures on this subject, that the muscular fibre is ultimately nervous.

A Tuble of the Muscles.

The generality of anatomical writers have arranged muscles according to their several uses; but this method is evidently defective, as the same muscle may very often have different and opposite uses. The method here adopted is that more usually followed; they are enumerated in the order in which they are situated, beginning with those that are placed nearest the integuments, and proceeding from these to the muscles that are more deeply scated.

[The reader will be pleased to observe, that all the muscles are in pairs, except

those marked thus\*].

Muscles of the integuments of the cranium:
Occipito frontalis\*. Corrugator supercilii.

Muscles of the eye-lids:
Orbicularis palpebrarum. Levator palpe-

bræ superioris.

Muscles of the eye-ball.

Rectus superior. Rectus inferior. Rectus internus. Rectus externus. Obliquus

superior. Obliquus inferior.

Muscles of the nose and mouth.
Levator palpebra superioris alaque nasi.
Levator labii superioris proprius. Levator anguli oris. Zygomaticus major. Zygomaticus minor. Buccinator. Depressor anguli oris. Depressor labii inferioris, Orbicularis oris. Depressor labii superioris alaque nasi. Constrictor nasi, Levator menti vel labii inferioris,

Muscles of the external ear.

Superior auris. Anterior auris. Posterior auris. Helicis major. Helicis minor. Tragicus. Antitragicus. Transversus auris.

Muscles of the internal ear.

Laxator tympani. Membrana tympani.

Tensor tympani. Stapedius.

Muscles of the lower jaw.

Temporalis, Musseter. Pterygoideus externus. Pterygoideus internus.

Muscles about the anterior part of the

neck:
Platysma myoides. Sterno-cleidomastoi-

Platysma myoides. Sterno-cleidomastoideus.

Muscles between the lower jaw and os

hyoides:
Digastricus. Mylo-hyoideus. Genio-hyoideus. Genio-glossus. Hyo-glossus. Lin-

gualis.
Muscles situated between the os hyoides and
trunk:

Sterno-hyoideus. Crico-hyoideus. Sterno-thyroideus. Thyreo-hyoideus. Crico-thyroideus.

Muscles between the lower juw and os hyoides laterally:

Stylo-glossus, Stylo-hyoideus, Stylo-pharyngeus, Circumflexus, Levator palati mollis,

Muscles about the entry of the fauces.
Constrictor isthmi faucium. Palatopharyngeus. Azygos uvulæ\*.

Muscles situated on the posterior part of the pharynx:

Constrictor pharyngis superior. Constric-

tor pharyngis medius. Constrictor pharyngis inferior.

Muscles situated about the glottis:

Crico-arytænoideus posticus. Črico-arytænoideus laterallis. Thyreo-arytænoideus. Arytænoideus Obliquus\*. Arytænoideus transversus\*. Thyreo-epiglottideus. Arytæno-epiglottideus.

Muscles situated about the anterior part of

the abdomen:

Obliquus descendens externus. Obliquus ascendens internus. Transversalis abdominis. Rectus abdominis. Pyramidalis.

Muscles about the male organs of genera-

tion:

Dartos\*. Cremaster. Erector penis. Accelerator urinæ. Transversus perenei.

Muscles of the anus:

Sphincter ani\*. Levator ani\*.

Muscles of the female organs of generation:

Erector clitoridis. Splincter vaginæ\*.

Muscles situated within the pelvis:

Obturator internus. Coccygeus.

Muscles situated within the cavity of the abdo-

men :

Diaphragma\*. Quadratus lumborum. Psoas parvus. Psoas magnus. Iliacus internus.

Muscles situated on the anterior part of the

thorax:

Pectoralis major. Subclavius. Pectoralis minor. Serratus major anticus.

Muscles situated between the ribs, and within

the thorax:

Intercostales externi. Intercostales interni. Triangularis.

Muscles situated on the anterior part of the neck, close to the vertebræ:

Longus colli. Rectus internus capitis major Rectus capitis internus minor. Rectus capitis lateralis.

Muscles situated on the posterior part of the

trunk:

Trapezius. Latissimus dorsi, Serratus posticus inferior. Rhomboideus. Splenius. Serratus superior posticus. Spinalis dorsi. Levatores costarum. Sacro-lumbalis. Longissimus dorsi. Complexus. Trachelo-mastoideus. Levator scapulæ. Semi-spinalis dorsi. Multifidus spinæ. Semi-spinalis colli. Transversalis colli. Rectus capitis posticus minor. Obliquus capitis superior. Obliquus capitis inferior. Scalenus. Interspinales. Intertransversales.

Muscles of the superior extremities:
Supra-spinatus, Infra-spinatus, Teres
minor, Teres major, Deltoides, Coraco-

brachialis. Subscapularis.

Muscles situated on the os humeri:

Biceps flexor cubiti. Brachialis internus.
Biceps extensor cubiti. Anconcus.

Muscles situated on the fore arm:
Supinator radii longus. Extensor carpi radialis longior. Extensor carpi radialis brevior. Extensor digitorum communis. Ex-

tensor minimi digiti. Extensor carpi uluaris. Flexor carpi uluaris. Palmaris longus. Flexor carpi radialis. Pronator radii teres. Supinator radii brevis. Extensor osis metacarpi pollicis manus. Extensor primi internodii. Extensor secundi internodii. Indicator. Flexor digitorum sublimis. Flexor digitorum profundus. Flexor longus pollicis. Pronator radii quadratus.

Muscles situated chiefly on the hand:

Lumbricales. Flexor brevis pollicis manus. Opponens pollicis. Abductor pollicis manus. Adductor pollicis manus. Abductor indicis manus. Palmaris brevis. Abductor minimi digiti manus. Adductor minimi digiti. Flexor parvus minimi digiti. Interossei interni. Interossei externi.

Muscles of the inferior extremities:
Pectinalis. Triceps adductor temoris. Obturator externus. Gluteus maximus. Gluteus minimus. Gluteus medius. Pyriformis. Gemini. Quadratus femoris.

Muscles situated on the thigh:

Tensor vaginæ femoris. Sartorius. Rectus femoris. Vastus externus. Vastus internus. Cruralis. Semi-tendinosus. Semi-membranosus. Biceps flexor cruris. Popliteus.

Muscles situated on the leg :

Gastrocnemius externus. Gastrocnemius internus. Plantaris. Tibialis anticus. Tibialis posticus. Peroneus longus. Peroneus brevis. Extensor longus digitorum pedis. Extensor proprius pollicis pedis. Flexor longus digitorum pedis. Flexor longus pollicis pedis.

Muscles chiefly situated on the foot:

Extensor brevis digitorum pedis. Flexor brevis digitorum pedis. Lumbricalis pedis. Flexor brevis pollicis pedis. Abductor pollicis pedis. Adductor pollicis pedis. Adductor pollicis pedis. Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis. Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis. Transversales pedis. Interossei pedis externi. Interossei pedis interni.

MUSCULAR FIBRE. The fibres that compose the body of a muscle are disposed in fasciculi, or bundles, which are easily distinguishable by the naked eye; but these fasciculi are divisible into still smaller ones; and these again are probably subdivisible ad infinitum. The most minute fibre we are able to trace seems to be somewhat plaited; these plaits disappearing when the fibre is put upon the stretch, seem evidently to be the effect of contraction, and have probably induced some writers to assert, that the muscular fibre is twisted or spiral. Various have been the opinions concerning the structure of these fibres; they are all of them founded only on conjecture, and therefore we shall mention only the principal ones, and this with a view rather to gratify the curiosity of the reader, than to afford him information. Borelli supposes them to be so many hol-

MUS

low cylinders, filled with a spongy medullary substance, which he compares to the pith of elder, spongiosa ad instar sambuci. These cylinders, he contends, are intersected by circular fibres, which form a chain of very minute bladders. This hypothesis has since been adopted by a great number of writers, with certain variations. Thus, for instance, Borelli supposes the vesicles to be of a rhomboidal shape; whereas Bernouilli contends that they are oval. Cowper went so far as to persuade himself that he had filled these cells with mercury; a mistake, no doubt, which arose from its insinuating itself into some of the lymphatics. It is observable, however, that Leeuwenhoeck says nothing of any such vesicles. Here, as well as in many other of her works, Nature seems to have drawn a boundary to our inquiries, beyond which no human penetration will probably ever extend. It is surely more commendable, however, to acknowledge our ignorance, than to indulge ourselves in chimæra.

MUSCULAR MOTION. Muscular motions are of three kinds; namely voluntary, involuntary, and mixed. The voluntary motions of muscles are such as proceed from an immediate exertion of the active powers of the will: thus, the mind directs the arm to be raised or depressed, the knee to be bent, the tongue to move, &c. The involuntary motions of muscles are those which are performed by organs, seemingly of their own accord, without any attention of the mind, or consciousness of its active power: as the contraction and dilatation of the heart, arteries, veins, absorbents, stomach, intestines, &c. The mixed motions are those which are in part under the controll of the will, but which ordinarily act without our being conscious of their acting: as is perceived in the muscles of respiration, the intercostals, the abdominal muscles, and the diaphragm.

When a muscle acts, it becomes shorter and thicker; both its origin and insertion are drawn towards its middle. The sphincter muscles are always in action: and so likewise are antagonist muscles, even when they seem at rest. When two antagonist muscles move with equal force, the part which they are designed to move remains at rest; but if one of the antagonist muscles remains at rest, while the other acts, the part is moved towards the centre of motion.

All the muscles of living animals are constantly endeavouring to shorten themselves.

When a muscle is divided it contracts. If a muscle be stretched to a certain extent, it contracts, and endeavours to acquire its former dimensions as soon as the stretching cause is removed: this takes place in the dead body; in muscles cut out of the body; and also in parts not muscular, and is called by the immortal Haller vis mortua, and by some vis elastica. It is greater in living than in dead bodies, and is called the tone of the muscles.

When a muscle is wounded, touched, or otherwise irritated, it contracts, independent of the will: this power is called irritability, and by Haller vis insita; it is a property peculiar to and inherent in the mus-The parts of our body which possess this property are called irritable, as the heart, arteries, muscles, &c. to distinguish them from those parts which have no mus-cular fibres. With regard to the degree of this property peculiar to various parts, the heart is the most irritable, then the stomach and intestines; the diaphragm, the arteries, veins, absorbents, and at length the various muscles follow; but the degree of irritability depends upon the age, sex, temperament, mode of living, climate, state of health, idiosyncrasy, and likewise upon the nature of the stimulus.

When a muscle is stimulated, either through the medium of the will or any foreign body, it contracts, and its contraction is greater or less in proportion as the stimulus applied is greater or less. The contraction of muscles is different accord-ing to the purpose to be served by their contraction: thus, the heart contracts with a jerk; the urinary bladder, slowly and uniformly; puncture a muscle, and its fibres vibrate; and the abdominal muscles act slowly in expelling the contents of the rectum. Relaxation generally succeeds the contraction of muscles, and alternates with

The use of this property is very considerable; for upon it depends all muscular motion, and the function of every viscus, except that of the nerves.

Muscular Power. See Irritability.
MUSCULUS, (a diminutive of mus, a mouse, from its resemblance to a flead mouse.) See Muscle.

See Platysma

Musculus CUTANEUS. my oides.

MUSCULUS FASCIÆ LATÆ. vagina femoris.

MUSCULUS PATIENTIÆ.

MUSCULUS STAPEDIUS. See Stapedius. Musculus supercilii. See Corrugator

supercilii. MI SCULUS TUBE NOVE. See Circum.

MUSCUS. (From μοςχος, tender, so called from its delicate and tender consist-

ence.) Moss.

Muscus arboreus. This plant, Lichen plicatus of Linnaus, we are informed by that great botanist, is applied by the Laplanders to parts which are excoriated by a long journey. It is slightly adstringent

and is applied with that intention to bleeding-vessels.

Muscus caninus. See Lichen cinereus

terrestris.

MUSCUS CLAVATUS. See Lycopodium. MUSCUS CRANII HUMANI. See Usnea.

Muscus cumatilis. This cryptogamious plant, Lichen apthosus, is said to act powerfully on the intestines, though never used in the practice of the present day.

Muscus enectus. Upright club moss. The pharmacopoial name of the Lycopodium selago of Linnaus. The decoction of this plant acts violently as a vomit and a purgative, and was formerly on that account employed to produce abortions.

Muscus Islandicus. See Lichen islandi-

cus.

Muscus maritimus. See Corallinus.

Muscus pulmonarius quercinus. See Pulmonaria arborea.

Muscus fyxidatus. Cup-moss. Musculus pyxoides terrestris. Lichen pyxidatus major. These very common little plants, Lichen cocciferus and pyxidatus of Linnæus, for both are used indifferently, are employed by the common people in this country in the cure of hooping-cough, in the form of decoction.

Muscus squamosus terrestris. See Lycopodium.

MUSIA PATTRE. A name for moxa.

Mushroom. There are several species of the agaricus, which go by the term mushroom; as the agaricus charterellus, deliciosus, violaceos, &c. but that which is eaten in this country is the agaricus campestris of Linnæus. Similar to it in quality is the champignion, or agaricus pratensis. Broiled with salt and pepper, or stewed with cream and some aromatic, they are extremely delicious, and, if not eaten to excess, salubrious. Great care should be taken to ascertain that they are the true fungus, and not those of a poisonous nature. Catchup is made by throwing salt on mushrooms, which causes them to part with their juice.

Musk. See Moschus.

Musk-cranesbill. See Geranium moschatum.

Musk-melon. See Melo.

Musk-seed. See Abelmoschus.

Musaultto. A species of gnat in the West Indies, which produce small tumours on whatever part they settle, attended with so high a degree of itching and inflammation, that the person cannot refrain from scratching, by a frequent repitition of which he not uncommonly occasions them to ulcerate, particularly if the subject is of a robust and full habit.

Mustard, black. See Sinapi. Mustard, hedge. See Erysimum. Mustard, treacle. See Thlaspi. Mustard, mithridate. See Thlaspi. Mustard, yellow. See Sinapi. MUTITAS (From mutus, dumb) Dumbness. A genus of disease in the class locales and order dyscnesiæ of Cullen, which he defines an inability of articulation. He distinguishes three species, vi.

1. Mutitas organica, when the tongue is

removed or injured.

2. Mutitus autonica, arising from an affection of the nerves of the organ.

3. Mutitas surdorum, depending upon being born deaf, or becoming so in their infantile years.

Muza. See Musa.

MYACANTHA. (From  $\mu us$ , a mouse, and  $\alpha x \alpha y \beta x$ , a thorn, so called, because its prickly leaves are used to cover whatever is intended to be preserved from mice.) See Ruscus.

MYAGRO. See Myagrum.

Myagrum. (From μυμα, a fly, and αγρεμο, to seize, because flies are caught by its viscidity.) A species of wild mustard.

Mrce. (From  $\mu\nu\rho$ , to wink, shut up, or obstruct.) 1. It is a winking, closing, or obstruction. It is applied to the eyes, to ulcers, and to the viscera, especially the spleen, where it imports obstructions. 2. In surgery, it is a fungus, such as arises in ulcers and wounds. 3. Some writers speak of a yellow vitriol, which is called Myce.

Michthismos. (From µvζu, to mutter or groan.) In Hippocrates, it is a sort of sighing or groaning during respiration, whilst the air is forced out of the lungs.

MYCONOIDES. (From μυκεα, a noise, and ειδος, a likeness,) applied to an ulcer full of mucus, and which upon pressure emits a wheezing sound.

MYCTER. The nose.

MYCTERES. Μυπτηςες. The nostrils.
MYDESIS. (From μυθαω, to abound with moisture.) It imports, in general, a cor-

ruption of any part from a redundant moisture. But Galen applies it particularly to the eye-lids.

Mynon. (From μυθαω, to grow putrid.)
Fungus or putrid flesh in a fistulous ulcer.

MYDRIASIS. (From μυδαω, to abound in moisture; so named, because it was thought to originate in redundant moisture.) A disease of the iris. Too great a dilatation of the pupil of the eye, with or without a defect of vision. It is known by the pupil always appearing of the same latitude or size in the light. The species of mydriasis are, 1. Mydriasis amaurotica, which, for the most part, but not tways, accompanies an amaurosis. 2. Mydriasis hydrocephalica, which owes its origin to an hydrocephalus internus, or internal dropsy of the ventricles of the cerebrum It is not uncommon amongst children, and is the most certain diagnostic of the disease. 3. Mydriasis verminosa, or a dilatation of

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the pupil from saburra and worms in the stomach or small intestines. 4. Mudriasis a synechia, or a dilatation of the pupil, with a concretion of the uvea with the capsula of the crystalline lens. 5. Mydriasis paralytica, or a dilated pupil, from a paralysis of the orbicular fibres of the iris: it is observed in paralytic disorders, and from the application of narcotics to the 6. Mydriasis spasmodica, from a spasm of the rectilineal fibres of the iris, as often happens in hysteric and spasmodic diseases. 7. Mydriasis, from atony of the iris, the most frequent cause of which is a large cataract distending the pupil in its passing when extracted. It vanishes in a few days after the operation, in general; a pupil, however long dilated, may remain so from the over and long-continued disten-

MYLACRIS. (From μυλη, a grind-stone, so called from its shape.) The patella, or knee-pan,

MYLE. MUNN. The knee-pan, or a mole

in the uterus.

MYLON. See Staphyloma.

MYLO. Names compounded with this word belong to muscles, which are attached near the grinders; from μυλη, a grinder-tooth: such as,

Mylo-glossi. Small muscles of the

tongue.

MYLO-HYOIDEUS. Mylo-hyoidien of Dumas. This muscle, which was first described by Fallopius, is so called from its origin near the dentes molares, and its insertion into the os hyoides. It is a thin, flat muscle, situated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides, and is covered by the anterior portion of the digastricus. It arises fleshy, and a little tendinous, from all the inner surface of the lower jaw, as far back as the insertion of the pterygoideus internus, or, in other words, from between the last dens molaris and the middle of the chin, where it joins its fellow, to form one belly, with an intermediate tendinous streak, or linea alba, which extends from the chin to the os hyoides, where both muscles are inserted into the lower edge of the basis of that bone. This has induced Riolanus, Winslow, Albinus, and others, to consider it as a single penniform muscle. Its use is to pull the os hyoides upwards, forwards, and to either side.

Mylo-phanyngeus, (Musculus mylofhinyngeus, μυλοφεργλιος; from μυλη, the granding tooth, and φαξυλ<sup>2</sup>, the pharynx.) See Constrictor pharyngeus superior.

MYDERPHALUM. (From MUZ, a fly, and appealog, a head, from its resemblance to the head of a fly.) A tumour in the uvea of the eye.

Myocollitis. (From μυων, a muscle, and κοιλαι, a belly. So Vogel names inflammation of the muscles of the belly.

Myodesofsia. (From μασι, a fly, and α μα, vision.) A disease of the eyes, in which the person sees black spots, an appearance of flies, cobwebs, or black wool, before his eyes.

MYOLOGY. (Myologia, from  $\mu us$ , a muscle, and  $\lambda o \gamma o s$ , a discourse.) The doc-

trine of the muscles.

MYOPIA. (From µvw, to wink, and wf, the eye.) Near-sighted, purblind. The myopes are considered those persons who cannot see distinctly above twenty inches. The myopia is likewise adjudged to all those who cannot see at three, six, or nine inches. The proximate cause is the adunation of the rays of light in a focus before the retina. The species are, 1. Myopia, from too great a convexity of the comea. The cause of this convexity is either from nativity, or a greater secretion of the aqueous humour: hence on one day there shall be a greater myopia than on another. An incipient hydrophthalmia-is the origin of this myopia. 2. Myopia, from too great a longitude of the bulb. This length of the bulb is native, or acquired from a congestion of the humours in the eye; hence artificers occupied in minute .objects, as the engravers of seals, and persons reading much, frequently after puberty become myopes. 3. Myopia, from too great a convexity of the anterior superficies in the crystalline lens. This is likewise from birth. The parallel rays which fall into the cornea, by so much they fall more obliquely, so much the more convex is the cornea, or crystalline lens or vitreous humour in the anterior superficies. But the angle of refraction is equal to the angle of incidence: therefore the angle of refraction so much sooner will be formed as the cornea or lens is more convex. This perfectly accounts for short-sightedness; but an anterior too great convexity of the cornea is the most common cause. 4. Myopia, from too great a density of the cornea, or hu-mours of the eye. Optics teach us by so much sooner the rays of light are forced into a focus, by so much the diaphanous body is denser. 5. Myopia, from a mydriasis or too dilated a pupil; for so much the wider the aperture of the diaphragma is in an optical instrument, so much the nearer is the focus. 6. Myopia infantilis. Infants, from the great convexity of the cornea, are often myopes; but by degrees, as they advance in years, they perceive objects more remotely, by the cornea becoming less convex.

Myors. (From \(\rho\psi\), to wink, and \(\sigma\), the eye.) One who is near-sighted.

MYOSIS. Music. A contraction or too small perforation of the pupil; it is known by vicewing the diameter of the pupil, which is smaller than usual, and remains so in an obscure place, where, natu-

rally, if not diseased, it dilates. It occasions weak sight, or a vision that remains only a certain number of hours in the day; but, if wholly closed, total blindness. species of this disorder are, 1. Myosis spasmodica, which is observed in the hysteric, hypochondriac, and in other spasmodic and nervous affections; it arises from a spasm of the orbicular fibres of the iris. 2. Myosis paralytica arises in paralytic disorders. 3. Myosis inflammatoria, which arises from an inflammation of the iris or uvea, as in the internal ophthalmia, hypopium, or wounded eye. 4. Myosis, from an accustomed contraction of the pupil. This frequently is experienced by those who contemplate very minute objects; by persons who write; by the workers of fine needle-work; and by frequent attention to microscopical inquiries. 5. Myosis, from a defect of the aqueous humour, as after extraction. 6. Myosis nativa, with which infants are born. 7. Muosis naturalis, is a coarctation of the pupil by light, or from an intense examination of minutest These coarctations of the pupil are temporary, and spontaneously vanish.

MYOSITIS. (From μυς, a muscle.) Inflammation of a muscle. It is the term given by Sagar to acute rheumatism.

Myosoris. (Mus, a muscle, and as wros, an ear; so called because its leaves are hairy, and grow longitudinally, like the ear of a mouse.) See Pilosella.

MYOTOMY. (From μυων, a muscle, and τεμνω, to cut.) The dissection of the

muscies.

MYRICA GALE. The systematic name of the Dutch myrtle. See Myrtus brabantica.

Myriophyllon. (From μυρίος, infinite, and φυλλον, a leaf, named from the number of its leaves.) See Millefolium.

MYRISTICA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dioecia. Order, Monadelphia.

Myristica aromatica. Swartz's name of

the nutmeg-tree.

MYRISTICA MOSCHATA. The systematic name of the tree which produces the nutmeg. See Nux moschata.

MYRISTICA NUX See Nux moschata.

MYRMECIA. (From  $\mu \nu g \mu n \xi$ , a pismire.) A small painful wart, of the size and shape of a pismire. See Myrmecium.

MYRMECIUM A moist soft wart about the size of a lupine, with a broad base, deeply rooted, and very painful. It grows on the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.

MYROCOPUM. (From µugov, an ointment, and µo700, labour.) An unguent to remove lassitude.

Mynobalanus (From μυρος, an ungrows on the eastern coast of Arabia Felix, guent, and εαλανος, a nut, so called be and in that part of Abyssinia which is situ-

cause it was formerly used in ointments.) A myrobalan. A dried fruit, of the plum kind, brought from the East Indies. All the myrobalus have an unpleasant, bitterish, very austere taste, and strike an inky blackness with a solution of steel. They are said to have a gently purgative as well as an astringent and corroborating virtue. In this country they have been long expunged from the pharmacopæias. Of this fruit there are several species.

Myrobalan. This fruit is of a yellowish grey colour, and an irregular roundish or oblong figure, about an inch in length, and three quarters of an inch thick.

MYROBALANUS CHEBULA. The chebule myrobalan. This resembles the yellow in figure and ridges, but is larger, of a darker colour, inclining to brown or blackish, and

has a thicker pulp.

Myrobalanus citrina. Yellow myrobalan. This fruit is somewhat longer than the Belliric, with generally five large longitudinal ridges, and as many smaller between them, somewhat pointed at both ends.

MYROBALANUS EMBLICA. The emblic myrobalan is of a dark blackish grey colour, roundish, about half an inch thick, with six hexagonal faces, opening from one another.

MYROBALANUS INDICA. The Indian or black myrobalan, of a deep black colour, oblong, octangular, differing from all the others in having no stone, or only the rudiments of one, from which circumstance they are supposed to have been gathered before maturity.

Myrobalans. See Myrobalanus.

Myron. (From μυζω, to flow.) An ointment, medicated oil, or unguent.

MYROPHYLLUM. Millefolium aquaticum. Water-fennel. It is said to be vulnerary.

MÝROXYLON. (From μυγον, an ointment, and ξυλον, wood.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Monogonia.

MYROXYLON PERUIFERUM. The systematic name of the tree which gives out the Peruvian balsam. See Balsamum Pe-

ruviannm.

MYRRHA. (Myrrha, Heb.) Also called stacte, and the worst sort ergasma. A botanical specimen of the tree which affords this gum-resin has not yet been obtained; but from the account of Mr. Bruce, who says it very much resembles the cacia vera of Linnans, there can be little doubt in refering it to that genus, especially as it corresponds with the description of the tree given of it by Dioscorides. The tree that affords the myrrh, which is obtained by incision, grows on the eastern coast of Arabia Felix, and in that part of Abyssinia which is situ-

(From augres, the

Bruce troglodite. Good myrth is of a clitoris, and gener, a lip.) The nymphæ of bid black red colour, solid and heavy, a peculiar smell, and bitter taste. Its dicinal effects are warm, corroborant, l antisceptic; it has been given as an intenagogue in a dose from 5 to 20 grains; resembling a myrtle-berry. It also means also given in each exies, and applied the clitoris.

MYRTO CHEILIDES.

MYRTUS. (From μυρία, myrrh, because of its smell, or from myrrha, a virgin who was fabled to have been turned into this tree.)

1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Icosandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Myrrhine. The myrtle. Myrtus communis of Linnæus. The berries of this plant are recommended in alvine and uterine fluxes, and other disorders from relaxation and debility. They have a roughish, and not unpleasant taste, and appear to be moderately astringent and corroborant, partaking also of aromatic qualities.

qualities.

Myntus Rrabantica. Myrtus Anglica.

Myrtifolia belgica. Gale. Gagel. Rhus sylvestris. Acaron. Eleagnus. Eleagnus cordo. Chameleagnus dodonæo. The leaves, flowers, and seeds of this plant, Myrica gale of Linnæus, sweet willow, or Dutch myrtle, have a strong fragrant smell, and a bitter taste. They are said to be used amongst the common people for destroying moths and cutaneous insects, and the infusion is given internally as a stoma-

chic and vermifuge.

MYRTUS CARYOPHYLLATA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the cassia bark. See Cassia caryophyllata.

MYRTUS COMMUNIS. Myrtus communis italica. The systematic name of the com-

mon myrtle. See Myrtus.

MYRTUS PYMENTA. The systematic name of the tree which bears the Jamaica pepper. Se *Pimento*.

MYSTAX. The hair which forms the beard in man, on each side the upper

lip.

MYURUS. An epithet for a sort of sinking pulse, when the second stroke is less than the first, the third than the second, &c. Of this there are two kinds: the first in when the pulse so sinks as not to rise again; the other, when it returns again, and rises in some degree. Both are esteemed bad presages.

Myxosancoma. (From μυξα, mucus, and σαςξ, flesh.) Mucocarnius. A tumour which is partly fleshy and partly mucous.

MYXTER. (From μυξα, the mucus of the nose.) The nose or nostril.

ated near the Red Sea, and is called by Mr. Bruce troglodite. Good myrrh is of a turbid black red colour, solid and heavy, of a peculiar smell, and bitter taste. medicinal effects are warm, corroborant, and antisceptic; it has been given as an emmenagogue in a dose from 5 to 20 grains; it is also given in cachexies, and applied externally as an antisceptic and vulnerary. In doses of half a drachm, Dr. Cullen remarks that it heats the stomach, produced sweat, and agreed with the balsams in affecting the urinary passages. It has lately come more into use as a tonic in hectical cases, and is said to prove less heating than most other medicines of that class. Myrrh dissolves almost totally in boiling water, but, as the liquor cools, the resinous matter Rectified spirit dissolves less of subsides. this concrete than water; but extracts more perfectly that part in which its bitterness, virtues and flavour reside; the resinous matter which water leaves undissolved is very bitter, but the gummy matter which spirit leaves undissolved is insipid, the spirituous solution containing all the ac-tive part of the myrrh: it is applied to ulcers, and other external affections of a putrid tendency; and also as a wash, when diluted, for the teeth and gums. There are several preparations of this drug in the London and Edinburgh pharmaco-

MYRRHINE. (From µngga, myrrh; so called because it smells like myrrh.)

Myrams. (From augga, myrrh; so named from its rnyrr-like smell) Sweet cicely; anti-scorbutic.

MYRINELEUM. (From μυρσινη, the myrtle, and λεαιον, oil.) Oil of myrtle.

MYRTACANTHA. (From μυρτος, a myrtle,

MYRTACANTHA. (From μυρτος, a myrtle, and αμανθα, a thorn; so called from its likeness to myrtle, and from its prickly leaves.) Butcher's broom. See Ruscus.

MYRTIDANUM. (From puggess, the myrtle.) An excrescence growing on the trunk of the myrtle, and used as an astringent.

MYNTILLUS. The berries which are directed in pharmacopæias by the name of bacca myrtillorum, are the fruit of the Vaccinium myrtillus of Linnæus. Prepared with vinegar they are esteemed as antiscorbutics, and when dry possess astringent virtues.

Myrtiform caruncles. See Glandulæ myrtiformes.

Myrtiform glands. See Glandula myrtiformes.

Myrtle, common. See Myrtus.

Myrtle, Dutch. See Myrtus brabantica.

## N.

N. In prescriptions this letter is a contraction for numero, in number.

NACTA. An abscess of the female breast

NADUCEM. A uterine coagulum, or mole.

Nævi matenni. Maculæ matrices. Stigmata. Metrocilides. Mother's marks. Marks on the skin of children, which are born with them, and which are produced by the longing of the mother for particular things, or her aversion to them; hence they resemble either mulberries, strawberries, grapes, pines, bacon, &c.

NAI CORONA. A name of the cowage.
NAIL. Unguis. A horny lamina, situ-

ated on the extremity of the fingers and toes.

NAKIR. According to Schenkius this means wandering pains of the limbs.

NAPELLUS. (A diminutive of napus, a kind of turnip; so called because it has a bulbous root like that of the napus.) See Aconitum.

NAPHÆ FLORES. Orange flowers are sometimes so called. See Aurantium.

NAPHTHA. Naφθa. A very fluid species of petroleum, of a lighter colour than petroleum, more or less transparent, perfectly thin and liquid, light, so as to float on water, odor ferous, volatile, and inflammable. It is found separated by nature from petroleum and blumen, but its separation is more readily effected by art. This fluid has been used for an external application for removing old pains, nervous disorders, such as cramps, contractions of the limbs, paralytic affections, &c.

. NAPIFOLIA. Bare cole.

NAPIUM. The name of the nipple wort. A species of lapsana. It is one of the bitter lactescent plants, similar in virtues to

endive. See Lapsana.

NAPUS. (From napus, Rabb.) Napus sulvestris. Bunias. Wild navew, or rape. The Brassica napus of Linnaus. The seeds yield upon expression a large quantity of oil called rape oil, which is sometimes ordered in stimulating liniments.

NAPUS DULCIS. See Rapus.

NARCISSIS The daffodil

NARCISSUS. The daffodil. A genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Monogynia.

NARCOSIS. (From vagaco, to stupefy.) Stupefaction, stupor, numbness.

NARCOTICS. (Narcotica, sc. Medicamenta. From yagraw, to stupefy.) Those

medicines which have the power of procuring sleep. See Anodynes.

Nard, Celtic. See Nardus Celtica. Nard, Indian. See Nardus Indica.

NARDOSTACHYS. (From ναςδω, spikenard, and ςαχω, sage.) A species of wild sage resembling spikenard in its leaves and smell.

NARDUS. (From nard, Sir.) Spikenard.

Nardus Celtica. Spica Celtic. Dioscoridis. Celtic nard. Valeriana Celtica of Linnæus. The root of this plant, a native of the Alps, has been recommended as a stomachic, carminative, and diuretic. At present it is only used in this country in the theriaca and mithridate, though its sensible qualities promise some considerable medicinal powers. It has a moderately strong smell, and a warm, bitterish, sub-acrid taste.

NARDUS INDICA. Spica nardi. Spica Indica. Indian nard or spikenard. The root of this plant, Andropogon nardus of Linnæus, is an ingredient in the mithridate and theriaca; it is moderately warm and pungent, accompanied with a flavour not disagreeable. It is said to be used by the Orientals as a spice.

NARDUS ITALICA. The lavendula latifolia.

NARDUS MONTANA. An old name of the

asarabacca.

Nandus Rustica. An old name of the

asarabacca. See Asarum.

(Pl. of naris.) Mycteres. The nostrils. The cavity of the nostrils is of a pyramidal figure, and is situated under the anterior part of the cranium, in the middle of the face. It is composed of fourteen bones, viz. the frontal, two maxillary, two nasal, two lachrymal, two inferior spongy, the sphænoid, the vomer, the ethmoid, and two palatine bones, which form several eminences and cavities. The eminences are the septum narium, the cavernous substance of the ethmoid bone, called the superior conchæ, and the inferior spongy bones. The cavities are three pair of pituitary sinuses, namely, the frontal, sphænoid and maxillary; the anterior and posterior foramina of the nostrils; the ductus nasalis, the sphæno-palatine foramina, and anterior palatine foramina. All these parts are covered with periosteum, and a pituitary membrane which secretes the mucus of the nostrils. The arteries of this cavity are branches of the internal maxillary. The veins empty themselves

into the internal jugulars. The nerves are branches of the olfactory, opthalmic, and superior maxillary. The use of the nostrils is for smelling, respiration, and speech.

NARIFUSORIA. (From nares, the nostrils, and fundo, to pour.) Medicines dropped

into the nostrils.

NARIS COMPRESSOR. See Compressor na-

NARTA. (Nagra, ex nardi odore, from its smell.) A plant used in ointments.

NARTHECIA. (From Narthecis, the island where it flourished.) Narthex. A kind of fennel.

NASALIA. the nose.) (From nasus, Errhines.

NASALIS LABIS SUPERIORI. See orbicu-

NASARIUM. (From nasus, the nose.) The mucus of the nose.

NASCALE. (From nasus, the nose.) wood or cotton pessary for the nose.

NASCAPTHUM. See Narcupthon.

See Depressor labii NASI, DEPRESSOR. superioris alæque nasi.

NASI OSSA. (nasus, the nose.) The two small bones of the nose that are so termed from the bridge of the nose. In figure they are quadrangular and oblong.

NASTURTIUM. (Quod nasum torquent, because the seed, when bruising, irritates the nose.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class Tetradynamia. Order Siliquosa.

NASTURTIUM AQUATICUM. Laver odora-Cratevæ sium. Cressis. Cardamines. Water-cress. This indigenous plant Sysimbrium nasturtium of Linnaus; siliquis declinatis, foliis pinnatis, foliolis subcordatis, grows plentifully in brooks and stagnant waters. The leaves have a moderate pungent taste, emit a quick penetrating smell, like that of mustard seed, but much weaker. Water-cresses obtain a place in the materia medica, for their antiscorbutic qualities, which have been long very generally acknowledged by plysicians. The most pleasant way of administering them is in form of a salad.

NASTURTIUM HORTENSE. Dittander. This plant is the Lepidium satioum of Linnaus; floribus tetradynamiis; foliis oblongiis, multifidis; it possesses warm, nervine, and stimulating qualities, and is given as an antiscorbutic, antisceptic, and stomachic, espe-

cially by the lower order.

NASTURTIUM INDICUM. Acrivi-Flos sanguineus monardi. Nasturtium Peruvianum. Cardaminum minus. Greater Indian cress or nasturtium. Trapæolum majus of Linnaus. This plant is a native of Peru; it was first brought to France in 1684, and there called La grande capucine. In its recent state this plant, and more especially its flowers, have a smell and taste resembling those of water-cress; and the ed to Sicily and Italy.

leaves, on being bruised in a mortar, emit a pungent odour, somewhat like that of horse-radish. By distillation with water, they impregnate the fluid in a considerable degree with the smell and flavour of the plant. Hence the antiscorbutic character of the nasturtium seems to be well founded, at least as far as we are able to judge from its sensible qualities: therefore in all those cases, where the warm and antiscorbutic vegetables are recommended, this plant may be occasionally adopted as a pleasant and effectual variety. Patients, to whom the nauseous taste of scurvy-grass is intolerable, may find a grateful substitute in the nasturtium. The flowers are frequently used in salads, and the capsules are by many highly esteemed as a pickle. The flowers, in the warm summer months, about the time of sunset, have been observed to emit sparks like those of the electrical kind.

NATA. Natta. A species of wen with slender pendent neck. Linnæus speaks of it as rooted in a muscle.

NATES. (From nato, to flow: because the excrements are discharged from them.) 1. The buttocks, or the fleshy parts upon 2. Two of the eminences which we sit. of the tubercule quadragemina of the brain are so named, from their resemblance.

NATES CEREBRI. See Tubercula quadra-

gemina.

NATRON. (So called from Natron, a lake in Judea, where it was produced.) Natrum. 1. The name formerly given by the college of physicians to the alkali now called soda.

2. A native salt, which is found chrystallized in Egypt, in the lake called Natron, and in other hot countries, in sands surrounding lakes of salt water. It is an impure carbonate of soda.

3. The name of an impure carbonate of soda, obtained by burning Salsoli kali of Linnæus. Not only this, but various other plants, on being burned, are found to afford this alkali, and some in a greater

proportion than this: these are

The Salsola sativa, Lin. Salsola sonda. Lofling. Kali nispanicum supinum annuum sedi-feliis brevibus. Kali d'Alicante. This grows abundantly on that part of the Spa-nish coast which is washed by the Medi-terranean sea. This plant is deservedly first enumeratad by Professor Murray, as it supplies all the best soda consumed in Europe, which by us is called Spanish or Alicant soda, and by the Spanish merchants Barilla de Alicante. See Barilla.

Salsola soda, Lin. Kali majus cochleato This species, which Le salicor. grows on the French Mediterranean coast, is much used in Languedoc for the preparation of this salt, which is usually export-

Salsola tragus, Lin. affords an ordinary kind of soda, with which the French frequently mix that made in Languedoc. This adulteration is also practised by the Sicilians, who distinguish the plant by the term

Salicornia herbacca, Lin. is common in salt marshes, and on the sea-shore, all over Europe. Linnaus prefers the soda obtained from this plant to that of all the others; but though the quantity of alkali which it vields is very considerable, as a great portion of it is united with muriatic acid, it is mixed with much common salt.

Salicornia arabica, Lin. Mesembryanthemum nodiflorum, Lin. Plantago squarrosa, Lin. All these, according to Alpinus, afford this alkali. It has also been procured from several of the fuci, esphcially F. vesiculosus, and distinguished here by the name kelp. Various other marine plants might also be noticed as yielding an impure soda by combustion; but the principal are confined to the genus salsola, and that of salicornia. The salsola kali, on the authority of Rauwolf, is the species from which the salt is usually obtained in eastern countries.

It is to be regretted that the different kinds of soda, which are brought to European markets, have not been sufficiently analysed to enable us to ascertain with tolerable certainty the respective value of each; and indeed, while the practice of adulterating this salt continues, any attempts of this kind are likely to prove fruitless. The best information on this subject is to be had from Jessica, Mascorelle, Cadet, Borlare, and Sestini. In those places where the preparation of soda forms a considerable branch of commerce, as on the coast of the Mediterranean, seeds of the salsola are regularly sown in a proper situation near the sea, which usually shoot above ground in the course of a fortnight. About the time the seeds become ripe, the plants are pulled up by the roots, and exposed in a suitable place to dry, where their seeds are collected; this being done, the plants are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven constructed for the purpose, where the ashes are then, while hot, continually stirred with long poles. The saline matter, on becoming cold, forms a hard solid mass, which is afterwards broken in pieces of a convenient size for exportation.

According to chymical analysis, the impure sodas of commerce generally contain a portion of vegetable alkali, and neutral salts, as muriate of soda and sulphate of potash, and not unfrequently some portion of iron is contained in the mass; they are therefore to be considered as more or less a compound, and their goodness to be estimated accordingly. The Spanish soda, of the best sort, is in dark coloured masses, of a bluish tinge, very ponderous, sonorous, dry to the touch, and externally abounding with small cavities, without any offensive smell, and very salt to the taste: if long exposed to the air, it undergoes a degree of spontaneous calcination. The best French soda is also dry, sonorous, brittle, and of a deep blue colour, approaching to black. The soda which is mixed with small stones, which gives out a fetid smell on solution. and is white, soft, and deliquescent, is of the worst kind. The method of purifying the impure carbonates of soda of commerce is directed in the London Pharmacopæia, under the article of Sodæ subcarbonas, and in the Edinburgh Pharmacopogia. under that of Sal alkalinus fixus fossilis purificatus. The pure crystals, thus formed of Alicant barilla, are colourless, transparent, lamcllated, of a rhomboidal figure; and one hundred parts arc found to contain twenty of alkali, sixteen of aërial acid, and sixty-four of water; but upon keeping the crystals for a length of time, if the air be not excluded, the water evaporates, and they assume the form of a white powder. According to Inslin, one ounce of water, at the temperature 62° of Fahr, dissolves five drachms and fifteen grains of the crystals.

NATRON MURIATUM. See Murias sode. NATRON PREPARATUM. See Subcarbonas

NATRON TARTARISATUM. See Tartarizata

NATRON VITRIOLATUM.

NATULE. (Dim. of nates, the buttocks; so called from their resemblance.) Two prominences of the brain. See Tubercula quadrigemina.

NATURAL ACTIONS. . Those actions by which the body is preserved; as hunger, thirst, &c. See Function.

NATURALIA. (From natura, nature.) The

parts of generation.

NAUSEA. (Naurea: from vaus, a ship; because it is a sensation similar to that which people experience upon sailing in a ship.) Nausiosis. Nautia. An inclination to vomit without effecting it; also a disgust of food, approaching to vomiting. It is an attendant on cardialgia, and a variety of other disorders, pregnancy, &c. occasioning an aversion for food, an increase of saliva, disgusted ideas at the sight of various objects, loss of appetite, debility, &c.

NAUSIOSIS. See Nausea.

NAUTIA. See Nausea.

NAUTICUS. (Nauticus, a sailor; so called from the use which sailors make of it, in climbing ropes.) A muscle of the leg, exerted in climbing up.

Navew, garden. See Rapus.

Navero, sweet. See Rapus. Navew, wild See Rapus. NAVICULARE OS. (F.

(From navicula, a little boat.) Naviformis. Navicularis. A bone of the carpus and Os scaphoides. tarsus is so called, from its supposed re- bugloss. semblance to a boat. See Carpus and Tar-

NAVICULATIS. See Naviculare os.

NAVIFORMIS. A name of the os navicu-

NEAPOLITANUS MORBUS. (From Neapolis, or Naples, because it was said to have been first discovered at Naples, when the French were in possession of it.) The venereal disease.

NEBULA. (From vegenn.) 1. A cloudy spot

in the cornea of the eye.

2. The cloud-like appearance in the urine, after it has been a little time at rest.

NECK. Collum. The parts which form the neck are divided into external and internal. The external parts are the common integuments, several muscles, eight pair of cervical nerves, the eighth pair of nerves of the cerebrum, and the great in-tercostal nerve; the two carotid arteries, the two external jugular veins, and the two internal; the glands of the neck, viz. the jugular, submaxillary, cervical, and thyroid. The internal parts are, the fauces, pharynx, œsophagus, larynx, and trachea. bones of the neck are the seven cervical vertebræ.

NECROSIS. (From vergow, to destroy.) This word, the strict meaning of which is only mortification, is, by the general con-sent of surgeons, confined to this affection of the bones. The death of parts of bones was not distinguished from caries, by the ancients. However, necrosis and caries are essentially different; for in the first, the part affected of the bone is deprived of the vital principle; but this is not the case when it is simply carious. Caries is very analogous to ulceration, while necrosis is exactly similar to mortification of the soft parts.

NECROSIS OSTILAGINEA. A painful convulsive contraction of the limbs.

NECTAR. NEUTAG. A wine made of honey.

NEDVIA. (From undue, the belly.) Nedus. The intestines.

Nunva. See Nedyia.

NEGBO CACHEXY. Cachexia Africana. Mal d'estomach of the French. A propensity for eating earth, peculiar to males as well as females, in the West Indies and Africa

NEIERA. (From runger, furthermost.) The

lower part of the belly

NEMOROSA. (From riemus, a grove; so called because it grows in woods.) A species of anemone,

Nep. See Nepeta.

NEPA THEOPHRASTI. The spartium sco-

NEPENTHES. (From vn neg. and wevbos, grief; so called from their exhilarating qualities.) A preparation of opium, and a kind of

NEPETA. (From nepte, Germ.) Herba felis. Nep, or catmint; so called because cats are very fond of it. The leaves of this plant, Nepata cataria of Linnæus:-floribus spicatis; verticillis subpedicellatis; foliis petiolatis, cordatis, dentata serratis, have a moderately pungent aromatic taste, and a strong smell, like an admixture of spearmint and penny royal. The herb is recommended in uterine disorders, dyspepsia, and flatulency.

NEPETA CATARIA. The systematic name

of the catmint. See Nepeta.

NEPETELLA. (Dim. of nepeta.) The lesser

NEPHELA. (Dim. of vepos, a cloud.) A cloudlike spot on the cornea of the eye.

NEPHELOIDES (From repean, a cloud, and esdos, a likeness.) Cloudy. Applied to the urine,

NEPHRALGIA. (From veogos, the kidney, and αλγος, pain.) Pain in the kid-

NEPHRALGIA CALCULOSA. Pain from stone

in the kidneys.

NEPHRALGIA RHEUMATICA. The lumbago,

or pain in the loins.

NEPHRELMINTUICA ISCHURIA. (From νεφεος, the kidney, and ελμίνς, a worm.) Applied to a suppression of urine from

Nephritic wood. See Lignum nephriticum. NEPHRITICA AQUA. Spirituous distillation

of nutineg and hawthorn flowers.

NEPHRITICS. (Nephritica, sc. medica-menta; from veogos, the kidney.) Medicines are so termed that are employed in the cure of diseases of the kidneys.

NEPHRITICUM LIGNUM. See Lignum ne-

phriticum.

NEPHRITIS. (From νεφερος, a kidney.)
Inflammation of the kidney. A genus of disease in the class pyrexie, and order phlegmasiæ, of Cullen; known by prexia, pain in the region of the kidneys, and shooting along the course of the ureter; drawing up of the testicles; numbness of the thigh; vomiting; urine high coloured, and frequently discharged; cos-Nephritis is tiveness, and colic pains. symptomatic of calculus, gout, &c.

This inflammation may be distinguished from the colic, by the pain being seated very far back, and by the difficulty of passing urme, which constantly attends it; and it may be distinguished from rheumatism, as in this the pain is but little influenced, or increased, either by motion or

pressure.

Nephritis is to be distinguished from a

calculus in the kidney, or ureter, by the symptoms of fever accompanying, or immediately following the attack of pain, and these continuing without any remarkable intermission; whereas, in a calculus of the kidney, or ureter, they do not occur until a considerable time after violent pain has been felt. In the latter case, too, a numbness of the thigh, and a retraction of the testicle on the affected side, usually takes place.

The causes which give rise to nephritis are, external contusions, strains of the back, acrids conveyed to the kidneys in the course of the circulation, violent and severe exercise, either in riding or walking, calculous concretions lodged in the kidneys, or ureters, and exposures to cold. In some habits, there is an evident predisposition to this complaint, particularly the gouty, and in these there are often translations of the matter to the kidneys, which very much

imitate nephritis.

An inflammation of the kidney is attended with a sharp pain on the affected side, extending along the course of the ureter; and there is a frequent desire to make water, with much difficulty in making it; the body is costive, the skin is dry and hot, the patient feels great uneasiness when he endeavours to walk, or sit upright; he lies with most ease on the affected side, and is generally troubled with nausea and frequent vomiting.

When the disease is protracted beyond the seventh or eighth day, and the patient feels an obtuse pain in the part, has frequent returns of chilliness and shiverings, there is reason to apprehend that matter is forming in the kidney, and that a suppura-

tion will ensue.

Dissections of nephritis shew the usual effects of inflammation on the kidney; and they likewise often discover the formation of abscesses, which have destroyed its whole substance. In a few instances, the kidney has been found in a scirrhous state.

NEPHROLITICA ISCHURIA. (From 140905, a kidney, and 21605, a stone.) Applied to an ischury, from a stone in the kid-

neys.

NEPHROMETRE. The psox muscles.

NEPHROPLETHORICUS. (From νεωζος, a kidney, and πληθωζα, a plethora.) Applied to a suppression of urine from a plethora.

Nephrophers Mariers, (From 1499%, a kidney, and φλεγμα, phlegm.) Applied to a suppression of urine from pituitous or mu-

cous matter in the kidneys.

NEPHROPLEGICUS. (From νεφρος, a kidney, and πληγη, a stroke.) A suppression of urine from a paralysis of the kidney is called ischuria nephroplegica.

NEPHROPYICUS. (From veogos, a kidney, and woor, pus.) Applied to a sup-

pression of urine from purulent matter in the kidneys.

NEPHROS. (From νιω, to flow, and φιζω, to bear; as conveying the urinary fluid.) A kidney.

NEPHROSPASTICUS. (From νεφξος, a kidney, and σπαφ, to contract.) Applied to a suppression of urine from a spasm of the kidneys.

NEPHROTHRYMBOIDES. (From vegges, a kidney, and bgopker, a grumous concretion, and bdoc, a likeness.) Applied to a suppression of urine from grumous bloud in the

kidneys.

NEPHROTOMY. Nephrotomia; from νεφερε, a kidney, and τεμνω, to cut.) The operation of extracting a stone from the kidney. A proceeding which, perhaps, has never been actually put in practice. The cutting into the kidney, the deep situation of this viscus, and the want of symptoms by which the lodgment of a stone in it can be certainly discovered, will always be strong objections to the practice.

NERIUM. (From pages, humid; so called because it grows in moist places.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order,

Monogynia.

NERIUM ANTIDYSENTERIUM. The systematic name of the tree which affords the Cadoga pala bark. See Conissi cortex.

NEROLI OLEUM. Essential oil of orange

flowers. See Aurantium.

NERVALIA OSSA. (From nervus, a nerve.) The bones through which the nerves

pass. NERVE. Nervus. Formerly it meant a sinew. This accounts for the opposite meanings of the word nervous; which sometimes means strong, sinewy; snd sometimes weak, and irritable. Nerves are long, white, medullary cords, that serve They originate from the for sensation. brain and spinal marrow; hence they are distinguished into cerebral and spinal nerves, and distributed upon the organs of sense, the viscera, vessels, muscles, and every part that is endowed with sensibility. The cerebral nerves are the olfactory, optic, motores oculorum, pathetici, or trochleatores, trigimini, or divisi, abducent, auditory, or acoustic, par vagum and lingual. Heister has drawn up the uses of these nerves in the two following verses:

Olfaciens, cernens, oculosque movens pa-

tiensque,

Gustans, abducens, audiensque, vagansque, loquensque.

The spinal nerves are thirty pair, and are divided into eight pair of cervical, twelve pair of dorsal, five pair of lumber, and five of sacral nerves. In the course of the nerves there are a number of knots: these are called ganglions; they are commonly of an oblong shape, and of a grayish colour,

somewhat inclining to red, which is, perhaps, owing to their being extremely vascular. Some writers have considered these little ganglions as so many little brains. Lancisi faneied he had discovered muscular fibres in them, but they certainly are not of an irritable nature. A late writer (Dr. Johnson) imagines they are intended to deprive us of the power of the will over certain parts, as the heart, for instance; but if this hypothesis were well founded, they should be met with only in nerves leading to voluntary muscles; whereas it is certain that the voluntary muscles receive nerves through ganglions. Dr. Munro, from observing the accurate intermixture of the minute nerves which compose them, considers them as new sources of nervous The nerves, like the blood-vessels, in their course through the body, communicate with each other, and each of these communications constitute what is called a plexus, from whence branches are again detached to different parts of the body. The use of the nerves is to convey the principles of motion and sensibility to the brain, from all parts of the system, and from the brain to every part of the system. The manner in which this operation is effected is not yet determined. The inquiry has been a constant source of hypothesis in all ages, and has produced some ingenious ideas, and many erroneous positions, but without having hitherto afforded much satisfactory information. Some physiologists have considered a trunk of nerves as a solid cord, capable of being divided into an infinite number of filaments, by means of which the impressions of feeling arc conveyed to the common sensorium. Others have supposed each fibril to be a canal, carrying a volatile fluid, which they term the uervous fluid. Those who contend for their being solid bodies are of opinion that feeling is occasioned by vibration; so that, for instance, according to this hypothesis, by pricking the finger, a vibration would be occasioned in the nerve distributed through its substance; and the effects of this vibration, when extended to the sensorium, would be an excital of pain; but the inelasticity, the softness, the connection, and the situation of the nerves, are so many proofs that vibration has no share in the eause of feeling.

A Tuble of the Nerves. CEREBRAL NERVES.

- 1. The first pair, called olfactory.
- 2. The second pair, or optic nerves. 3. The third pair, or oculorum motorii.
- 4. The fourth pair, or pathetici.
  5. The fifth pair, or trigemini, which gives off
  - a. The ophthalmic, or orbital nerve, which sends
    - 1. A branch to unite with one from the

- sixth pair, and form the great intercostal nerve.
- 2. The frontal nerve.
- 3. The luchrymal.
- 4 The wasul.
- b. The superior maxillary, which divides
  - 1. The spheno palatine nerve.
  - 2. The posterior alveolar.
    3. The infra orbital.
- e. The inferior maxillary nerve, from which arise
  - 1. The internal lingual.
  - 2. The inferior maxillary, properly so
- 6. The sixth pair, or abducentes, which send off
  - 1. A branch to unite with one from the fifth, and form the great inter-
- 7. The seventh pair, or auditory nerves, these arise by two separate beginnings,
  - The portio dura, a nerve going to the
  - The portio mollis, which is distributed
  - on the ear. The partio dura, or facial nerve, gives off the chorda tympani, and then
- proceeds to the face 8. The eighth pair, or par vagum, arise from the medulla oblongata, and join with the accessory of Willis. The par vagum
  - 1. The right and left recurrent nerve.
  - 2. Several branches in the chest, to form the cardiac plexus.
  - 3. Several branches to form the pulmonic plexus.
  - 4. Several branches to form the asophagcal plexus.
  - 5. It then forms in the abdomen the stomuchic plexus.
  - 6. The hepatic plexus.
  - 7. The splenic plexus.
  - 8. The renal plexus, receiving several branches from the great intercostal, which assists in their formation.
- 9. The ninth pair, or lingual nerves, which go from the medullar oblongata to the tongue.

SPINAL NERVES.

Those nerves are called spinal, which pass out through the lateral or intervertibral foramina of the spine.

They are divided into cervical, dorsal, lumbar, and sacral nerves

CERVICAL NERVES.

The cervical nerves are eight pairs.

The first are called the occipital; they arise from the beginning of the spinal marrow, pass out between the margin of the occipital foramen and atlas, form a ganglion on its transverse process, and are distributed about the occiput and neck.

The second pair of cervical nerves send a

NERVE.

branch to the accessory nerve of Willis, and proceed to the parotid gland and ex-

ternal ear.

The third cervical pair supply the integuments of the scapula, cucullaris, and triangularis muscles, and send a branch to form with others the diaphragmatic nerve.

The fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth pair all converge to form the brachial plexus, from which arise the six following

NERVES OF THE UPPER EXTREMITIES. 1. The axillary nerve, which sometimes arises from the radial nerve. It runs backwards and outwards around the neck of the humerus, and ramifies in the muscles of the scapula.

2. The external cutaneal, which perforates the coraco-brachialis muscle, to the bend of the arm, where it accompanies the median vein as far as the thumb, and is lost

in its integuments.

3. The internal cutaneal, which descends on the inside of the arm, where it bifurcates. From the bend of the arm the anterior branch accompanies the basilic vein, to be inserted into the skin of the palm of the hand; the posterior branch runs down the internal part of the fore-arm, to vanish in

the skin of the little finger.

4. The median nerve, which accompanies the brachial artery to the cubit, then passes between the brachialis internus, pronator rotundus, and the perforatus and perforans, under the ligament of the wrist to the palm of the hand, where it sends off branches in every direction to the muscles of the hand, and then supplies the digital nerves, which go to the extremities of the

thumb, fore and middle fingers.

5. The ulnar nerve, which descends between the brachial artery and basilic vein, between the internal condyle of the humerus and the olecranon, and divides in the fore-arm into an internal and external The former passes over the ligament of the wrist and sesamoid bone, to the hand, where it divides into three branches, two of which go to the ring and little finger, and the third forms an arch towards the thumb, in the palm of the hand, and is lost in the contiguous muscles. The latter passes over the tendon of the extensor carpi ulnaris and back of the hand, to supply also the two last fingers.

6. The radial nerve, which sometimes gives off the axillary nerve. It passes backwards, about the os humeri, descends on the outside of the arm, between the brachialis externus and internus muscles to the cubit; then proceeds between the supinator longus and brevis, to the superior extremity of the radius, giving off various branches to adjacent muscles. place it divides into two branches; one goes along the radius, between the supinator longus and radialis internus to the back of the hand, and terminates in the interosseous muscles, the thumb and three first fingers; the other passes between the supinator brevis and head of the radius, and is lost in the muscles of the fore-arm.

DORSAL NERVES.

The dorsal nerves are twelve pairs in num-The first pair gives off a branch to the brachial plexus. All the dorsal nerves are distributed to the muscles of the back, intercostals, serrati, pectoral, abdominal muscles, and diaphragm. The five inferior pairs go to the cartilages of the ribs, and are called costal

LUMBAR NERVES.

The five pair of lumbar nerves are bestowed about the loins and muscles, skin of the abdomen and loins, scrotum, ovaria, and diaphragm. The second, third, and fifth pair unite and form the obturator nerve, which descends over the psoas muscle into the pelvis, and passes through the foramen thyroideum to the obturator muscle, tri-

ceps, pectineus, &c.

The third and fourth, with some branches of the second pair, form the crural nerve, which passes under Poupart's ligament with the femoral artery, sends off branches to the adjacent parts, and descends in the direction of the sartorius muscle to the internal condyle of the femur, from whence it accompanies the saphena vein to the internal ankle, to be lost in the skin of the great

The fifth pair are joined to the first pair of the sacral nerves.

SACRAL NERVES.

There are five pair of sacral nerves, all of which arise from the cauda equina, or termination of the medulla spinalis, so called from the nerves resembling the tail of a horse. The four first pair give off branches to the pelvic viscera, and are afterwards united to the last lumbar, to form a large plexus, which gives off

The ischiatic nerve, the largest in the The ischiatic nerve, immediately at its origin, sends off branches to the bladder, rectum, and parts of generation; proceeds from the cavity of the pelvis through the ischiatic notch, between the tuberosity of

the ischium and great trochanter, to the ham, where it is called the popliteal nerve. In the ham it divides into two branches. 1. The peroneal, which descends on the

fibula, and distributes many branches to the muscles of the leg and back of the

2. The tibial, which penetrates the gastrocnemii muscles to the internal ankle, passes through a notch in the os calcis to the sole of the foot, where it divides into an internal and external plantar nerve, which supply the muscles and aponeurosis of the foot and the toes.

Physiology of the Nervous System.

The nervous system, as the organ of sense and motion, is connected with so many functions of the animal economy, that the study of it must be of the utmost importance, and a fundamental part of the study of the whole economy. The nervous system consists of the medullary substance of the brain, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and spinalis; and of the same substance continued into the nerves, by which it is distributed to many different parts of the body. The whole of this system seems to be properly distinguished into these four parts.

1. The medullary sub-tance contained in the cranium and vertebral cavity; the whole of which seems to consist of distinct fibres, but without the smaller fibres being separated from each other by any evident en-

veloping membranes.

2. Connected with one part or other of this substance are, the nerves, in which the same medullary substance is continued; but here more evidently divided into fibres, each of which is separated from the others by an enveloping membrane, derived from

the pia mater.

3. Parts of the extremities of certain nerves, in which the incdullary substance is divested of the enveloping membranes from the pia mater, and so situated as to be exposed to the action of certain external bodies, and perhaps so framed as to be affected by the action of certain bodies only: these are named the sentient extremities of the nerves.

4. Certain extremities of the nerves, so framed as to be capable of a peculiar contractility; and, in consequence of their situation and attachments, to be, by their contraction, capable of moving most of the solid and fluid parts of the body. These are named the moving extremities of the nerves: they are commonly named moving,

or muscular fibres.

These several parts of the nervous system are every where the same continuous medullary substance which is supposed to be the vital solid of animals, so constituted in living animals, and in living systems only, as to admit of motions being readily propagated from any one part to every other part of the nervous system, so long as the continuity and natural living state of the medullary substance remains. In the living man, there is an immaterial thinking substance, or mind, constantly present, and every phenomenon of thinking is to be considered as an affection or faculty of the mind alone. But this immaterial and thinking part of man is so connected with the material and corporeal part of him, and particularly with the nervous system, that motions excited in this give occasion to thought, and thought, however occasioned, gives occasion to new motions in the nervous system. This mu-

tual communication, or influence, is assumed with confidence as a fact: but the mode of it we do not understand, nor pretend to explain; and therefore are not bound to obviate the difficulties that attend any of the suppositions which have been made concerning it. The phenomena of the nervous system occur commonly in the following order. The impulse of external bodies acts upon the sentient extremities of the nerves; and this gives occasion to perception, or thought, which, as first arising in the mind, is termed sensation. sensation, according to its various modification, gives occasion to volition, or the willing of certain ends to be obtained by the motion of certain parts of the body; and this volition gives cccasion to the contraction of muscular fibres, by which the motion of the part required is produced. As the impulse of bodies on the sentient extremities of a nerve does not occasion any sensation, unless the nerve between the sentient extremity and the brain be free; and as, in like manner, volition does not produce any contraction of muscles, unless the nerve between the brain and muscle be also free, it is concluded, from both these facts, that sensation and volition, so far as they are connected with corporeal motions, are functions of the brain alone; and it is presumed, that sensation arises only in consequence of external impulse producing motion in the sentient extremities of the nerves, and of that motion's being thence propagated along the nerves to the brain; and, in like manner, that the will operating in the brain only, by a motion begun there, and propagated along the nerves, produces the contraction of muscles. From what is now said, we perceive more distinctly the different functions of the several parts of the nervous system, as distinguished in, 1. The sentient extremities seem to be particularly fitted to receive the impressions of external bodies: and, according to the difference of these impressions, and of the condition of the scntient extremity itself, to propagate along the nerves motions of a determined kind, which, communicated to the brain, give occasion to sensation. 2. The brain seems to be a part fitted for, and susceptible of, those motions, with which sensation, and the whole consequent operations of thought, are connected: and thereby is fitted to form a communication between the motions excited in the sentient, and those in consequence arising in the moving extremities of the nerves, which are often remote and distant from each other. 3. The moving extremities are so framed as to be capable of contraction, and of having this contraction excited by motion propagated from the brain, and communicated to the contractile fibre. 4. The nerves, more strictly so called, are to

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be considered as a collection of medullary fibres, each enveloped in its proper membrane, and thereby so separated from every other, as hardly to admit of any communication of motion from any one to the others, and to admit only of motion along the continuous medullary substance of the same fibre, from its origin to the extremities, or contrarywise. From this view of the parts of the nervous system, of their several functions and communication with each other, it appears, that the beginning of motion in the animal economy is generally connected with sensation: and that the ultimate effects of such motion are chiefly actions depending immediately upon the contraction of moving fibres, between which and the sentient extremities the communication is by means of the brain.

NERVEA SPONGIOSA. The cavernous

part of the penis.

NERVI INTERCOSTALES INNOMINATI. The

fish pair of nerves.

NERVINES. (Nervina, sc. medicamenta, from nervus.) Neurotics. Medicines that relieve disorders of the nerves. They are all the antispasmodics, and the various pre-parations of bark and iron.

NERVORUM RESOLUTIO. A species of

apoplexy or palsy.

NERVOSUM OS. The occipital bone. Nervous consumption. See Atrophia. Nervous diseases. See Neuroses. Nervous Fever. See Febris nervosa. Nervous head ache. See Cephalalgia.

NERVOUS FLUID. Nervous principle. The vascularity of the cortical part of the brain, and of the nerves themselves, their softness, pulpiness, and natural humid appearance, give reason to believe that between the medullary particles of which they are principally composed, a fine fluid is constantly secreted, which may be fitted to receive and transmit, even more readily than other fluids do, all impressions which are made on it. It appears to exhale from the extremities of the nerves. The lassitude and debility of muscles from too great exercise, and the dulness of the sensorial organs from excessive use, would seem to prove this It has no smell nor taste; for the cerebrine medulla is insipid and inodo-Nor has it any colour, for the cerebrum and nerves are white. It is of so subtile a consistence, as never to have been detected. Its mobility is stupendous, for in less than a moment, with the consent of the mind, it is conveyed from the cerebrum to the muscles, like the electric matter. Whether the nervous fluid be carried from the organ of sense in the sensorial nerves to the cerebrum, and from thence in the motory nerves to the muscles, cannot be positively affirmed, but may be proved The constitu ent principles of this liquid are perfectly unknown, as they cannot be rendered visible by art, or proved by experiment. Upon

making a ligature upon a nerve, the motion of the fluid is interrupted, which proves that something corporeal flows through it. It is therefore a weak argument to deny its existence because we cannot see it; for who has seen the matter of heat, oxygen, azot, and other elementary bodies, the existence of which no physician in the prc-The electric matter, sent day doubts? whose action on the nerves is very great, does not appear to constitute the nervous fluid: for nerves exhibit no signs of spontaneous electricity; nor can it be the magnetic matter, as the experiment of Gavian with the magnet demonstrates; nor is it oxygen, nor hydrogen, nor azot; for the first very much irritates the nerves, and the other two suspend their action. The nervous fluid, therefore, is an element sui generis, which exists and is produced in the nerves only; hence, like other elements, it is a thing unknown, and only to be known by its effects. The pulpous softness of some nerves, and their lax situation, does not allow them and the brain to act on the body and soul only by oscillation. Lastly, a tense chord, although tied, oscillates. The use of the nervous fluid is, 1. It appears to be an intermediate substance between the body and the soul, by means of which the latter thinks, perceives, and moves the muscles subservient to the will. Hence the body acts upon the soul, and the soul upon the body. 2. It appears to differ from the vital principle; for parts live and are irritable which want nerves, as bones, tendons, plants, and insects.

NESTIS. (From vn, neg. and ετθιω, to eat; so called because it is generally found

empty.) The jejunum.

Nettle, common. See Urtica. Nettle, dead. See Lamium album. Nettle-rash. See Urticaria.

NEUROCHONDRODES. (From veugev, a sinew, and xovogos, a cartilage.) A hard substance between a sinew and a cartilage.

NEUROLOGY. (From veugov, a nerve, and Asyos, a discourse.) The doctrine of the nerves.

NEUROMETORES. (From veugov, a nerve, and merga, a matrix.) The psoas muscles are so called by Fallopius, as being the re-

pository of so many small nerves.

NEUROSES. (From veuger, a nerve.) Nervous diseases. The second class of Cullen's nosology is so called; it comprehends affections of sense and motion, disturbed; without either idiopathic pyrexia, or topical diseases.

(From veuger, a nerve.) NEUROTICA.

Nervous medicines.

NEUROTOMY. (Neurotomia, from veugev, a nerve, and τεμνω, to cut.) A dissection of the nerves. Also a puncture of a nerve.

NEUTRAL SALTS. Secondary salts. Under the name of neutral or secondary ralts are comprehended such matters as are composed of two primitive saline substances combined together. They are called neutral, because they do not possess the characters of acid nor alkaline salts, which are primitive salts; such are Epsom salts, alum, nitre, &c.

NEXUS. (From necto, wind.) A complication of substances in one part, as the membrane which involves the fœtus.

NICKEL. It is to Cronstedt that we are indebted for the discovery of this metal; though the substance from which he extracted it was known in the year 1694. Cronstedt proved it to be a peculiar metal Nickel is found in nain the year 1751. ture generally in the metallic state, more rarely in that of an oxyd. Its ores have a coppery red colour, generally covered more or less with a greenish grey efflorescence. The most abundant ore is that termed sulphuret of nickel, or kupfernickel, which is a compound of nickel, arsenic, sulphuret of iron, and sometimes cobalt and copper. This ore occurs either massive, or disseminated, but never crystallized; it is of a copper colour, sometimes yellowish, white, or grey. It exists also combined with oxvgen, and a little carbonic acid, in what is called native oxyd of nickel, (nickel ochre;) it then has an carthy appearance, and is very friable; it is found coating kupfernickel, and seems to originate from the decomposition of this ore. It is found contaminated with iron in the mineral substance called martial nickel; this native combination, when fresh broken, has a lamellated texture; when exposed to the air, it soon turns black, and sometimes exhibits thin rhomboidal plates placed irregularly over each other. It is also found united to arsenic, cobalt, and alumine in the ore, called arseniate of nickel.

Properties.-Nickel, when free from heterogeneous substances, is of a pale flesh colour When fresh broken it has a strong lustre. It has a fine-grained com-pact texture, and can be a little flattened by hammering, similar to cast iron. leaves a trace when rubbed upon the polished surface of a hard stone. Its specific gravity is 7.380. It requires a very in-tense heat for fusion. When exposed for a long time to a humid atmosphere, its surface becomes gradually covered with an oxyd of a greenish hue; this takes place likewise and more rapidly, when heated in contact with air. When fused with borax it produces a glass of a hyacinth colour. It unites with phosphorus by fusion, and forms with it a phosphuret which is very fusible, white, and in brilliant needles. With sulpher it forms, by fusion, a hard vellow mass, with small brilliant facets, Sulphuric acid, assisted by heat, dissolves Nitric acid acts on it more readily. Muriatic acid, when heated on it, likewise

dissolves part of it. Boracic and phosphoric acids seem to have little or no action on nickel. It readily unites with gold, and renders that metal white and brittle likewise fuses with platina, silver, and bismuth. It does not alloy with mercury. It is easily oxydated by the nitrate and the super-oxygenated muriate of potash. It is not magnetic, nor has it the smallest effect upon the magnetic needle. This has been proved by Mr. Chenevix, who has also shown that the magnetism of common nickel is owing to the iron which so obstinately adheres to it. For a portion of iron, so small as not to be detected by the best chemical tests, when combined with nickel. is capable of communicating magnetic properties to the whole mass as strong as if the whole were composed of steel.

Method of obtaining Nickel.—To obtain nickel, the ore is first roasted, in order to free it from sulphur and arsenic; it is then changed into a greenish oxyd. This oxyd is mixed with two or three parts of black flux. The mixture is put into a crucible, and, being covered with decripitated muritate of soda, it is brought to the state of fusion, by the strongest heat of a smith's forge.

When the crucible is broken, there is found at the bottom, under brown, blackish, and sometimes blue scoria, a button of a yellowish white colour, equal in weight to a tenth, a fifth, and even a half, of the ore employed. This metal, however, is still far from being pure.

In order to purify it, the button obtained. is again broken into small pieces, strongly heated, and then digested with its own weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, and distilled to dryncss. The dry mass is dissolved in water, and filtered. This solution, in general, deposits crystals of arsenic, and finally affords da k green crystals of sul-phate of nickel. This sulphate is re-dis-solved in water, and decomposed by carbonate of potash. The precipitate is dis-solved in liquid ammonia; the blue solution leaves a residuum, which is filtered off, and the filtered solution saturated with nitric acid. The nuckel is then precipitated in the form of a grevish green powder, by carbonate of potash. From this oxyd the metallic nickel is obtainable by exposing it to incat, when made into a mass with oil and a little charcoal powder.

The nickel obtained in this manner was, until lately, considered as perfectly pure. It possesses, however, magnetic properties. It is therefore contaminated with iron.

In order to obtain this metal in a state of absolute purity, the following method of Chevenix must be had recourse to:

Take the native sulphuret of nickel, reduce it to powder, and roast it in contact with charcoal powder over a gentle fire. When no more fumes arise, pour thea nitric acid over it, and dissolve it by heat in

a Florence flask. Decant the solution, filter it through bibulous paper, and evaporate it to dryness in a glass basin. Dissolve the nitrate of nickel in a sufficient quantity of distilled water, and decompose it by the addition of the strongest liquid ammonia, taking care to add it in The oxyd of nickel and cobalt will thus be re-dissolved; then let the solution stand undisturbed till a precipitate again ensues. The solution must then be evaporated; it becomes blue during this process, by the precipitation of the co-balt, which should be separated, and the evaporation be then continued to dryness; the residue will be pure oxyd of nickel.

In order to reduce this oxyd to the metallic state, let it be made into a paste with oil, mix it with about three parts of black flux, and put it into a crucible, covering it with borax and muriate of soda, and heat the crucible violently for an hour and a half in a forge, a button will then be ob-

tained, which is pure nickel.

NICOPHORUS. (From vikin, victory, and φερω, to bear, so called because victors

were crowned with it )

NICOTIANA. (From Mr. Nicott, who first brought it into Europe.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class Pentandria. Order Monogy-ufa. 2. The pharmacopæial name of the officinal tobacco. Petum, by the Indians, Hyosciamus Peruvianus. Tabacum. celt. The Virginia tobacco. Nicotiana tabacum of Linnæus :- foliis lanceolato-ovatis sessilibus decurrentibus florentibus acutis, is the plant employed medicinally. It is a very active narcotic and sternutatory. A decoction of the leaves is much esteemed in some diseases of the skin, and is by some said to be a specific against the itch. The fumes and the decoction are employed in obstinate constipations of the bowels, and very frequently with success; it is necessary, however, to caution the practitioner against an effect mostly produced by its exhibition, namely, syncope, with cold sweats; and in some instances death.

NICOTIANA AMERICANA. American or

Virginian tobacco. See Nicotiana.

Tobacco Anglicum. NICOTIANA MINOR. Priapeia. Hyosciamus luteus. English tobacco. This plant, Nicotiana rustica of Linnæus, is much weaker than the Virginian tobacco, the leaves are chiefly used to smoke vermin, though they promise, from their more gentle operation, to be a safer remedy in some cases than the former.

The systematic NICOTIANA RUSTICA. name of the English tobacco. See Nico-

tiana minor.

NICOTIANA TABACUM. The systematic name of the tobacco-plant. See Nicoti-

(Quasi nigrella, from NIGELLAS.

niger, black, so named from its black seed.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Pentagynia. 2. The pharmaco-poial name of the Nigella satira of Linnæus. Devil in a bush, or fennel-flower. It was formerly employed medicinally as an expectorant and deobstruent, but is now deservedly fallen into disuse.

NIGELLA SATIVA. The systematic name of the devil in a bush. See Ni-

(From Nigella, fen-NIGELLASTRUM. nel-flower.) Pscudomelanthium. Lychnis segetum major. Gethago. Nigella offici-Lychnoides segetum. narum. Cockle, a herb resembling the nigella

Night-blindness. See Nyctalopia.

NIGHT-MARE. Incubus. nia gravans. The nervous or indisposed persons are oppressed during sleep with a heavy pressing sensation on the chest, by which respiration is impeded, or the circulation of blood intercepted, to such a degree as to threaten suffocation. Frightful ideas are recollected on waking, which occupied the dreaming mind. Frequent attempts are made to cry out, but often without effect, and the horrors and agitations felt by the patient are inexpressibly frightful. The sensations generally originate in a large quantity of wind, or indigestible matter in the stomach of suppereaters, which, pressing the stomach against the diaphragm, impede respiration, or render it short and convulsed. Inflated intestines may likewise produce similar effects, or mental perturbations.

There is another species of night-mare mentioned by authors, which has a more dangerous tendency; and this arises from an impeded circulation of blood in the lungs, when lying down, or too great re-laxation of the heart and its impelling Epilepsy, apoplexy, or sudden powers. death, are sometimes amongst the consequences of this species of disturbed sleep. Polypi in the large vessels, aneurisms, water in the thorax, pericardium, or lungs, empyema, &c. are amongst the most dangerous causes. See Oncirodynia.

Nightshade, American. See Phytolacca

decandria.

Nightshade, deadly. See Belladonna. Nightshade, garden. See Solanum. Nightshade, Palestine. See Solanum

Nightshade, woody See Dulcamara.

NIGHITIES. (From niger, black.) A caries is called nigrities ossium, a blackness of the bone.

NIHILUM ALBUM. A name formerly given to the flowers, or oxyd of zinc.

'NINSI RADIX. Ninzin. Nindsin. root was long supposed to be the same as ginseng. It now appears, however, to be the produce of a different plant, the siun minsi of Linnaus, foliis serratis, pinnatis; ramis ternatis, possessing similar though weaker properties than ginseng.

NINZIN. See Ninsi radix.

NIPPLE. The small projecting portion in the middle of the breasts of men and women. It is much larger in the latter, and has an opening in it, the exeretory ducts of the lacteal glands.

Nipple-wort. Sce Lampsana.

NITRAS. (From nitrum, nitre.) nitrate; a salt formed by the union of the nitric acid and a different bases, as the nitrate of potash, soda, silver, &c.

NITRAS AMMONIE. Alkali volatile nitratum. Sal ammoniacus nitrosus. Ammonia nitrata. A salt composed of the acid of nitre and ammonia, the virtues of which are irritating, diuretie, and deobstrucnt; externally, it is resolvent and sialagogue.

NITRAS ARGENTI. Causticum lunare. Argentum nitratum. "Take of silver an ounce, nitric acid, a fluid-ounce and a half, distilled water, two fluid-ounces." Mix the nitric acid and water, and dissolve the silver therein on a sand bath; then inerease the heat gradually, that the nitrate of silver may be dried Melt the salt in a crueible over a slow fire until, the water being evaporated, it shall cease to boil; then pour it quickly into moulds of convenient shape. Its virtues are corrosive and astringent. Internally it is exhibited in very small quantities, in epilepsy; and externally it is employed to destroy fungous exerescences, callous ulcers, fistulas, &c. In the latter disease it is employed as an injection: from two grains to three being dissolved in an ounce of distilled water.

NITRAS POTASSÆ. See Nitre.

NITRAS POTASSE FUSUS. Sal prunclla. Aitrum tabulatum. This salt, besides the nitric acid and potash, contains a little sulphurie acid.

Alkali minerale nitra-NITRAS SODE. tum. Nitrum cubicum. Its virtues are similar to those of nitrate of potash, for which it may be safely substituted.

Nitrate of potash. Sec Nitre. Nitrate of silver. Sec Nitras argenti. NITRE, vilgov. Nitrum. Potassæ nitras. Salpetræ. Aldurat. Algali. Atac. Baurack. Acusto. Halinitrum. Salt petre. A perfeet neutral salt, formed by the union of the nitrous acid with the vegetable alkali. Its taste is cooling, and it does not alter the colour of the syrup of violets. Nitre exists in large quantities in the earth, and is continually formed in inhabited places; it is found in great quantities upon walls which are sheltered from the rain. It is of great use in the arts; it is the principal ingredient in gunpowder; and, burned with different proportions of tartar, forms the substances called fluxes. It is of considerable importance in medicine, as a febrifuge, diuretic, and antiphlogistic remedy.

NITRIC ACID. Acidum nitrieum. The London College direct this acid to be made by distilling equal parts, by weight, of dried nitrate of potash and sulphuric acid, two pounds of each. Mix them in a glass retort, then distil the nitric acid in a sand bath, until a red vapour arises; lastly, having added to the acid first distilled an ounce more of dry nitrate of potash, distil the nitric acid again in a similar

The specific gravity of nitrie acid is to that of water, as 1 600 to 1,000. An ounce diluted with water ought to dissolve of a lump of lime-stone immersed therein seven

drachms.

This acid undiluted is a powerful caustic, and is sometimes employed as such by surgeons to destroy fungous excrescencies. Very much diluted it is exhibited internally as a tonic and antisceptic, in the cure of typhoid fevers, scurvy, syphiloid diseases, and other cachexies.

Nitric-oxyd of mercury. See Nitrico-oxydum hydrargyri.

NITRICO-OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI. Hydrargirus nitratus ruber. Mercurius corrosivus ruber. Mercurius præcipitatus corrosivus. Nitrie-oxyd of mercury. Red precipitate. "Take of purified mercury, by weight, three pounds :- of nitrie acid, by weight, a pound and a half:—of distilled water, two pints." Mix in a glass vessel, and boil the mixture in a sand bath, until the mercury being dissolved, the water also evaporated, and a white mass remain. Rub this into powder, and put it into another shallow vessel, then apply a moderate heat, and raise the fire gradually until the red vapour shall cease to rise." This preparation is very extensively employed by surgeons as a stimulant and escharotic, but its extraordinary activity does not allow of its being given internally. Finely levigated and inixed with common cerates, it is an excellent application to indolent ulcers, especially those which remain after burns and scalds, and those in which the granulations are indolent and flabby. It is also an excellent caustie application to chancres.

NITROGEN. (From vilgov, nitre, and gropeas, to generate; so called because it is the generator of nitre.) Azote. Alkaligen. A simple body, very abundant in nature, though not producible alone, or in an insulated state. It is not distinctly perceptible to the human senses, however aided by instruments. We know it only in its combination. But the reality of its existence is unquestionable; since we can mark its passage out of one combination into another: since we know the laws of chemical attraction to which it is subject; since we discern the precise character of those simple substances with which it is combinable, and can distinguish the nature of the new compounds which the combination pro-

duces. The separate existence and fieculiar nature of this substance were first discovered by Dr. Rutherford. It is the radical principle of our atmospheric air, and other gazeous substances, and forms a constituent part of animal and vegetable sub-It is a component part of the nitric acid, and of ammonia. It proba-bly enters into the formation of alkalies, and it may be considered as a real alcaligen or alkalizing principle, in opposition to oxygen, which, as we have noticed be-fore, is the principle of acidity. One of the most remarkable combinations, into which nitrogen is known to enter, is that which takes place between it and light and caloric. The compound thus produced is called

NITROGEN GAS.

Phlogisticated air. Azotic gas. Mephitic air. Mofette.

Properties .- Nitrogen gas, or azotic gas, as it is also called, is not possessed of any remarkable property capable of characterizing it; but is principally distinguished by certain negative qualities, namely, it is extremely hurtful to respiration, and quickly kills animals. Plants thrive and even flourish in it. It has no sensible taste. It neither reddens blue vegetable colours, nor precipitates lime, or barytic water. Its weight is to common air, as .985. to 1.000 No combustible substance burns in nitrogen gas; but it is capable of combustion in combination with oxygen gas, when exposed to the action of the electric spark. It is not absorbable by water. It is capable of dissolving sulphur, phosphorus and charcoal, in minute quantities. It unites to hydrogen under certain conditions, and constitutes with it ammonia. When united to oxygen in different proportions, it produces atmospheric air, gazeous oxyd of azote or nitrogen, nitrous gas, nitrous acid and nitric acid. It is a component part of all animal substances, and communicates to them their most distinctive characters. was discovered by Dr. Rutherford of Edin-

Nitrogen gas has been found by Priestley in the Bath waters, and by Dr. Pearson in

the Buxton waters.

Methods of obtaining Autrogen Gas .-Nitrogen gas may be obtained by various means. For instance, it has been long since ascertained that air, which has served the purposes of combustion and respiration, is no longer proper for these uses. Chymists have availed themselves of this circumstance, in order to obtain nitrogen gas in the following manner.

1 Make a quantity of sulphuret of potash or sulphuret of iron into a paste with water, and place the mixture in a saucer or plate over water, on a stand raised above the fluid; then invert over it a jar or bellglass, and allow this to stand for a day or The air contained in the bell glass will gradually diminish, as will appear from the ascent of the water, until only about three-fourths of its original bulk remain.

When no further diminution takes place, the vessel containing the sulphuret must be removed, and the remaining air will be

found to be nitrogen gas.

In this experiment the moistened sulphuret of potash has a great affinity to oxygen. it attracts and separates it from the atmospheric air, and the nitrogen gas is left behind; the sulphur is, during the experiment, converted into sulphuric acid, which unites to the alkali and forms sulphate of potash. The water with which the sulphuret is moistened likewise undergoes a decomposition, as shall be more fully proved in an-

other place.

2. Nitrogen gas may likewise be obtained from fresh animal substances. this purpose cut a piece of lean muscular flesh into small pieces, introduce them into a retort, and pour over them weak nitric acid. If the heat of a lamp not exceeding 80° Fahr. be then gently applied, the gas will be speedily obtained; for all animal substances are composed of nitrogen, carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen; and on adding nitric acid in this way, the equilibrium of the respective affinities is destroyed, the nitrogen gas becoming separated.

That the nitric acid does not furnish the nitrogen gas is obvious, from its saturating after its action as large a quantity of alkali as before, consequently it could not have

suffered any alteration

The fibrous part of animal matter is that which affords the most nitrogen gas; next to this all the concretive parts, such as the clot of blood; next to that, albuminous matter, such as the serum and the white of eggs; gelatinous substances afford the least

3. Nitrogen gas may likewise be obtained, by causing oxygenated muriatic acid gas to be received in a vessel containing liquid ammonia, for ammonia consists of livdrogen and nitrogen. The hidrogen of the ammonia unites to the oxygen of the oxygenated muriatic acid, and forms water, heat is evolved, the nitrogen becomes free, and the oxygenated muriatic acid becomes converted into simple muriatic acid.

Nitrogen gaz. See Azot. NITROGEN, GAZEOUS OXYD OF. This combination of nitrogen and oxygenwas formerly called the dephlogisticated nitrous gaz, but now gazeous oxyd of nitrogen, or nitrous oxyd. It was first discovered by Priestley. Its nature and properties have since been investigated (though not very accurately) by a society of Dutch chymists.

Professor Davy has examined with uncommon accuracy the formation and properties of all the substances concerned in its production. He has detected the sources of error in the experiments of Priestley and the Dutch chemists, and to him we are indebted for a thorough knowledge of this gas. We shall therefore exhibit the philosophy of this gazeous fluid as we find it in his researches concerning the nitrous oxid.

Properties —It exists in the form of permanent gas. A candle burns with a brilliant flame and crackling noise in it; before its extinction the white inner flame becomes surrounded with a blue one. Phosphorus introduced into it, in a state of actual inflammation, burns with in-creased splendour, as in oxygen gas. Sulphur introduced into it, when burning with a feeble blue flame is instantly extinguished; but when in a state of vivid inflammation, it burns with a rose-coloured flame. Ignited chareoal burns in it more brilliantly than in atmospheric air. Iron wire, with a small piece of wood affixed to it, when inflamed, and introduced into a vessel filled with this gas, burns vehemently, and throws out bright scintillating sparks. No combustible body however burns in it, unless it be previously brought to a state of vivid inflammation. sulphur may be melted, and even sublimed in it, phosphorus may be liquified in it without undergoing combustion. Nitrous oxid is pretty rapidly absorbed by water that has been boiled; a quantity of gas equal to rather more than half the bulk of the water may be thus made to disappear, the water acquires a sweetish taste, but its other properties do not differ perceptibly from common water. The whole of the gas may be expelled again by heat. does not change blue vegetable colours. has a distinctly sweet taste, and a faint but agreeable odour. It undergoes no diminution when mingled with oxigen or nitrous gas. Most of the liquid inflammable bodies, such as ether, alcohol, volatile and fat oils, absorb it rapidly and in great quantity. Acids exert but little action on it. The affinity of the neutro-saline solutions for gazeous oxid of nitragen is very feeble. Green muriate and green sulpliate of iron, whether holding nitrous gas in solution, or not, do not act upon it None of the gases when mingled with it, suffer any perceptible change at common temperatures; the muriatic and sulphurous acid gases excepted, which undergo a slight expansion. Alkalies freed from carbonic acid, exposed in the dry or solid form, have no action upon it; they may however be made to combine with it in the nascent state, and then constitute saline compounds of a peculiar nature. These combinations deflagrate when heated with charcoal, and are decomposed by acids; the gazeous exid of nitragen being disengaged. It undergoes

no change whatever from the simple effect of light. The action of the electric spark, for a long while continued, converts it into a gas, analogous to atmospherie air and nitrous acid! the same is the case when it is made to pass through an ignited earthen tube. It explodes with hydrogen in a variety of proportions, at very high temperatures; for instance, when electric sparks are mide to pass through the mixture. Sulphureted, heavy and light carbonated hydrogen gases, and gazeous oxid of carbon likewise burn with it when a strong red heat is applied. 100 parts by weight of nitrous oxid, contain 36.7 of oxigen and 63.3 of nitrogen; 100 cubic inches weigh 50 grains at 55° temperature and 30 atmospherie pressure. Animals, when wholly confined in gazeous oxid of nitrogen, give no signs of uneasiness for some moments, but they soon become restless and then die. When gazeous oxid of nitrogen is mingled with atmospherie air, and then received into the lungs, it generates highly pleasurable sensations; the effects it produces on the animal system are eminently distinguished from every other elemical agent. It excites every fibre to action, and rouses the faculties of the mind, inducing a state of great exhiliration, an irresistible propensity to laughter, a rapid flow of vivid ideas, and unusual vigour and fitness for muscular exertions, in some respects resembling those attendant on the pleasantest period of intoxication, without any subsequent languor, depression of the nervous energy, or disagreeble feelings; but more generally followed by vigour, and a pleasurable disposition to exertion, which gradually subsides.

Such are the properties that characterize

the nitrous oxid.

The Dutch chemists and some French and German philosophers assert that it cannot be respired; that burning phosphorus, sulphur, and charcoal are extinguished in it, &c. It is probable they did not examine it in a state of purity, for it is otherwise difficult to account for these and many other erroneous opinions.

Methods of obtaining gazeous oxid of nitrogen.—Gazeous oxid of nitrogen is produced, when substances, having a strong affinity with oxigen are brought into contact with nitric acid, or with nitrous gas. It may therefore be obtained by various processes, in which nitrous gas or nitric acid is decomposed by substances capable of attracting the greater part of their oxigen. The most commodaus and expeditious as well as cheapest mode of obtaining it, is by decomposing nitrate of annuonia, at a certain temperature, in the following manner:—

1. Introduce into a glass retort some pure nitrate of ammonia, and apply the heat of an Argand's lamp, the sait will

3 Z \*

soon liquefy, and, when it begins to boil, gas will be evolved. Increase the heat gradually till the body and neck of the retort become filled with a semi-transparent milky-white vapour. In this state the temperature of the fused nitrate is between 340° and 480°. After the decomposition has proceeded for a few minutes, so that the gas evolved quickly enlarges the flame of a taper held near the orifice of the retort, it may be collected over water, care being taken during the whole process, never to suffer the temperature of the fused nitrate to rise above 500° Fahr. which may easily be judged of, from the density of the vapours in the retort, and from the quiet ebulhtion of the fused nitrate; for if the heat be increased beyond this point, the vapours in the retort acquire a reddish and more transparent appearance; and the fused nitrate begins to rise, and occupy twice the bulk it did before. The nitrous oxid, after its generation, is allowed to stand over water, for at least six hours, and is then fit for respiration or other experiments.

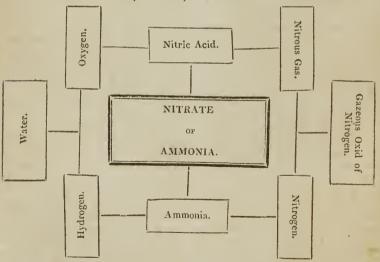
Explanation.—Nitrate of ammonia consists of nitric acid and ammonia; nitric

acid is composed of nitrous gas and oxigen; and ammonia consists of hydrogen and nitrogen. At a temperature of about 480° the attractions of hydrogen for nitrogen in ammonia, and that of nitrous gas for oxigen in nitric acid, are diminished; while, on the contrary, the attractions of the hydrogen of ammonia for the oxigen of the nitric acid, and that of the remaining nitrogen of the ammonia for the nitrous gas of the nitric acid, are increased; hence all the former affinities are broken, and new ones produced, namely, the hydrogen of the ammonia attracts the oxigen of the nitric acid, the result of which is water; the nitrogen of the ammonia combines with the liberated nitrous gas, and forms nitrous oxid. The water and nitrous oxid produced, probably exist in binary combination in the aëriform state, at the temperature of the decomposition.

Such is the philosophy of the production of gazeous oxid of nitrogen, by decomposing nitrate of ammonia at that temperature, given by Davy.

To illustrate this complicated play of affinity more fully, the following sketch may not be deemed superfluous.

A Diagram exhibiting the production of Gazeous Oxid of Nitrogen by decomposing Nitrate of Ammonia, at 480° Fahr.



Professor Davy has likewise pointed out, that, when the heat employed for decomposing nitrate of ammonia is raised above the before-stated temperature, another play of affinities takes place, the attractions of nitrogen and hydrogen for each other, and of oxigen for nitrous gas, are still more diminished, whilst that of ni-

trogen for nitrous gas is totally destroyed, and that of hydrogen for oxigen increased to a greater extent. A new attraction likewise takes place, namely, that of nitrous gas for nitric acid to form nitrous varour, and a new arrangement of principles is rapidly produced: the nitrogen of the ammonia having no affinity for any of the

single principles at this temperature, enters into no binary compound; the oxigen of the nitric acid forms water with the hydrogen, and the nitrous gas combines with the nitric acid to form nitrous vapour.

All these substances most probably exist in combination, at the temperature of their production; and at a lower temperature assume the form of nitrous acid, nitrous gas, nitrogen, and vater; and hence we see the necessity of not heating the nitrate of animonia above the before-stated temperature.

On account of the rapid absorption of gazeous oxid of nitrogen by water, it is economical to preserve the fluid which has been used to confine this gas, and to make use of it for collecting other quantities of it. In order to hasten its production, the nitrate of ammonia may be previously freed from its water of crystallization by gently fusing it in a glass or Wedgewood's basin for a few minutes, and then keeping it for use in a well-stopped bottle.

2. Nitrous oxid may likewise be obtained by exposing common nitrous gas to alkaline sulphites, particularly to sulphite of potash containing its full quantity of water of crystallization. The nitrous oxid produced from nitrous gas by sulphite of potash has all the properties of that generated from the decomposition of nitrate of

The conversion of nitrous gas into nitrous oxid by these bodies, depends on the abstraction of a portion of its oxigen by the greater affinity of the sulphite presented to it. The nitrogen and remaining oxigen assume a more condensed state of existence, and constitute nitrous oxid.

3. Nitrous oxid may also be obtained by mingling together nitrous gas and sulphurated hydrogen gas. The volume of gases in this case is diminished, sulphur deposited, ammonia, water, and nitrous oxid are formed.

The change of principles which takes place in this experiment depends upon the combination of the hydrogen of the sulphurated hydrogen gas, with different portions of the oxigen and nitrogen of the nitrous gas, to form water and ammonia, and to deposit sulphur. The remaining oxigen and nitrogen being left in due proportion constitute nitrous oxid.

Remark.—This singular exertion of attraction by a simple body appears highly improbable a priori; but the formation of animonia, and the non-oxigenation of the sulphur, clucidate the fact. In performing this experiment care should be taken that the gases should be rendered as dry as possible; for the presence of water considerably retards the decomposition.

4. Nitrous oxid may also be produced by presenting alkaline sulphurets to nitrous

gas. Davy observed that a solution of sulphuret of strontia, or barytes, answers this purpose best.

This decomposition of nitrous gas is not spelly produced by the abstraction of oxigen from the nitrous gas, to form sulphuric acid. It depends equally on the decomposition of the sulphurated hydrogen dissolved in the solution or liberated from it. In this process sulphur is deposited and sulphuric acid formed.

5. Nitrous oxid is obtained in many circumstances similar to these in which nitrous gas is produced. Dr. Priestley found that nitrous oxid was evolved, together with nitrous gas, during the solution of iron, tin, and zinc in nitrous acid.

It is difficult to ascertain the exact rationale of these processes, for very complicated agencies of affinities take place. Either the nascent hydrogen arising from the decomposition of the water by the metallic substance may combine with portions of the oxigen and nitrogen of the nitrous gas, and thus by forming water and ainmonia, convert into nitrous oxid; or the metallic substance may attract at the same time oxigen from the water and nitrous gas, whilst the nascent hydrogen of the water seizes upon a portion of the nitrogen of the nitrous gas, to form ammonia. The analogy between this process and the decomposition of nitrous gas by sulphurated hydrogen, render the first opinion most probable.

Such are the principal methods of obtaining nitrous oxid. There are no reasons, Davy thinks, for supposing that nitrous oxid is formed in any of the processes of nature, and the nice equilibrium of affinity by which it is constituted forbids us to hope for the power of composing it from its simple principles. We must be content to produce it artificially.

NITRO-MURIATIC ACID. The compound acid formed by uniting the nitrous and marine acids. It is commonly known by the name of aqua regia. See Oxigenated muriatic acid.

Nitrous acid. See Acidum nitrosum.

NITROUS GAS. The name of nitrous gas is given to an aëriform fluid, consisting of a certain quantity of nitrogen gas and oxigen. It is an elastic, colon less fluid, having no sensible taste; it is neither acid nor alkaline; it is exceedingly hurtful to animals, producing instant suffocation, whenever they attempt to breathe it. The greater number of combustible bodies refuse to burn it. It is nevertheless capable of supporting the combustion of some of these bodies. Phosphorus burns in nitrous gas when introduced into it in a state of inflammation; pyrophorus takes fire in it spontaneously.

It is not decomposable by water, though 100 cubic inches of this fluid, when freed from air, absorb about 11.8 cubic inches of gas. This solution is void of taste; it does not redden blue vegetable colours; the gas is expelled again when the water is made to boil or suffered to freeze. It has no action on nitrogen gas even when assisted by heat. It is decomposed by several metals at high temperatures

Its specific gravity, when perfectly pure, is to that of atmospheric air as 1 093 to 1.

Ardent spirit, saccharine matters, hydrocarbonates, sulphureous acid and phosphorus have no action on it. It is not sensibly changed by the action of light. Heat dilates it. It rapidly combines with oxigen gas at common temperatures, and converts it into nitrous acid. Atmospheric air produces the same effect but with less intensity. It is absorbable by green sulphate, muriate and nitrate of iron, and decomposable by alkaline, terrene, and metallic sulphurets, and other bodies that have a strong affinity for oxigen; but it is not capable of combining with them chemically, so as to form salme compounds the greatest number of bodies which absorb it, it may be again expelled by the application of heat.

It communicates to flame a greenish colour before extinguishing it; when mixed with hydrogen gas it acquires the property of burning with a green flame. It is absorbable by nitric acid and renders it

fuming.

When exposed to the action of caloric in an ignited porcelain tube, it experiences no alteration, but when electric sparks are made to pass through it, it is decomposed and converted into nitrous acid, and nitrogen gas. Phosphorus does not sline in it. It is composed of 56 parts of oxigen and

44 nitrogen.

Methods of obtaining nitrous gas .-1. Put into a small proof, or retort, some copper wire or pieces of the same metal, and pour on it nitric acid of commerce diluted with water, an effervescence takes place and nitrous gas will be produced. After having suffered the gas to escape for a few minutes on account of the atmospheric air contained in the retort, collect the gas in the water-apparatus as usual. order to obtain the gas in a pure state, it must then be shook for some time in contact with water. The water in this instance suffers no alteration, on the contrary, the acid undergoes a partial decomposition; the metal robs the nitric acid of the greatest part of its oxigen and becomes oxidated; the remainder of the acid having lost so much of its oxigen, becomes thereby so altered, that at the usual temperature it can exist no longer in the liquid state, but instantly expands and assumes the form of gas; ceasing at the same time to act as an acid, and exhibiting different properties.

Instead of presenting copper to nitrie acid, iron, zinc, mercury, or silver may be made use of. The metals best suited for the production of nitrous gas are silver, mercury, and copper.

2. Nitrous gas may likewise be obtained by synthesis. This method of obtaining it we owe to Dr. Milner of Cambridge.

Into the middle of an earthen tube about 20 inches long and three-fourth wide, open at both ends, put as much coarsely-powdered manganese as is sufficient acarly to lill it. Let this tube traverse a furnace having two openings opposite to each other. To one end of the tube lute a retort containing water strongly impregnated with ammonia, and to the other adapt a bent glass tube which passes into the pneumatic trough. Let a fire be kindled in the furnace, and when the manganese may be supposed to be red-hot, apply a gentle heat to the retort and drive over it the vapour of the ammonia; the consequence will be that nitrous gas will be dclivered at one end of the tube, at the time that the ammonia enters the other end; and this effect does not take place without the presence of the alkali.

Explanation.—Ammonia consists of hydrogen and nitrogen, its hydrogen combines with the oxigen which is given out by the ignited manganese, and forms water, its nitrogen unites at the same time to another portion of the oxigen, and constitutes the

nitrous gas.

There is a cause of deception in this experiment, against which the operator ought to be on his guard, lest he should conclude no nitrous gas is formed, when in reality there is a considerable quantity. ammonia, notwithstanding every precaution, will frequently pass over undecomposed. If the receiver in the pneumatic trough is filled with water, great part of this will indeed be presently absorbed; but still some portion of it will mix with the nitrous gas formed in the process. Upon admitting the atmospheric air, the nitrous gas will become decomposed, and the red nitrous fumes instantly unite with the alkali. The receiver is presently filled with white clouds of nitrate of ammonia: and in this manner a wrong conclusion may easily be drawn from the want of the orange colour of the nitrous fumes. A considerable quantity of nitrous gas may have been formed, and yet no orange colour appear, owing to this circumstance; and therefore it is easy to understand how small a quantity of nitrous gas may be most effectually disguised by the same

Dr. Milner also obtained nitrous gas, by passing ammoniacal gas over sulphate of iron deprived of its water of crystallization Water impregnated with this gas forms NITROUS ACID.

The common mode of obtaining nitrous acid is to decompose nitrate of potash by means of sulphuric acid with the assistance of heat. The nitrie acid suffers a partial decomposition during the pro-cess, and hence it is the nitrous acid which is obtained in the first process of dis-

It seems to be true that nitrous acid of a much darker orange red colour is obtained by decomposing nitrate of potash by means of sulphate of iron, than when the same salt is decomposed by sulphuric acid. The following is the process made use of

by our manufacturers.

Take a quantity of sulphate of iron, deprived of its water of crystallization by heat, and mix it with an equal weight of dry nitrate of potash; put the mixture into a glass retort, to which a very spacious receiver has been luted, containing a little water, and begin the distillation with a very slow fire. As soon as the red vapours cease to come over, let the fire be slackened, and when the vessels are cooled, the receiver may be cautiously withdrawn, and its contents quickly transferred through a glass funnel iuto a bottle, furnished with a ground stopper.

NITROUS OXID. See Nitrogen, gazeous

oxid of.

NITRUM. See Natron and nitre.

NITRUM PURIFICATUM. See Nitre.

NITRUM VITRIOLATUM. Sulphuric acid and soda. See Sulphate of soda.

Noullis. (Quase noscibilis, from nosco, to know.) The heart, by way of eminence, is called nobilis valvula, the noble

Noule METALS. A name formerly bestowed on the perfect metals, gold, silver,

and platina.

NOCTAMBULATIO. (From nox, night, and ambulo, to walk.) Noctisurguim. Walking in the night, when asleep. See Oneiro-

NOCTISURGUIM. See Noctambulatio.

Nocturnal emissions. See Gonorrhaa dormientium.

Nonning onicus. The systematic name of this plant is Cnicus cernuus of Linnaus. In Siberia the tender stalks are first peeled and then boiled and eaten by the inhabit-

NODE. Nodus. A hard circumscribed tumour, proceeding from a bone, and caused by a swelling of the periosteum; they appear on every part of the body, but are more common on such as are thinly covered with muscles, as the os frontis, forepart of the tibia, radius and ulna. As they inerease in size they become more painful

from the distention they oceasion in the periosteum. When they continue long the bone becomes completely earous.

Norus. (From Anad, to tie, Heb.) A node or swelling upon a bone. See

NOLI ME TANGERE. A species of herpes affecting the skin and cartilages of the nose, very difficult to cure, because it is exasperated by most applications. disease generally commences with small, superficial spreading ulcerations on the alæ of the nose, which become more or less concealed beneath furfuraceous scabs. The whole nose is frequently destroyed by the progressive ravages of this peculiar disorder, which sometimes cannot be stopped or retarded by any treatment, external or internal.

NOMÆ. (From yepo, to eat.) Noma. Ulcers that sometimes attack the cheek or vulva of young girls. They appear in the form of red and somewhat livid spots; are not attended with pyrexia, pain, or tumour, and in a few days become gangre-

nous.

NON-NATURALS. Under this term, ancient physicians comprehend air, meat and drink, sleep and watching, motion and rest, the retentions and excretions, and the affections of the mind; or, in other words, those principal matters which do not enter into the composition of the body, but at the same time are necessary to its existence.

Nonus. (Quasi novenus, from novem, nine.) Humeri musculus placentini. The ninth or coracoid muscle of the shoulder.

NOPAL. Nopalnochetzth. The plant that

feeds the cochineal insect.

NORLANDICE BACCE. The fruit of the rubus arcticus of Linnæus, which this illustrious character found very grateful and refreshing in his tour through the northern part of Sweden. In putrid fever, exanthematous diseases, and scurvy, they promise to be, like other summer fruits, very serviceable.

NOSE. Nasus. See Nares.

Nose, bleeding of. See Epistaxis.

Nosocomium. (From vovos, a disease, and xomen, to take care of.) Nosodychium. An hospital.

Nosobochium. See Nosocomium.

NOSOLOGY. (Nosologia, from voros, a disease, and xoyos, a discourse.) The doctrine of the names of diseases. Modern physicians understand by nosology the arrangement of diseases in classes, genera, species, &c. The following are the approved arrangements of the several nosologists. That of Dr. Cullen is generally adopted in this country, and next to it the arrangement of Sauvage.

Synoptical View of the Class	es, Orders, and Genera, accor	ding to the Cullenian syst
	CLASS I.—PYREXIÆ.	
ORDER I. FEBRES.	13. Peritonitis	27. Rubeola
§ 1. Intermittentes.	14. Gastritis	28. Scarlatina
1. Tertiana	15. Enteritis	29. Pestis
2. Quartana	16. Hepatitis	30. Erysipelas
3. Quotidiana.	17. Splenitis	31. Miliaria
§ 2. Continua.	18. Nephritis	32. Urticaria
4. Synocha	19. Cystisis	33. Pemphigus
5. Typhus	20. Hysteritis	34. Aphtha.
6. Synochus.	21. Rheumatismus	ORDER IV.
ORDER II.	22. Odontalgia	HÆMORRHAGIÆ.
PHLEGMASIÆ.	23. Podagra	35. Epistaxis
7. Phlogosis	24. Arthroposis.	36. Hæmoptysis
8. Opthalmia	ORDER III.	37 Hæmorrhois
9. Phrenitis	EXANTHEMATA.	38. Menorrhagia
10. Cynanche	25. Variola	39. Catarrhus
11. Pneumonia	26 Varicella	40. Dysenteria.
12. Carditis.		
	CLASS II.—NEUROSES.	
ORDER I. COMATA.	48. Trismus	59. Cholera
41. Apoplexia	49. Convulsio	60. Diarrhœa
42. Paralysis.	50. Chorea	61. Diabetes
ORDER II.	51. Raphania	62. Hysteria
ADYNAMIÆ.	52. Epilepsia	63. Hydrophobia.
43. Syncope	53. Palpitatio	ORDER IV.
44. Dyspepsia	54. Asthmal	VESANIÆ.
45. Hypochondriasis	55. Dyspnœa	64. Amentia
46. Chlorosis.	56. Pertussis	65. Melancholia
ORDER III. SPASMI.	57. Pyrosis	66. Mania
47. Tetanus	58 Cholica	67. Oneirodynia.
	CLASS III.—CACHEXIÆ	
ORDER I.	73. Physometra	82. Rachitis.
MARCORES.	§ 3. Aquosæ.	ORDER III.
68. Tabes	74. Anasarca	IMPETIGINES.
69. Atrophia	75. Hydrocephalus	83. Scrophula
ORDER II.	76. Hydrorachitis	84. Syphilis
INTUMESCENTIÆ.	77. Hydrothorax	85. Scorbutus *
§ 1. Adiposæ.	78. Ascites	86. Elephantiasis
70. Polysarcia.	79. Hydrometra	87. Lepra
§ 2. Flatuosæ.	30. Hydrocele.	88. Frambæsia
71. Pneumatosis,	§ 4. Solide.	89. Tricoma
72. Tympanites	81. Physconia	90. Icterus.
	CLASS IV.—LOCALES.	
ORDER I.	§ 2. Appetitus dificientes.	121. Gonorrhæa.
DYSÆSTHESIÆ.	106. Anorexia	ORDER V.
91. Caligo	107. Adipsia	EPISCHESES
92. Amaurosis	103. Anaphrodisia	122. Obstipatio
93. Dysopia	ORDER III.	123. Ischuria
94. Pseudoblepsis	DYSCINESIÆ.	124. Dysuria
95. Dysecoea	109. Aplionia	125. Dyspermatismus
96. Paracusis	110. Mutitas	126. Amenorrhæa.
97. Anosmia	111. Paraphonia	ORDER VI.
98. Agheustia	112. Psellismus	TUMORES.
99. Anæsthesia.	113. Strabismus	127. Aneurisma
ORDER II.	114. Dysphagia	128. Varix
DYSOREXIÆ.	115. Contractura	129. Ecchymoma
§ 1. Appetitus erronei.	ORDER IV.	130. Schirrus
100. Bulimia	APOCENOSĖS.	131. Cancer .
101. Polydipsia	116. Profusio	132. Bubo
102. Pica	117. Ephidrosis	133. Sarcoma
103. Satyriasis	118. Epiphora	134. Veruca
104. Nymphomania	119. Ptyalismus	135. Clavus
105. Nostalgia	120. Eneuresis	136. Lupia

## NOSOLOGY.

137. Ganglian 146. Herpes 142. Prolapsus 138. Hydatis 147. Tinea 148. Psora 143. Luxatio ORDER VIII. 139. Hydarthrus 149. Fractura DIALYSES. 140. Exostosis. 150. Caries ORDER VII. 144. Vulnus ECTOPIÆ. 145. Ulcus

141. Hernia

25. Verruca

99. Essera ·

## Synoptical View of the System of SAUVAGES.

CLASS I.-VITIA. 51. Epiplocele ORDER I. MACULÆ. 26. Pterygium Genus 1. Leuconia 27 Hordeolum 52. Gasterocele 2. Vitiligo 28. Bronchocele 53. Hepatocele 3 Ephelis 29 Exostosis 54. Splenoccle 4. Gutta rosea 30. Gibbositas 55. Hysterocele 5. Nævus 31. Lordosis. 56. Cystocele 6. Eccliymoma. 57. Encephalocele ORDER V. ORDER II. CYSTIDES. 58. Hysteroloxia EFFLORESCENTIÆ. 32. Aneurisma 59. Parochydium 33. Varix 7. Herpes 60. Exarthrema 34. Hydatis 61. Diastasis 8. Epinictis 9. Psydracia 35. Marisca 62. Laxarthrus. 36. Staphyloma ORDER VII 10. Hydroa. 37. Lupia PLAGAE. ORDER III. PHYMATA. 38. Hydrarthus 63. Vulnus 11. Erythema 64. Punctura 12 Œdema 39. Apostema 65. Excoriatio 40. Exomphalus 13. Emphysema 41. Oscheocele 66. Contusio 14. Schirrus ORDER VI. 67. Fractura 15. Phlegmone 68. Fissura 16. Bubo ECTOPIAE. 17. Parotis 42 Exophthalmia 69. Ruptura 18. Furunculus 43. Blepharoptosis 70. Amputatura 71. Ulcus 19. Anthrax 44. Hypostophyle 72. Exulceratio 20. Cancer 45. Paraglossa. 73. Sinus 21. Paronichia ORDER VI. 22. Phymosis. ECTOPIAE. 74. Fistula 75. Rhagus ORDER IV. 46. Proptoma EXCRESCENTIAE. 47. Exania 76. Eschara 23. Sarcoma 48. Exocyste 77. Caries 24. Condyloma 49. Hysteroptosis 78. Arthrocace.

CLASS II.—FEBRES.

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50. Euterocele

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91 Catarrhexis	106 Puorrhæa	122. Galactia
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	Frigus			Hippos			Palpitatio	
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	Rigor		201.	Cinclesis		215.	Ructus	
188.	Epidepsia		202	Cataclasis		216.	Ruminatio	
189	Heclampsia		203.	Cillosis			Oesophagismus	
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	Prosis		256	Rhenophonia		277.	Dyspepsia	
	Amblyopia		257.	Mutitas		208.	Diaphthora	
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238.	Amaurosis		259.	Ps Hotis		280.	Anatripe	
	Cataracta			Ischophonia			Adypsia	
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305.	Chlorosis			Ascites		320	Elephantia	
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336. Stupiditas	338. Oblivio	340. Hypnobatasis
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342. Blepharotis	402. Flytrocele	457. St.gma
343 Ery-ipelas	403 Hypogastrocele 404 Cystocele	458. Vibex
344. Hieropyr	404 Cystocele	459. Vitiligo
345. Paronychia	405. Cyrtoma	460. Leuce
346. O ychia	406. Hydrenterocele	461. Cyasma
347. Encausis	407. Varix	462. Lichen
348 Phimosis	408. Eneurisma	463. Setina
349 Paraphimosis	409. Cirsocele	464. Nebula
350. Pernio	410. Gistrocele	Order VI.
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351. Pregmone	413. Hystcrocele	466. Ruptura
352 Furunculus	414 Hygrocirsocele	467 Rhagas
353. Anthrax	415. Sarcocele	408 Fractura
354. Abscessus	416. Physcocele	469. Fissura
355. Onyx	417 Exostos s	470. Plicatio
356 Hippopyon	418. Hyp rostosis	471 Thlasis
357. Phygethlon	419. Pæd rthrocace	472. Luxatio
358. Empyema	420 Ency tis	473. Subluxatio
359. Phyma	421. Stapliyloma	474. Diachalasis
360. Ecthymata	422 Staphylosis	475. Attritis
361. Urticaria	42% Fungus	476. Porrigo
362. Parulis	424. Tofus	477. Aposyrma
363. Epulis	425. Flemen	478. Anapleusis
364. Anchylops	ORDER III.	479. Spasma
363 Paraglossa	EXTUBERANTIÆ	480 Contusio
366. Chilon	426 Verruca	481 Diabrosis
367 Scrophula	427 Porrus	482. Agomphiasis
368 Bubon	408 Clavus	483. Eschara
369. Bronchocele	429. Callus	484. Piptonychia
370. Parotis	430. Encenthis	485. Cacoethes
371. Gongrona	431. Ptadarotis	486 Therioma
372. Sparganosis	43? Pinnula	487 Carcinoma
373. Coilima	433. Pierygium	488. Phagedæna
374. Scirchus	434. Hordeolum	489. Noma
375 Cencer	435 Grando	490. Sycosis
376. Sarcoma	436 Varus	491 Fistula
377. Polypus	437. Gurta rosacea	432. Sinus
378 Condyloma	458. Ephelis	493. Caries
379 Ganglion	439. Esoche	494 Achores
380. Ramula	440. Exoche.	4º5 Crusta lactea
381. Terminthus	Orden IV.	496 Favus
382. Oedema	PUSTULÆ and PAPULÆ.	
383. Encephalocele	441 Epinyctis	498. Argemon
384. Hydrocepholum	442. Phlyctæna	499. Ægilops
385. Hydropthalmia	443. Herpes	500. Ozæna
386 Spina bifida	444 Scabies	501. Aphthæ
387. Hydromphalus	445. Aquida	502 Intertrigo
388 Hydrocele	446. Uydroa 447. Variola	503. Rhacosis.
389. Hydr ps scroti	447. Variola	ORDER VII.
390. Steatites	448. Varicella	CONCRETIONES.
391. Pheumatosis	449. Purpura	504. Ancyloblepharon
392. Emphysema	450. Encauma	505. Zynizcsis
393 Hy teroptosis	ORDER V.	506. D.crymoma
394. Cystoptosis	MACULÆ.	507 Ancyloglossum
395. Archoptoma	451. Ecchymoma	508. Ancylosis
396. Bubonocele	452. Percchiæ	509. Cicatrix
397 Oscheocele	453. Morbilli	510. Dastylion.
398. Omphalocele		

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512. Gibber		546 Apella	
513. Caput obstipum	530. Madarosis	547. Hypospadiæos	
514. Strabismus		548. Urorheas	
515. Myopiasis		549. Atreta	
516 Lagophthalmus 517. Trichiasis		550. Saniodes	
518. Ectropium		551. Cripsorchis 552. Hermaphrodites	
519. Entropium		553 Donyfiscus	
520. Rheas	537. Gryposis	554 Artetiscus	
521. Rhyssemata	538. Nævus	555. Nefrendis	
522. Lagocherlos	539. Monstrositas	556 Spanopogon	
523. Metachosteon 524. Hirsuties	540. Polysarcia 541. Ischnotis	557. Hyper retiscus 558. G.hancon	
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526. Distrix	543. V rus	560. Moia.	
527. Xırasia	544. Valgus		
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7. Papula	34. Exostosis.	60. Ischiocele	
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12. Epmyctis	37. Marisca	64. Encephalocele 65. Hysteroloxia	
13 Hemeropathos		66. Parorchydium	
14. Psydracia	39. Staphyloma	67 Exarthrema	
15. Hydroa.	40. Laipia	68. Diastatis	
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21. Bubo 22. Parolis	46. Biepharoptosis	74 Polymerisma	
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24. Anthrax	48. Paraglossa 49. Proptoma	76. Anchylomerisma 77. Hirsuties.	
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79. Punctura		94. Caries	
80. Sclopetoplaga	87. Sutura	95. Arthrocace. ORDER IV.	
81. Morsus	88. Paracentesis.	SOLUTIONES,	
82. Excoriatio	ORDER III.	anomulæ,	
83. Contusio		96. Rhagas.	
84. Ruptura	incruentæ.	97. Ambustio	
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101. Phthisis	115. Ascites	130. Scabies
102. Atrophia	116. Hydrometra	131. Tinea.
103. Hæmatoporia	117 Physometra	Order VI.
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106 Polysarcia	121. Scrophula	135. Chlorosis.
107. Pneumatosis	122 Carcinoma	ORDER VII.
108. Anasarca	123. Leontiasis	ANOMALÆ
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110. Physconia.	125. Framboesia.	137. Trichoma
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143. Ostocopus	155. Ophthalmia	165. Nephralgia
144. Rheumatismus	156. Otalgia	166. Hysteralgia.
145. Catarrhus	157. Odoutalgia.	ORDER V.
146. Anxietas	ORDER III.	EXTERNARUM.
147. Lassitudo	PECTORIS.	167. Mastodynia
148. Stupor	158. Pyrosis.	168. Rachialgia
149. Pruritus	159. Cardiogmus.	169. Lumbago
150. Algor	ORDER IV.	176. I-chias
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NOSTALGIA. (Nosanzia: from vosew, to return, and axyos, pain.) A vehement desire for r visiting one's country. A genus of disease in the class Locales, and order Dysorexiæ of Callen, known by impatience when absent from one's native home, and a vehement desire to return, attended with gloom and melancholy, loss or appetite, and want of sleep.

Normus. (From votos, spurious.) 1. Those ribs which are not attached to the sternum are called not a costa, the spurious ribs.

2. The term is applied to such diseases as resemble others; as peripoeumonia nothu, &c.

Notleus (From vorov, the back.) An epithet of the spinal macrow.

Normones. (From vorte, moisture.) plied to a fever, attended with a vi ia on of the fluids, or a colliquative wasting.

NOUFER'S MEDICINE. This famous remedy was invented by Madam Noufer, as a cure for the tape-worm See Filix

NUH CULA. (Dim. of nubes, a cloud.) A cloud in the urine. A white speck in the eye.

Nuces GALLE. Common gulls. NICES PURGANTES. See Ricimes. Nucreta. See Nun moschata.

The hand part or mape of the NUCHA. neck.

The nutmeg NUCISTA.

NUCLEUS ('E nuce, trom the ant.) A kernel. A fruit cuclosed in a hard shell

Bacc.e bermuden-NUCCLE SAPONARIE. ses. Soup b rres. Bermudas berries. spherical fruit, about the size of a cherry, whose cortical part is yellow, glossy, and so transparent as to shew the sphericle black nut which ratties with n, and which includes a block kernel. It is the produce of the Sapindus saponaria of Linnaus. The

cortical part has a bitter taste, and no smell; it raises a soapy froth with water, and has similar effects with soap in washing, and it is said to be a medicine of singular and specific virtue in chlorosis.

NUMMULAHIA. (From nummus, money; so called because its leaves are round and of the size of he old silver two-pence.) Hirundinaria. Centimorbia. Moneywort. This plant, Lysimachia nummularia of Linnaus, is very common in our ditches. It was formerly accounted vulnerary; it possesses antiscorbu ic and restringent qualities. Boerhaave looks upon it as simil. rato a mixture of scurvy-grass with sorrel.

NUT, COUOA. The fruit of the Cocos nucifera of Lonnaus Within the not is found a kernel, as pleasant as an almond, and also a large quantity of siquor resembling milk, which the Indians greedily drink before the fruit is ripe, it being then pleasant, but when the nut is majured, the liquor becomes sour. Some full-grown nuts will contain a pint or more of this milk, the frequent drinking of which seems to have no bad effects upon the Indians; vet Europeans should be cautious of making too free with it at first, f r when Lionel Wafer was at a small island in the South Sea, where the tree grew in plenty, some of his men were so delighted with it, that at parting they ocre resolved to drink the r fill, which they did; but their appetites had like to have cost them their lives, for though they were not drink, yet they w re so chilled and be unabed, that hey could not stand, and were obliged to be carried abourd by those who had more prudence than themselves, and it was many days before they recovired. shells of these nuts being hard, and capable of receiving a polish, they are often cut transversely, when, being mounted on stands, and having their edges silvered, or gilt, or otherwise ornamented, they serve the purpose of draiking-cups. The leaves of the tree are used for thatching, for brooms, baskets, and other utquisls; and of the reticular web, growing at their base, the Indian women make cauls and aprons.

Nut, Barbadoes See Ricinus major.
Nut, pistachio. See Pistachio nut.
Nut, purging. See Ricinus major.
Nutmeg. See Nux moschata.

NUTRITION. Nutritio. Nutrition may be considered the completion of the assimilating functions. The food changed by a series of decompositions, animalized and rendered similar to the being which it is designed to nourish, applies itself to those organs, the loss of which it is to supply; and this identification of nutritive matter to our organs constitutes nutrition.

The living body is continually losing its constituent parts, which a variety of causes are incessantly carrying off; several of its organs are constantly engaged in separating humours which pass off loaded with a part of its substance, consumed by the uniting action of air and caloric; internal friction,

agitated by a pulsatory motion, detaches

Thus the animal machine is continually destroyed, and at distant periods of life does not contain a single particle of the same constituent parts. An experiment made with madder, (rubia tinctorum,) which, when mixed with the food, reddens the bones of animals, proves in a very decisive manner this perpetual decomposition of living animal matter. Entirely to obliterate the diffused red colour of bones, it is only necessary to suspend for a time the use of this root. Therefore, if the most compact and solid parts be in a continual motion of decomposition and recomposition, there can be no doubt but that this motion must be more rapid in those parts, the constituent principles of which are in the smallest degree of cohesion, as in fluids.

It has been an object of consideration to determine the period of the entire renovation of the body; it has been said that an interval of seven years was necessary for the same particles to be totally obliterated, and their place supplied by others; but this change should seem to be more rapid in infancy and youth; it should also seem to be retarded in manhood, and require a very long time to be accomplished in old age, when all our parts acquire a remarkable degree of con istence and fixity, at the same time that the vital actions become more languid. There is no doubt but that sex, temperature, climate, profession, mode of living, and a variety of other causes, accelerate and retard this period.

so that it is impossible to affirm any thing certain on the precise time of its duration.

In proportion as our parts are destroyed, they are renewed by homogeneous particles, or such as are exactly similar to themselves; otherwise their nature, which is always alike, would suffer continual changes. When the nutritive matter has been animal zed, or arsimilated to the body which it is designed to nourish, by the organs of digestion, absorption, circulation, respiration, and secretion, the parts which it supplies retain and incorporate it with their own substance. This nutritive identification is variously effected in different parts, as the brain, muscles, bones. &c : each of these appropriates to itself, by a true secretion, that which is found analogous to its nature, and rejects the heterogeneous particles brought by different vessels, chiefly by the arteries. A bone is a secretory organ, that becomes incrusted with phosphat of lime; the lymphatic vessels, which in the work of nutrition perform the office of excretory ducts, remove this salt after it has remained a certain time in the areolæ of its texture. It is the same in muscles with respect to the fibrin, and in the brain with albumen, each part im-bibes, and renders solid in its structure, such juices as are of the same nature, in consequence of a power, of which the affinity of aggregation of the chymists gives us an idea, and perhaps furnishes us with an exact model.

A part to acquire nourishment should possess sensibility and motion; a ligature placed on its arteries and nerves, by destroying both these faculties, prevents it from being nourished, or having life. The blood flowing in the veins, and the fluid of the absorbents, contain vivilying and reparatory parts, in much smaller quantity than arterial blood; it is even generally believed that lymph and venous blood do not contain any thing directly nutritious.

The mechanism of nutrition would be explained after having precisely deter-mined the differences of composition that exists between the aliments on which we exist and the exact substance of our organs, if we could distinguish how each function divests them of their characters, to invest them with our properties for each individual part, to co-operate in changing their nutritious principle into our own peculiar structure. To resolve this problem, let us suppose a man living entirely on vegetables, which, in fact, constitute the principal part of the subsistence of the generality of men; whatever portion of the plant he may consume, whether stalk, leaves, flowers, seeds, or roots; carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen enter their composition, which may be always, by a strict analysis, resolved into water and carbonic acid; to these three constituent principles,

sometimes a small quantity of azot, salts, and other things, is united. If we then examine the nature of the organs of this man, whose diet consists exclusively in vegetables, they will be proved of a composition very different from the kind of food; azot predominates, although the vegetable substance contain it in very small quantity, and many new products will be discovered which had not been distinguirhed in the aliment, but which abound in the body receiving nourishe ent, and seem produced by the act of nutrition.

The essential part of this function, therefore, is to cause the nutri ive matter to pass into a more advanced state of composition, to deprive it of a portion of its carbon and hydrogen, to give a predominance of azot, and develop several substances which were not before distinguishable. Every living body, without except on, seems to possess a faculty of forming and decomposing substances, by the assistance of which it is supported, and of giving rise to new products. The marine-plant, the ashes of which form soda, if sown in a box filled with earth that does not contain a particle of that alkah, and moistened with distilled water, furnishes it in as great a quantity as if the plant had been growing on the borders of the sea, in a swampy soil, always inundated by brackish or salt water.

Living bodies are the proper elaboratories in which such combinations and decompositions occur as art cannot imitate; bodies that to us appear sample, as soda and silex seem to form themselves of other parts, while some bodies, the composition of which we cannot determine, as certain metals suffer inevitable decompositions: from which we may fairly conclude, that the powers of nature in the composition and decomposition of bodies, far surpass the science of chymists. For a substance to be employed in our nourishment, it should be capable of change and fermentation, that is, susceptible of experiencing an internal and spontaneous motion, by which its clements change their combination and qualities. This condition of spontaneous mutability, excludes from the class of aliment every thing which is not organized, or constituted part of a living being : thus minerals are absolutely refractory to the action of our organs, which cannot convert them into their own peculiar substance. The common principle dra'n from alimentary substances, however vari-ous they may be, called by Hippocrates the aliment, is probably a composition capalile of a great degree of change and fermentation; this is also the opinion of all those who have endeavoured to discover Lorry thinks it is a mucous rts nature. body; Cullen considers it saccharine;

Hallé believes it to be an hydro-carbonated oxyd, which only differs from the oxalic acid by having a smaller portion of oxygen. It is obvious that these three sentiments have the greatest resemblance, since oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen, united in different proportions, form a mucus, a sac-charine body, and the oxalic base. The analysis of animal substances by nitric acid, reduces it to the latter base, by taking from it a great quantity of azot, the presence of which constitutes its most remark ble character.

Hal é believes that the hydro-carbonated ox d is combined with oxygen, in the stomuch and intestinal canal, whether the la ter principle be introduced with the food into the primæ viæ, or furnished by the decomposed lumours; the intestinal flinds suffer their azot to be disengaged, which is carried to the alimentary base, and replaces the carbon that had been attracted by the oxygen to form the carbonic acid. This gas, when in the lungs, and again subjected to the action of atmospheric oxygen, carries off a certain portion of its carbon; and as it disengages the azot from the venous blood, it effects a new combination of this principle with the chyle; and when propelled to the skin, the atmospheric oxygen again disengages its carbon, and comple es its azotification; perhap even the cutaneous organ answers similar purposes to the lymphatic system, as the pulmonary organ may effect to the sanguiferous system.

The asim lization of alimentary substance, therefore, takes place principally by the loss of carbon, which is replaced by azot in animal fluids These support themselves in a proper state, for, as they are continually losing the carbonic principle in the intestinal, pulmonary, and cutaneous combinations, they would be too much animalized if a newly formed chyle were not to attract the excess of azot. This theory is admitted, by its author, not to account for the formation of pho phoric calts, adeps, and abundance of other productions; but without adopting it in toro, we are induced to conclude, from the experiments and observations on which it is established, that the oxygen of the atmosp' eric ar is one of the most powerful agents employed by nature to convert the aliments on which we subject into our own preuliar substance.

NUTHITUM UNGUENTUM. A composition of litharge, vinegar, and oil.

NUX AR MATICA. The ontineg. NUX AQUATICA. See Tribulus aquaticus

NEX BARBADENSIS. See Ricinus major,

NUX HASILICA The walnut. NUX BEEN. Se Ben.

NUX CATHARTICA. The garden spurge. NUX CATHARTICA AMERICANA. cinus major.

NUX INDICA. The cocoa-nut. NUX JUGLANS. See Juglans, Nux Medica. The maldivian unit.

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Nux Medica. The maldivian unt.
Nux Medica. The nux vomica
Nux Moschata. Nucista. Nux myristica. Chrysobalanus Galeni. Unguentaria Assala. Nux aromatica. The nutneg.
The seed, or kennel, of the Myristica moschara of Linnæus :- foliis lanceolatis, fructu glabro. It is a spice that is well known, and has been long used both for culinary and medical purposes Distilled with water, they yield a large quantity of essential oil, resembling in flavour the spice itself; after the disullation, an insipid sebaceous matter is found swimming on the water; the decoction, inspissated, gives an extract of an unctuous, very lightly bitterish taste, and with little or no astringencv. R-ctified spirit extracts the whole virtue of nutmegs, by infusion, and elevates very little of it in distillation; hence the spirituous extract possesses the flavour of the spice in an eminent degree. Nutniegs, when heated, yield to the press a considerable quantity of limpid, yellow oil. There are three kinds of unctious substances, called oil of mace, though really expressed from the nutmeg. The best is brought from the East Indies, in stone jars; this is of a thick consistence, of the colour of mace, and has an agreeable fragrant smell; the second sort, which is paler coloured, and much inferior in quality, comes from Holland, in solid masses, generally flat, and of a square figure; the third, which is the worst of all, and usually called common oil of mace, is an artificial composition of suet, palm-oil, and the like, flavoured with a little genuine oil of nutmeg. The medicinal qualities of nutmeg are supposed to be aromatic, anodyne, stomachic and adstringent; and hence it has been much used in diarrhoas and dysenteries. To many people, the aromatic flavour of nutmeg is very agreeable: they, however, should be cautioned not to use it in large quantities, as it is apt to affect the head, and even to manifest an hypnotic power in such a degree as to prove extremely dangerous. Bontius speaks of this as a frequent occurrence in India; and Dr. Cullen relates a remarkable instance of this soporific effect of nutmeg, which fell under his own observation; and hence concludes that, in apoplectic and paralytic cases, this spice may be very improper. The officinal preparations of nutmeg are a spirit and an essential oil, and the nutmeg, in substance, roasted to render it more adstringent; both the spice itself and the essential oil enterseveral compositions, as the confectio arematica, spiritus ammoniæ aromaticus, &c.

NUX MYRISTICA. See Nux moschata. Nux persica. The walnut. Nux pistacia. See Pistachio nut. NUX PURGANS. See Ricinus major.

Nux scrapiovis. St. Ignatius's bean, NUX VOMICA. Nux metella The nux vonica, liganin colubrium, and faba sancti ignati, have been long known in the Materia Medica as narcotic passons, brought from the East Indies, while the vegetables which produced them were unknown, or at least not botanically ascertained.

By the judicious discrimination of Linnæns, the aux vomica was found to be the fruit of the tree described and figured in th Hortus M laborious, under the name of Can: ram cucurtitifera malabariansis of Prokenet: Vomica of Linnaus. Now called

Strychnos nux vonuca.

To this genus also, but upon evidence less conclusive, he likewise justly re-cered the colubrium. But the faba sancti ignatii he merely conjectured might belong to tins family, as appears by the query, An stryclini species? which subsequent discoveries have enabled us to decida in the negative; for, in the Supp. Plant, it constitutes the new genus Ignatia, which Lourero has la ely confirmed, changing the specific name amara to that of philippinica. The strychnos and ignatia are, however, nearly allied, and both rank under the order Solanacea.

Dr. Woodville has inquired thus far into the botanical origin of these productions, from finding that, by medical writers, they are generally treated of under the ame head, and in a very confused and indiscri-mitate manner. The seed of the fruit, or berry of this tree, Strychnos nux vomica, is the officinal nux vomica; it is flat, round, about an inch broad, and near a quarter of an inch thick, with a prominence in the middle on both sides, of a gray colour, covered with a kind of woolly ma ter; and internally hard and tough, like hornthe taste it is extremely bitter, but has no remarkable smell. It consists chiefly of a gummy matter, which is moderately bitter: the resinous part is very inconsiderable in quantity, but intensely bitter; hence rectified spirit has been considered its best menstruum.

Nux vomica is reckoned amongst the most powerful poisons of the narcotic kind, especially to brute animals; nor are instances wanting of its deleterious effects upon the human species. It proves fatal to dogs in a very short time, as appears by various au hornies. Hillefeld and others found that it also poisoned hares, toxes, wolves, cats, rabbits, and even some birds, as crows and ducks; and Loure ro relates, that a horse died in four hours after taking a drachm of the seed in a half-roasted

The effects of this baneful drug upon different animals, and even upon those of the same species, appear to be rather imcertain, and not always in proportion to the quantity of the poison given. With

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some animals it produces its effects almost be administered in the character of a tonic instantaneously; with o hers, nor till after several hours, when laborious respiration, followed by torper, tremblings, coma, and convulsions, usually precede the faul spasms, or tetanus, with which this drug commonly extruguishes life.

From four cases related of its mortal effects upon human subjects, we find the symptoms corresponded nearly with those which we have here mentioned of brutes; and these, as well as the dissections of dogs killed by this poison, not shewing any injury done to the stomach or intestines, proves that the nux vomica acts immediately upon the nervous system, and destroys life by the virulence of its narcotic influence.

The quantity of the seed necessary to produce this effect upon a strong dog, as appears by experiments, need not be more than a screple; a rabbit was killed by five, and a cat by four, grains; and of the four per-ons to whom we have alluded, and who unfortunately perished by this dele crious drug, one was a garl ten years of age, to whom fifteen grains were exhibited at twice for the cure of an ague. Lors, however, tells us that he took one or two grains of it in substance, without discovering any bid effect: and that a friend of his swallowed a whole se d without injury.

In Britain, where physici as seem to observe the rule Saltem non nocere more strictly than in any other countries, the nux vom ca has been rarely, if ever, employed as a medicine. On the confinent, however, and especially in Germany, they have certainly been guided more by the axiom, " What is incapable of doing much harm, is equally unable to do much good." The truth of this remark was lately very fully exemplified by the practice of Baron Stoerck, and is farther illustrated by the mediculal character given of nux vomica, which, from the time of Gesner till that of a modern dite, has been recommended by a succession of anthors as an antidote to the plague, as a febrifuge, as a vermifuge, and as a remedy in mania, hypochondriasis, hysteria, rheumatism, gout, and canine madness. In Sweden, it has of late years been successfully used in dysentery; but Bergins, who tried its effects in this disease, says, that it suppressed the flux for twelve hours, which afterwards returned again. A woman, who took a scruple of this drug night and morning, two successive days, is said to have been serzed with convulsions and verigo, notwithstanding which the dysenteric symptons re urued, and the disorder was cured by ther medicines; but a p in in the stomach, the effect of the mix vanues, continued alterwards for a long Sime.

Bergius, therefore, thinks it should only

and a odyne, in small doses, (from five to ten grains,) and not till after proper laxatives have been employed. Loureira recommends it as a valuable internal medicine in fluor albus; for which purpose he roasts it till it becomes perfectly black and friable, which renders its medicinal use safe, without impairing its efficacy. It is said to have been used successfully in the cure of agues, and has also been reckoned a specific in pyrosis, or water brush.

NYCTALOPIA. (From we, the night, and at, an eye.) Imbecillitus oculorum of Celsus. A defect in vision, by which the patient sees little or nothing in the day, but in the evening and night sees tolerably well. The proximate cause is various:

1. From a periodical amaurosis, or gutta serena, when the blind paroxysm begins in the morning, and terminates in the evening.

2. From too great a sensibility of the retina, which cannot bear the meridian See Phobotomia.

3. From an opaque spot in the middle of the crystalline lens. When the light of the sun in the meridian contracts the pupil, there is blindness; about evening, or in more obscure places, the pupil dilates, hence the rays of light pass through the limbus of the crystalline lens.

4. From a disuse of light; thus persons who are educated in obscure prisons see nothing immediately in open meridian light; but by degrees their eyes are accustomed to distinguish objects in day-light.

5. From an immoveable mydriasis; for in this instance the pupil admits too great a quanti y of light, which the immobile pupil cannot moderate; hence the patient, in a strong light, sees little or nothing

6. From too great a contraction of the pupil. This admits a sufficiency of lucid rays in bright light, but towards night the pupil dilates more, and the patient sees

8 Nyctalopia endomica. A whole people have been nyctalops, as the Æ hiopians, Africans, Americans, and Asiatics. A great flow of tears are excreted all the day from their eyes; at night they see objects.

8. From a commotion of the eye; from which a man in the night saw all objects distinctly.

Nycrobasis. (From νυξ, the nigh βανω, to go.) W lking is the sleep. NYMPHÆ (From νυμφα, a (From vog, the night, and

(From vupoz, a waternymph; so called because it stands in the water-course.) Ale interne minores clitorichs. Colliculum Collicula. cheilides. Libia minora. Two membra. nous folds, situated within the labia majora, at the sides of the entrance of the vagina uteri.

NYMPHÆA. (From νυμφα, a waternymph; because it grows in watery places.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæn system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Monogynia. The water-nly.

NYMPHÆA ALBA. Leuconymphæa. Neu-

NYMPHEA ALBA. Lenconymphea, Nenuphar. Mero-lenconymphea, Write waterlily. This beautiful plant, Nymphea alba of Linneus, was formerly employed medicinally as a demolecut, and slightly anodyne remedy. It is now laid aside.

NYMPREA GLANDIFERA, Nymphea Indica, and Madraspatana. Names for the

faba Ægyptia.

NYMPHEA LUTEA. Nymphæa major hiteu of Caspar Bauhin. Y flow water-lily. Nymphæa lutea of Linaxus. This beautiful plant was employed formerly with the same intentions as the white, and, like it, is now fallen into disuse. Lindestolpe informs us, that, in some parts of Sweden, the roots, which are the strongest part, were, in times of scarcity, used as food, and did not prove unwholesome.

NYMPHEA LOTUS. The Egyptian lotus. An aquatic plant, a native of both Indies. The root is conical, firm, about the size of a middling pear, covered with a biackish bark, and set round with fibres. It has a sweetish taste, and, when boiled, or roasted, becomes as yellow within as the yolk of an egg. The plant grows in abundance on the banks of the Nile, and is there much sought after by the poor, who, in a short time, collect enough to supply their families with food for several days.

NYMPHOIDES. (From rumpair the waterlily, and adoc, likeness.) A herb resem-

bling the water-lil

NYMPHOMANIA. (From vuaqa, nympha, and uxuz, madness) Furor uterinus Called by the Arabians, Acrai. Brachuna. Arascon. Arsatum Astromania Agenus of disease in the clast Locales, and order Dysorexua, of Cullen, characterised by excessive and violent desire for cition in women. The effects, as described by Juvenal, in his sixth satire, are most humaliating to human nature. It acknowledges the same causes as satyria-is; but as females, more especially in warm

climates, have a more irritable fibre, they are apt to suffer more severely than the males.

It is a species of madness, or a high degree of hysterics. Its immediate cause is a preternatural irritability of the uterus and pudenda of women, or an unusual acrimony of the fluids in these parts. Its presence is known by the wanton behaviour of the patient; she speaks and acts with unrestrained obscenity, and, as the disorder increases, she scolds, cries, and laughs, by turns. While reason is retained, she is silent, and seems inclancholy, but her eyes discover an unusual wantonness. The symptoms are better or worse until the greatest degree of the disorder approaches, and then, by every word and action, her condition is too manifest.

NYMPHOTOMIA (From νυμφα, the nympha, an ' τεμνω, to cut.) The operation of removing the nympha when too

large.

NYSTAGMUS. (From vusua, to sleep.) A winkling of the eyes, such as happens when a person is very sleepy. Authors also define nystagmus to be an involuntary agitation of the oculary bulb. It is known by the instability or involuntary and constant motions of the globe of the eye, from one canthus to another, or in some other directions. Sometimes it is accompanied with an hippus, or an alternate and iepeated dilatation and constriction of the pupil. The species are, 1. Nystagmus, from fear. This agitation is observed under the operation for the cataract; and it is checked by persuasion, and waiting a short space of time. 2. Nystagmus, from sand, or small gravel, falling in the eye. 3. Nystagmus, from a catarrh, which is accompanied with much inflammation 4. Nystagmus, from saburra in the primæ viæ, as is observed in infants afflicted with worms, and is known by the signs of saburra. 5. Nystagmus symptomaticus, which happens in hysteric, epileptic, and sometimes in pregnancy, and is a common symptom accompanying St. Vitus's dance.

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OAK. See Quercus.

O.k of Jerusalem. See Botrys vulgaris. Oak, sea. See Quercus marina.

Oak, willow-leaved See Quercus Phellos.

Oct. See Avena.

OBLIAMA. (From ofenos, a dart, or a spir.) Obelea sagittalis, on epithet for the sagittal suture of the skull.

Obligation. (From ob, against, and lado, to hurt.) An injury done to any part.

OBELISCOTHECA. (From controls, an obelisk, and buzz, a bag; so called from the shape of its seed-bags.) The dwarf American sun-flower.

OBLIQUES ASCENDENS ABBOMINIS. See Obliques internes abdominis.

OBLIQUES ASCENDENS INTERNUS. See Obliquus internus abominis.

OBLIQUUS AURIS. See Laxator tympani. Onliquus capitis inferior. See Obliquus inferior capitis.

OBLIQUUS CAPITIS SUPERIOR. See Obliquus superior capitis.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS ABDOMINIS. See Obliquus externus abdominis.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS EXTERNUS. See Obliquus externus abdominis.

Ouliques externus. See Obliquus externus abdominis.

OBLIQUUS EXTERNUS ABDOMINIS. This muscle, which is so named by Morgagni, Albinus, and Winslow, is the Obliques descendens of Vesalius and Douglas, and the Obliquus major of Haller, and some others. By Dumas it is named Hiopubicosto-abdominal. It is a broad, thin muscle, fleshy posteriorly, and tendinous in its middle and lower part, and is situated immediately under the integuments, covering all the other muscles of the lower belly. It arises from the lower edges of the eight, and sometimes, though rarely, of the nine inferior ribs, not far from their cartilages, by as many distinct fleshy portions, which indigitate with corresponding parts of the serratus major anticus, and the latissimus From these several origins, the fibres of the innscle descend obliquely forwards, and soon degenerate into a broad and thin aponeurosis, which terminates in the linea alba. About an inch and a half above the pubis, the fibres of this aponeurosis separate from each other, so as to form an aperture, which extends obliquely inwards and forwards, more than an inch in length, and is wider above than below, being nearly of an oval figure. This is what is sometimes, though erroneously, called the ring of the abdominal muscles, for it belongs only to the external oblique there being no such opening either in the obliquus internus, or in the transversalis, ferior capitis, and Obliquus inferior oculi. as some writers, and particularly Douglas and Cheselden, would give us to understand. This opening, or ring, serves for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men, and of the round ligment of the uterus in women, and is of a larger size in the former than in the latter. The two tendinous portions, which, by their separation, form this aperture, are called the columns of the ring. The anterior, superior, and inner column, which is the broadest and thickest of the two, passes over the symphysis pubis, and is fixed to the opposite os pubis; so that the anterior column of the right obliquus externus intersects that of the left, and is, as it were, interwoven with it, by which means their insertion is strengthened, and their attachment made firmer. The posterior, inf rior and exterior column approaches the anterior one

low it to the os pubis of the same side. The fibres of that part of the obliquus externus, which arises from the two inferior ribs, descend almost perpendicularly, and are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the outer edge of the anterior half of the spine . of the ilium. From the anterior superior spinous process of that bone, the external oblique is stretched tendinous to the os pubis, forming what is called Poupart's, and sometimes Fallopius's ligament, Fallopius having first described it. Winslow, and many others name it, the inguinal ligament. But, after all, it has no claim to this name, it being nothing more than the tendon of the muscle, which is turned or folded inwards at its anterior edge. passes over the blood vessels of the lower extremity, and is thickest near the pelvis; and in women, from the greater size of the pelvis, it is longer and looser than in men. Hence we find that women are most liable to crural hernize; whereas men, from the greater size of the ring of the external oblique, are most subject to the inguinal, From this ligament, and from that part of the tendon which forms the ring, we observe a detachment of tendinous fibres, which are lost in the fascia lata, of the thigh. This may, in some measure, account for the pain which, in cases of strangulated herniz, is felt when the patient stands upright, and which is constantly relieved upon bending the thigh upwards. This muscle serves to draw down the ribs in expiration; to bend the trunk forwards when both muscles act, or to bend it obliquely to one side, and, perhaps, to turn it slightly upon its axis, when it acts singly; it also raises the pelvis obliquely when the ribs are fixed; it supports and compresses the abdominal viscera, assists in the evacuation of the urine and faces, and is likewise useful in parturition.

See Obliquus in-OBLIQUUS INFERIOR.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR CAPITIS. This muscle, which is the obliques inferior sive major of Winslow, and the Spini axoi-do-tracheli-altoidien of Dumas, is larger than the obliquus superior capitis. It is very obliquely situated between the two first vertebræ of the neck It arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle and outer side of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck, and is inserted tendinous and fleshy into the lower and posterior part of the transverse process of the first vertebra. Its use is to turn the first vertebra upon the second, as upon a pivot, and to draw the face towards the shoulder.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR OCULI. quus minor oculi of Winslow, and Maxillo scleroticien of Dumas. An oblique muscle of the eye, that draws the globe of the eye forwards, inwards, and downwards. as it descends, and is fixed behind and be. It arises by a narrow beginning from the

outer edge of the orbitar process of the superior maxillary bone, near its junction with the lachrymal bone, and running obliquely outwards, is inserted into the seleratic membrane of the eye.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR SIVE MAJOR, See

Obliquus inferior capitis.

OBLIQUES INTERNUS. See obliquus inter-

nus obdominis.

OBLIQUUS INTERNUS ABDOMI-NIS. This muscle, which is the Obliquus ascendens of Vesalius, Douglas, and Cowper, the obliquus minor of Haller, the Obliquus internus of Winslaw, the Obliqu'es ascendens internus of Innes, and the Ilio-lumbo-costi-abdominal of Dumas, is situated immediately under the external ob-lique, and is broad and thin like that muscle, but somewhat less considerable in its extent. It arises from the spinous processes of the three inferior lumbar veriebræ, and from the posterior and middle part of the os sacrum, by a thin tendinous expansion, which is common to it and to the serratus posticus inferior, by short tendinous fibres, from the whole spine of the ilium, between its posterior tuberosity and its anterior and superior spinous process; and from two-thirds of the posterior surface of what is called Fallopius's ligament, at the middle of which we find the round ligament of the uterus in women, and the spermatic vessels in men, passing under the thin edge of this muscle; and in the latter, it likewise sends off some fibres, which descend upon the spermatic chord, as far as the tunica vaginalis of the testis, and constitute what is called the cremaster muscle, which surrounds, suspends, and compresses the testicle. From these origins, the fibres of the internal oblique run in different directions; those of the posterior portion ascend obliquely forwards, the middle ones become less and less oblique, and, at length, run in an horizontal direction, and those of the anterior portion extend obliquely downwards. The first of these are inserted, by very short tendinous fibres, into the cartilages of the fifth, fourth, and third of the false ribs; the fibres of the second, or middle porcion, form a broad tendon, which, after being inserted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the second false rib, extends towards the linea alba, and separates into two layers; the anterior layer, which is the thickest of the two, joins the tendon of the obliquus externus, and runs over the two upper thirds of the rectus muscle, to be inserted into the linea alba; the posterior layer runs under the rectus, adheres to the anterior surface of the tendon of the transversalis, and is inserted into the cartilages of the first of the false, and the last of the true ribs, and likewise into the linea alba. By this structure we may perceive that the greater part of the rectus is in-

The fibres closed, as it were, in a sheath. of the anterior portion of the internal oblique, or those which arise from the spine of the ilium and the ligamentum Fallopii, likewise form a broad tendon, which, instead of separating into two layers, like that of the other part of the muscle, runs over the lower part of the rectus, and adhering to the under surface of the tendon of the external oblique, is inserted into the fore part of the pubis. This muscle serves to assist the obliquus externus; but it seems to be more evidently calculated than that muscle is to draw the ribs downwards and backwards. It likewise serves to separate the false ribs from the true ribs. and from each other.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR ABDOMINIS. See Ob-

liquus externus abdominis.

See OBLIQUUS MAJOR CAPITIS. Obliquus inferior capitis.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR OCULI. See Obliguus

superior oculi.

OBLIQUUS MINOR ABDOMINIS. quus internus abdominis. OBLIQUUS MINOR CAPITIS. See Obliquus

superior capitis.

OBLIQUUS MINOR OCULI. See Obliquus inferior oculi. OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR CAPITIS. Ri-

olanus, who was the first that gave particular names to the oblique muscles of the head, called this muscle obliquus minor, to distinguish it from the inferior, which, on account of its being much larger, he named obliquus major. Spigelius afterwards distinguished the two, from their situation with respect to each other, into superior and inferior; and in this he is followed by Cowper and Douglas. Winslow retains both names. Dumas calls it Tra-chelo-altoido-occipital. That used by Al-binus is here adopted. This little muscle, which is nearly of the same shape as the recti capitis, is situated laterally between the occiput and the first vertebra of the neck, and is covered by the complexus and the upper part of the splenius. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the tranverse process of the first venebra of the neck, and, ascending obliquely inwards, and backwards, becomes broader, and is inserted, hy a broad flat tendon, and some few fleshy fibres, into the os occipitis, behind the back part of the mastaid process, under the insertion of the complexus and splenius, and a little above that of the rectus major. The use of this muscle is to draw the head backwards, and perhaps to assist in its rotatory motion.
OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR OCULI. Troch-

Obliquus major of Winslow, learis. and Optico-trochlei scleroticien of Dumas. An obtique muscle of the eye, that rolls the globe of the eye, and turns the pupil downwards and outwards. It arises like the straight muscles of the eye from the edge of the foramen opticum at the bottom of the orbit, between the rectus superior and rectus internus; from thence runs straight along the papyraceous portion of the ethmoid bone to the unper part of the orbit, where a cartilaginous trochlea is fixed to the inside of the internal angular process of the os frontis, through which its tendon passes, and runs a little downwards and outwards, enclosed in a loose membranaceous sheath, to be inserted into the sclerotic membrane.

Obliques superior sive minor. See Obliques superior capitis.

OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR SIVE TROCHLEARIS. See Obliquus superior oculi.

OBSIDIANUM. A species of glass, so called from its resemblance to a kind of stone, which one Obsidius discovered in Ethiopia, of a very black colour, though sometimes pellucid, and of a muddy water. Pliny says also, that obsidianum was a sort of colour with which vessels were glazed. Hence the name is applied, by Libavius, to glass of antimony.

OBSTETRIC. (Obstetricus; from obstetrix, a nurse) Belonging to midwifery.

OBSTIPATIO. (From obstipe, to stop up.) Costiveness. A genus of disease in the class Locales, and order Epischeses of Cullen, comprehending three species:

1. Obstipatio debilium, in weak and com-

monly despeptic persons.

2. Obstipatio rigidorum, in persons of rigid fibres, and a melancholy temperament.

3. Obstipatio obstructorum, from obstructions. See Cohea.

OBSTRUCTIA. (From obstruo, to shut up.) Medicines which close the orifices of the ducts, or vessels.

OBSTUPIFACIENTIA. (From obstupefacio,

to supefy.) Narcotics.

OUTUNDENTIA. (From obtundo, to make blunt.) Substances which sheath or blunt irritation, and are much the same as demulcents. They consist chiefly of bland, oily, or mucilaginous matters, which form a covering on inflamed and irritable surfaces, particularly those of the stomach, lungs, and anus.

OBTURATOR EXTERNUS. Extrapelvio pubi trochanterien of Dumas. This is a small flar muscle, situated obliquely at the upper and anterior part of the thigh, between the pectinalis and the fore-part of the foramen thyroideum, and covered by the adductor brevis femoris. It arises tendinous and fleshy from all the inner half of the circumference of the foramen thyroideum, and likewise from part of the obturator ligament. Its radiated fibres collect and form a strong roundish tendon, which runs outwards, and, after adhering to the capsular ligament of the joint, is inserted nto a cavity at the inner and back part of

the root of the great trochanter. The chief uses of this muscle are, to turn the thigh obliquely outwards, to assist in bending the thigh, and in drawing it inwards. It likewise prevents the capsular hgament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

OBTURATOR INTERNUS. Marsupialis, sen obturator internus of Douglas. Marsupialis seu bursalis of Cowper, and Intra pelvio trochanterien of Dumas. A considerable muscle, a great part of which is situated within the pelvis. It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from somewhat more than the upper half of the internal circumference of the foramen thyroideum of the os innominatum. It is composed of several distinct fasciculi, which terminate in a roundish tendon that passes out of the pelvis, through the niche that is between the spine and the tuberosity of the ischium, and, after running between the two portions of the gemini in the manner just now de-scribed, is inserted into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter, after adhering to the adjacent part of the capsular ligament of the joint. This muscle rolls the os femoris obliquely rutwards, by pulling it towards the ischiatic niche, upon the cartilaginous surface of which its tendon, which is surrounded by a membranous sheath, moves as upon a pulley.

OBTURATOR NERVE. A nerve of the thigh, that is lost upon its inner mus-

cles.

OCCIPITAL BONE. Os occipitis. Os nervosum Os basilare. memoriæ. This bone, which forms the posterior and interior part of the scull, is of an irregular figure, convex on the outside and concave internally. Its external surface, which is very irregular, serves for the attachment of several muscles. It affords several inequalities, which sometimes form two semicircular hollows, separated by a scabrous ridge. The inferior portion of the bone is stretched forwards in form of a wedge, and hence is called the cuneiform process, or basilary process. At the base of this process, situa ed obliquely on each side of the foramen magnum, are two flat, oblong protuberances, named condyles. They are covered with cartilage, and serve for the articulation of the head with the first vertebra of the neck. In the inferior portion of this bone, at the basis of the craninn, and immediately behind the cuneiform process, we observe a considerable hole, through which the medulla oblongata passes into the spine. The nervi accessorii, the vertebral arteries, and sometimes the vertebral veins likewise, pass through Man being designed for an erect posture, this foramen magnum is found nearly in the middle of the basis of the human cranium, and at a pretty equal distance from the posterior part of the occiput, and the 564

anterior part of the lower jaw; whereas in quadrupeds it is nearer the back part of the occiput. Besides this hole, there are four other smaller foramina, viz. two before, and two behind the condyles. former serve for the transmission of the ninth pair of nerves, and the two latter for the veins which pass from the external parts of the head to the lateral sinuses. On looking over the internal surface of the os occipitis, we perceive the appearance of a cross, formed by a very prominent ridge, which rises upwards from near the foramen magnum, and by two transverse sinuosities, one on each side of the ridge. cross occasions the formation of four fossæ, two above and two below the sinuosities. In the latter are placed the lobes of the cerebellum, and in the former the posterior lobes of the brain. The two sinuosities serve to receive the lateral sinuses. In the upper part of this bone is seen a continuation of the sinuosity of the longitudinal sinus; and at the basis of the cranium we observe the inner surface of the cuneiform process made concave, for the reception of the medulla oblongata. The occipital bone is thicker and stronger than any of the other bones of the head, except the petrous part of the ossa temporum; but it is of unequal thickness. At its lateral and inferior parts, where it is thinnest, it is covered by a great number of muscles. The reason for so much thickness and strength in this bone seems to be, that it covers the cerebellum, in which the least wound is of the utmost consequence; and that it is, by its situation, more liable to be fractured by falls than any other bone of the cranium. For, if we fall forwards, the hands are naturally put out to prevent the forehead's touching the ground; and if on one side, the shoulders in a great measure protect the sides of the head; but if a person fall backwards, the hind part of the head consequently strikes against the earth, and that too with considerable violence. Nature therefore has wisely constructed this bone so as to be capable of the greatest strength at its upper part, where it is the most exposed to injury. The os occipitis is joined, by means of the cuneiform process, to the sphenoid bone, with which it often ossifies, and makes but one bone in those who are advanced in life. It is connected to the parietal bones by the lamboidal suture, and to temporal bones by the additamentum of the temporal suture. The head is likewise united to the trunk by means of this bone. The two condyles of the occipital bone are received into the superior oblique processes of the atlas, or first vertebra of the neck, and it is by means of this articulation that a certain degree of motion of the head backwards and forwards is performed.

But it allows only very little motion to either side; and still less of a circular motion, which the head obtains principally by the circumvolution of the atlas on the second vertebra, as is described more particularly in the account of the vertebræ. In the fætus, the os occipitis is divided by an unossified cartilaginous substance into four parts. One of these, which is the largest, constitutes all that portion of the bone which is above the foramen magnum: two others, which are much smaller, compose the inside of the foramen magnum, and include the condyloid processes; and the fourth is the cuneiform process. This last is sometimes not completely united with the rest, so as to form one bone, before the sixth or seventh year

Occipitalis. See Occipito frontalis.

OCCIPITO FRONTALIS. Digastricus cranii. Epicranius of Albinus. Frontalis et occipitalis of Winslow and Cowper, and Occipito frontal of Dumas. A single, broad, digastric, muscle, that covers the cranium, pulls the skin of the head backwards, raises the eye-brows upwards, and, at the same time, draws up and wrinkles the skin of the forehead. It arises from the posterior part of the occiput, goes over the upper part of the os parietale and os frontis, and is lost in the eye-brows.

OCCIPUT. The hinder part of the head.

See Cuput.

Occult QUALITY. A term that has been much used by writers that had not clear ideas of what they undertook to explain; and which served therefore only for a cover to their ignorance.

OCCULT DISEASES, is likewise from the same mint as the former, occultus signifying hidden, and, therefore, nothing can be understood, when a person speaks of a hidden disease, but that it is a disease he does not understand.

Оснема. (From oxew, to carry.) A vehi-

cle, or thin fluid.

OCHETEUMA. (From oxeros, a duct.) The

OCHETUS. (From exew, to convev.) A canal or duct. The urmary, or abdominal passages.

Ocheus. (From oxew, to carry.) The bag of the scrotum.

OCHRA. (From wxgos, pale; so named because it is often of a pale colour.) 1. Ochre. Minera ferri lutea vel rubra. An argillaceous earth impregnated with iron, of a red or yellow colour. The Armenian bole, and other earths, are often adulterated with ochre.

2. The fore-part of the tibia.

Ochhus. (From axeos, pale; so called from the pale muddy colour of its flowers.) A leguminous plant, or kind of pulse. Ochrhodes. (From οχθος, importing

the tumid lips of ulcers, callous, tumid.)

An epithet for ulcers, whose lips are callous and tumid, and consequently difficult to heal.

Ocimastrum. (Dim. of ocimum, basil.)

Wild white campion, or basil.

OCIMUM. (From wwws, swift; so called from its quick growth.) Ocymum. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gym-1. spermia. See Basilicum.

OCIMUM BASILICUM. The systematic name of the common or citron basil. See

Basilicum.

OCIMUM CARTOPHYLLATUM. Ocimum minimum of Casper, Bauhon, and Linnæus. Small or bush basil. This plant is mildly balsamic. Infusions are drank as tea, in catarrhous and uterine disorders, and the dried leaves are made into cephalic and They are, when sternutatory powders. fresh, very juicy, of a weak aromatic and very mucilaginous taste, and of a strong and agrecable smell, improved by drying.

OCTANA. (From octo, eight.) An erratic intermitting fever, which returns every

eighth day.

OCTAVES HUMERI. The Teres Minor. OCTAVUS HUMERI PLACENTINI. The Teres

Minor. OCULARES COMMUNES. A name for the

nerves called Motores Oculorum. Ocularia. (From oculus, the eye; so called from its uses in disorders of the eye.) See Euphrasia.

OCULI ADDUCTOR. Sec Rectus internus

oculi. OCULI ATTOLLENS. See Rectus superior

Oculi Cancrorum. See Cancer.

OCULI DEPRESSOR. See Rectus inferior

OCULI ELEVATOR. See Rectus superior

OCULI LEVATOR. See Rectus superior Oculi obliquus inferior. See Obliquus

inferior oculi.

Oculi onliquus major. See Obliquus superior, oculi.

Oculi onliques minon. See Obliquus inferior oculi.

Oculus hovinus. See Proptosis. Occlus novis. See Bellis major.

Oculus nunulus. See Proptosis.

Oculus Christi, Austrian flea bane; a species of Inula.

OCULUS ELEPITANTINUS. A name given to Proptosis.

Oculus genu. The knee-pan.

OCULUS LACHRYMANS. The Epipho-

Oculus MUNDI. A species of Opal, generally of a yellowish colour. By laying in vater it becomes of an amber colour, and also transparent.

OAXISMOS. (From cost, a tooth.) A

biting sensation, pain, or itching in the

ODONTAGOGOS. (From ωs, a tooth, and αγω, to draw.) The name of an instrument to draw teeth, one of which, made of lead, Forrestus relates to have been hung up in the temple of Apollo, denoting, that such an operation ought not to be made, but when the tooth was loose enough to draw with so slight a force as could be applied with that.

ODONTAGRA. (From ofes, a tooth, and ayea, a seizure.) 1. The gout in the teeth.

2. A tooth-drawer.

ODONTALGIA. (From odes, a tooth, The tootin-ach. This and any G, pain.) well-known disease makes its attack by a most violent pain in the teeth, most frequently in the molares, more rarely in the incisorii, reaching sometimes up to the eyes, and sometimes backwards into the cavity of the car. At the same time, there is a manifest determination to the head, and a remarkable tension and inflation of the vessels takes place, not only in the parts next to that where the pain is seated, but over the whole head.

The tooth-ach is sometimes mercly a rheumatic affection, arising from cold, but more frequently from a carious tooth. It is also a symptom of pregnancy, and takes place in some nervous disorders. It may attack persons at any period of life, though it is most frequent in the young and plethoric. From the variety of causes which may produce this affection, it has been named by authors odontalgia cariosa, scorbutica, catarrhalis, arthritica, gravidarum, hysterica, stomachica, and rheumatica.

ODONTALGICA. (Medicamenta odontalgica; from of ovlanger, the tooth-ach.) Medicines which relieve the tooth-ach.

Many empirical remedies have been proposed for the cure of the tooth-ach, but have not in any degree answered the purpose. When the affection is purely rheur matic, blistering behind the ear will almost always remove it; but when it proceeds from a carious tooth, the pain is much more obstinate. In this case it has been recommended to touch the pained part with a hot iron, or with oil of vitriol, in order to destroy the aching nerve; to hold spirits in the mouth; to put a drop of oil of cloves into the hollow of the tooth, or a pill made of camphor, opium, and oleum caryophylli. Others recommend gum mastich, dissolved in oleum terebinthing, applied to the tooth upon a little cotton. The great Boerliaave is said to have applied comphor, opium, oleum caryophylli, and alkohol, upon cotton. The caustic oil which may be collected from writing paper, rolled up tight, and set fire to at the end, will sometimes destroy the exposed nervous substance of a hollow tooth. The application of radix pyrethri, by its power of stimulating the salivary glands, either in substance or in tincture, has also been attended with good effects. But one of the most useful applications of this kind, is strong nitrous acid, diluted with three or four times its weight of spirit of wine, and introduced into the hollow of the tooth, either by means of an hair pencil or a little cotton. When the constitution has had some share in the disease, the Peruvian bark has been recommended, and perhaps with much justice, on account of its tonic and antiseptic powers. When the pain is not fixed to one tooth, leeches applied to the gum are of great service. But very often all the foregoing remedies will fail, and the only infallible cure is to draw the tooth.

ODONTIASIS. (From contiae, to put forth the teeth.) Dentition, or cutting teeth.
ODONTICA. (From See, a tooth.) Reme-

dies for pains in the teeth.

ODONTIRRHEEA. (From ofes, a tooth, and gew, to flow.) Bleeding from the socket of

the jaw, after drawing the tooth.

ODONTIS. (From coss, a tooth; so called because its decoction was supposed useful in relieving the tooth-ach.) Odontitis. species of tychnis.

ODONTITIS. See Odontis.

(From also, a tooth, ODONTOGLYPHUM. and γλυφω, to scrape.) An instrument for scaling and scraping the teeth.

ODONTOID. (Odontoides; from of 85, a tooth, and sides, form, because it is shaped like a tooth.) Tooth like. A process of the second ver ebra of the neck is so called. Sec Dentatus.

ODONTOLITHOS. (From oles, a tooth, and ribos, a stone.) The tartar, or stony

crust upon the teeth.

(From odes, a tooth, ODONTOPHYIA. and  $\phi v \omega$ , to grow.) Dentition, or cutting

ODONTOTRIMMA. (From cose, a tooth, and τειδω, to wear away.) A dentifrice, or

medicine, to clean the teeth.

ODORIFEROUS GLANDS. Glandulæ odoriferæ. These glands are situated around the corona glandis of the male, and under the skin of the labia majora and nymphæ of females. They secrete a sebaceous matter, which emits a peculiar odour; hence their name.

ŒA. (Om: from ciw, to bear; so named from its muitfulness.) The service

tree.

ECONOMY, ANIMAL. (From cinos, a house, and vomos, a law.) (Economia ani-The conduct of nature in preserving animal bodies is called the animal economy.

ŒDEMA. (From obsew, to swell.) A synchym of anasarca. See Anasarca. EDEMATODES. Like to an edema.

(EDEMOSARCA. (From ownuz, a swelling, and oage, flesh.) A species of tumour mentioned by M. A. Severinus, of a middle nature, betwixt an adema, or soft tumour, and sarcoma, or hard tumour.

ENANTHE. (From ourse, wine, and ανθος, a flower; so called because its flowers smell like the vine.) 1. The botanical name of a genus of the umbelliferous plants. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia. 2. The pharmacopæial name of hemlock dropwort. Enanthe charophulli foliis. Enanthe crocata of Linnaus. An active poison that has too often proved fatal, by being eaten in mistake instead of water parsnep. The juice, nevertheless, cautiously exhibited, promises to be an efficacious remedy in inveterate scorbutic eruptions. The root of this plant is not unpicasant to the taste, and esteemed to be most deleterious of all the vegetables which this country produces. Mr. Howell, surgeon at Haverfordwest, relates, that "eleven French prisoners had the liberty of walking in and about the town of Pembroke. Three of them being in the fields a little before noon, dug up a large quantity of this plant, which they took to be wild celery, to eat with their bread and butter for dinner. After washing it, they all three ate, or rather tasted of the roots. As they were entering the town, without any previous notice of sickness at the stomach, or disorder in the head, one of them was seized with convulsions. The other two ran home, and sent a surgeon to him. The surgeon endeavoured first to bleed, and then to vomit him; but those endeavours were fruitless, and he died presently. Ignorant of the cause of their comrade's death, and of their own danger, they gave of these roots to the other eight prisoners, who ate of them with their dinner. A few minutes afterwards, the remaining two, who gathered the plants, were seized in the same manner as the first, of which one died; the other was bled, and a vomit, with great difficulty, forced down, on account of his jaws being, as it were, locked together. This operated, and he recovered, but was some time affected with dizzincss in his head, though not sick, or the least disor-dered in the stomach. The other eight being bled and vonited immediately were soon well. At Clonwell, in Ireland, eight boys, mistaking this plant for water-parsnep, atc plentifully of its roots. four or five hours after, the eldest boy became suddenly convulsed, and died; and before the next morning four of the other Of the boys died in a similar manner. other three, one was maniacal several hours, another lost his hair and nails, but the third escaped unhurt. Stalpaart Vary der Wicl mentions two cases of the faal effects of this root: these, however, fere

attended with great heat in the throat and stomach, sickness, vertigo, and purging; they both thed in the course of two or three hours after eating the root. Allen, in his Synopsis Medicinæ, also relates that four children suffered greatly by eating this porson. In these cases great agony was experienced before the convulsions supervened; vomitings likewise came on, which were encouraged by large draughts of oil and warm water, to which their recovery is ascribed. The late Sir William Watson, who refers to the instances here cited, also says, that a Dutchman was poisoned by the leaves of the plant boiled in pottage. It appears, from various authorities, that. most brute animals are not less affected by this poison that man; and Mr. Lightfoot informs us, that a spoonful of the juice of this plant, given to a dog, rendered him sick and stupid; but a goat was observed to eat the plant with impunity. The great virnlence of this plant has not, however, prevented it from being taken medicinally. In a letter from Dr. Poultency to Sir William Watson, we are told that a severe and inveterate cutaneous disorder was cured by the juice of the root, though not without exciting the most alarming symptoms. Taken in the dose of a spoonful, in two hours afterwards, the head was affected in a very extraordinary manner, followed with violent sickness and vomiting, cold sweats, and rigors; but this did not deter the patient from continuing the medicine, in somewhat less doses, till it effected a cure.

ENANTHE CROCATA. The systematic name of the hemlock dropwort. See Oenanthe.

ŒNANTHE CHÆROPHYLLI FOLIIS. Sec Oenanthe.

ENANTRE CICUTÆ FACIE LOUELII. The Enanthe crocata.

CENAREA. (Orepos: from araga, the cuttings of vines.) The ashes prepared of the twigs, &c. of vines.

ENELEUM: (From ones, wine, and ελαιον, oil.) A mixture of oil and wine.

Exogala. (From oree, wine, and γαλα, milk.) A sort of potion made of wine and milk. According to some, it is wine as warm as new milk.

GENOGARUM. (From onos, wine, and pagor, garum.) A mixture of wine and garum.

ENOMELI. (From ones, wine, and μελι, honey.) Mead, or wine, made of honey, or sweetened with honey.

ENORLIA. (From ones, winc.) The great jubeb-tree, the juice of whose fruit is like that of the grape.

ENOSTAGMA. (From enos, wine, and sαζω,

to distil.) Spirit of wine.

CENOTHERA. (From cayos, wine; so called because its dried roots smell like wine.) A species of lysimachia.

ENUS ANTHINOS. (From ατθο; a flower.) Flowery wine. Golen says it is Oenos anthosmias, or wine impregnated with flowers, in which sense it is an epithet for the Cyccon.

ENUS ANTHOSMIAS. (From ανθος, a flower, and οσμη, a smell.) Sweet-scented wines

ŒNUS APODÆDUS. Wine in which the dais, or tæda, are boiled.

CENUS APEZESMENUS. A wine heated to a great degree, and prescribed among other things, as garlic, salt, milk, and vinegar

ŒNUS DEUTERUS. (Δευτεgos, second.)

Wines of the second pressing.

ENUS DIACHEOMENUS. Wine diffused in larger vessels, cooled, and strained from the lees, to render it thinner and weaker; wines thus drawn off are called saccus, and saccata, from the bag through which they are strained.

ŒNUS GALACTODES. (From γαλα, milk,) Wine with milk, or wine made as warm as new milk.

Exts MALACUS. Ænus maithacus. Soft wine. Sometimes it means weak and thin, opposed to strong wine; or mild, in opposition to austere.

CENUS MELICIROOS. Wine in which is

honey.

ŒNUS GENODES. Strong wine.

ENUS STRAPHIDIOS LEUCOS. White, wine made from raisins.

ŒNUS TETHALASMENOS. Wine mixed with sea-water.

Œsορλοπυs. (From οισοφαχος, the gullet.) The muscle forming the sphincter æsophagi.

(Esornagisnus. (From οισοφαρος, the gullet.) Difficult swallowing, from spasm.

ŒSOPHAGUS. (From oue, to carry, and paya, to eat; because it carries the food into the stomach.) The membranous and muscular tube that descends in the neck, from the pharynx to the stomach. It is composed of three tonics, or membranes, viz. a common, muscular, and mucous. Its arteries are branches of the esophageal, which arises from the aorta. The veins empty themselves into the vena azygos. Its nerves are from the eighth pair and great intercostal; and it is every where under the internal or mucous membrane supplied with glands that separate the mucus of the œsophagus, in order that the masticated bole may readily pass down into the stomach.

ŒSTROMANIA. (From oisgos, the pudenda of a woman, and *mairopau*, to rage.) A furor uterinus.

ESTRUM VENEREUM. (From astrus, a gad-bee; because by its bite, or sting, it agritates cattle.) The venereal orgasm, or pleasant sensation experienced during coition.

Estre. (From ois, a sheep, and ευπος, sorde.) Oesypos. Oesypum. Oesypus. It frequently is met with in the ancient Pharmacy, for a certain oily substance, boiled out of particular parts of the fleeces of piperite. wool, as what grows on the flank, neck, and parts most used to sweat.

Offa ALBA. (From phath, a fragment, Heb.) Van Helmont thus calls the white coagulation which arises from a mixture of a rectified spirit of wine, and of urine; but the spirit of urine must be distilled from well-fermented urine; and that must be well dephlegmated, else it will not an-

OFFICINAL. (Officinalis; from officina, a shop ) Any medicine, directed by the colleges of physicians to be kept in the shops, is so termed.

Offuscatio. The same as Amaurosis. OIL. (Oleum; from olea, the olive; this name being at first confined to the oil expressed from the olive.) Oils are defined, by modern chymists, to be proper juices of a fat or unctuous nature, either solid or fluid, indissoluble in water, combustible with flame, and volatile in different degrees. They are never formed but by organic bodies; and all the substances in the mineral kingdom, which present oily characters, have originated from the action of vegetable or animal life. Oils are distinguished into fat, and essential oils; under the former head are comprehended oil of olives, almonds, rape, ben, linseed, hemp, cocoa, &c. Essential oils differ hemp, cocoa, &c. from fat oils by the following characters: their smell is strong and aromatic; their volatility is such that they rise with the heat of boiling water, and their taste is very acrid; they are likewise much more combustible than fat oils; they are obtained by pressure, distillation, &c. from strong-smelling plants, as that of peppermint, aniseed, caraway, &c. The use of fat oils in the arts, and in medicine, is very considerable; they are medicinally prescribed as relaxing, softening, and laxative remedies; they enter into many medical compounds, such as balsams, unguents, plasters, &c. and they are often used as food on account of the mucilage they contain. See Oliva. Essential oils are employed as cordial, stimulant, and antispasmodic remedies.

Oil, atherial Sec Oleam ætheriale. Oil, almond. See Amygdala. Oil of allspice. See Oleum pimente. Oil of amber. See Oleum succini.

Oil of caraway. See Oleum carni.

Oil, castor. See Ricinus.

Oil of chamomile. See Oleum anthemidis.

Oil of juniper. See Oleum juniperi. Oil of lavender. Sec Oleum lavendulæ.

Oil of linseed. See Oleum lini.
Oil of mace. See Oleum macis.
Oil, olive. See Oliva.

Oil of origanum. See Oleum origani.

Oil, palm. See Palm oil.

Oil of pennyroyal. See Oleum pulegii. Oil of peppermint. See Oleum mentha

Oil, rock. See Petroleum.

Oil of spearment. See Oleum menthe viridis.

Oil, sulphurated. See Oleum sulphura-

Oil of turpentine. See Oleum teberinthe.

Ointment, See Unguentum.
OLEA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Monandria. Order, Monogynia.

The systematic name OLEA EUROPEA. of the plant from which the olive oil is obtained. See Oliva.

OLEAMEN. (From oleum, oil.) A thin liniment composed of oils.

OLEANDER. (From olea, the olive-tree, which it resembles ) The rose bay,

OLEASTEIL (Dim. of olea, the olive-tree.) The wild olive.

OLECRANON. (From wasyn, the ulna, and apavov, the head.) The elbow, or process of the ulna, upon which a person

OLENE. (DASVN.) The cubit, or ulna. OLEOSACCHARUM. (From Oleum, oil, and saccharum, sugar.) An essential oil, ground up with sugar.

OLEUM. See Oil.

OLEUM ABIETINUM. The resinous juice which exudes spontaneously from the silver and red firs. It is supposed to be superior to that obtained by wounding the

OLEUM ETHEREUM. Æthereal oil. Oleum vini. After the distillation of sulphuric æther, carry on the distillation with a less degree of heat, until a black froth begins to rise; then immediately remove the retort from the fire, Add sufficient water to the liquor in the retort, that the oily part may float upon the surface. Szparate this, and add to it as much limewater as may be necessary to neutralize the adherent acid, and shake them together. Lastly, collect the ætherial oil which separates. This oil is used as an ingredient in the compound spirit of æther. It is a yellow colour, less volatile than æther, soluble in alkohol, and insoluble in wa-

OLEUM AMYGDALÆ. See . Imaygdala.

OLEUM ANIMALE. An empyreumatic substance, obtained by distillation from animal substances. It is sometimes exhibited as an antispasmodic and diaphoretic, in the dose of from ten to forty drops.

OLEUM ANISI. Formerly Oleum essentiule anisi, oleum e seminibus anisi. Oil of anise. The essential oil of aniseed possesses all the virtues attributed to the anisum, and is often given as a stimulant and carminative, in the dose of from five to eight drops.

mixed with an appropriate vehicle. See Anisum.

OLEUM ANTHEMIDIS. Oil of chamomile, formerly called oleum e floribus chamameli. See Chamæmelum.

OLEUM CAMPHORATUM. In retentions of urine, rheumatic pains, distentions of the abdomen from ascites; tension of the skin from abscess, this is an excellent application. See Camphora,

OLEUM CARPATHICUM. A fine essential oil, distilled from the fresh cones of the tree which affords the common turpentine.

See Terebinthina vulgaris.

OLEUM CARUL. Formerly called Oleum essentiale carui. Oleum essentiale e seminibus carui. The oil of carraways is an admirable carminative, diluted with rectified spirit into an essence, and then mixed with any proper fluid. See Carum.

OLEUM CARYOPHYLLIA ROMATICI. A stimulant and aromatic preparation of the clove. See Caryophyllum aromaticum.

OLEUM CEDRINUM, Essentia de cedro. The oil of the peel of citrons, obtained in a particular manner, without distillation, in

Italy.

OLEUM CINSAMOMI. A warm, stimulant, and delicious stomachic. Given in the dose of from one to three drops, rubbed down with some yolk of egg, in a little wine, it allays violent emotions of the stomach from morbid irritability, and is particularly serviceable in debility of the primæ viæ, after cholera morbus.

OLEUM CORNU CERVI. This is applied externally as a stimulant to paralytic affec-

tions of the limbs.

OLEUM GABIANUM. See Petroleum rubeum.

OLEUM JUNIPERI. Formerly called Oleum essentiale juniperi bacca. Oleum essentiale e baccis juniperi. Oil of juniper. Oil of juniper berries possesses stimulant, carminative, and stomachic virtues, in the dose of from two to four drops, and in a larger dose proves highly diuretic. It is often administered in the cure of dropsical complaints, when the indication is to provoke the urmary discharge.

OLEUM LAVENDULÆ. Fornerly called Oleum essentiale lavendulæ. Oleum essentiale e floribus lavendulæ. Oil of lavender. Though mostly used as a perfume, this essential oil may be exhibited internally, in the dose of from one to five drops, as a stimulant in nervous head-achs, hysteria and

debitity of the stomach.

OLEUM LAURI. Oleum laurinum. anodyne and antispasmodic application, generally rubbed on sprains and bruises unattended with inflammation.

OLEUM LIMONIS. .The easential oil of lemons possesses stimulant and s omachic powers, but is principally use! externally, mixed with ointments as a jet ime.

Linseed oil is emollient OLEUM LINI. and demulcent, in the dose of from half an ounce to an ounce. It is frequently given in the form of clyster in colics and obstipation. Cold-drawn linseed oil, with limewater and extract of lead, forms, in many instances, the best application for burns and scalds. See Linum.

OLEUM LUCII PISCIS. See Esox lu. · cius.

OLEUM MACIS. Oleum myristicæ expressum. Oil of mace. A fragrant sebaceous substance, expressed in the East Indies from the nutmeg. There are two kinds. The best is brought in stone jars, is somewhat soft, of a yellow colour, and resembles in smell the nutmeg. The other is brought from Holland, in flat square The weak smell and faint colour cake:. warrants our supposing it to be the former kind sophisticated. Their use is chiefly external, in form of plaster, unguent, or liniment.

OLEUM MALABATHII. An oil similar in flavour to that of cloves, brought from the East Indies, where it is said to be drawn from the leaves of the cinnamon

OLEUM MENTHÆ PIPERITÆ. Formerly called Oleum essentiale menthæ piperitidis, Oil of peppermint. Oil of peppermint possesses all the act ve principle of the plant. It is mostly used to make the simple water; mixed with rectified spirit it forms an essence, which is put into a variety of compounds, as sugar drops and trochisches, which are exhibited as stimulants, carminitives, and stomachies.

OLEUM MENTHÆ VIRIDIS. Formerly called Oleum essentiale menthæ sativæ. Oil of spearmint. This essential oil is mostly in use for making the simple water, but may be exhibited in the dose of from five to two drops as a carminative, stomachic, and stimulant.

Essentia neroli. The OLEUM NEROLI. essential oil of the flowers of the Seville orange tree. It is brought to us from Italy and France.

OLEUM MYRISTICE. The essential oil of nutmeg is an excellent stimulaut and aromatic, and may be exhibited in every case where such remedies are indicated, with advantage.

OLEUM MYRISTICE EXPRESSUM. This is commonly called oil of mace. See Oleum macis.

OLEUM NITRIOLI. See Sulphureous acid.

OLEUM OLIVE. See Ohva.

OLEUM OHIGANI. Formerly called Oleum essentiale origani. Oil of origanum. A very acrid and stimulating essential oil. is employed for alleviating the pain arising from caries of the teeth, and for making the simple water of marjoram.

OLEUM PALME. See Palm oil. OLEUM PETRE. See Petroleum,

OLEUM PIMENTE. Oil of allspice. stimulant and aromatic oil.

OLEUM PULEGII, Formerly called Oleum essentiale pulegii. Oil of penny-royal. stimulant and antispasmodic oil, which may be exhibited in hysterical and nervous affections.

OLEUM RICINI. See Ricinus.

OLEUM RORIS MARINI. Formerly called Olenm essentiale roris marini. Oil of rosemary. The essential oil of rosemary is an excellent stimulant, and may be given with great advantage in nervous and spasmodic affections of the stomach.

OLEUM SABINÆ. A stimulating emmenagogue: it is best administered with myrrh,

in the form of bolus.

An agreeable sti-OLEUM SASSAFRAS. mulating stomachic carminative and sudorific.

OLEUM SINAPEOS. This is an emollient oil, the acrid principle of the mustard remaining in the seed. See Sinapis.

OLEUM SUCCINI. Oleum succini rectificatum. Oil of amber is mostly used externally, as a stimulating application to paralytic limbs, or those affected with cramp and rheumatism. Hooping-cough, and other convulsive diseases, are said to be relieved also by rubbing the spine with this oil.

OLEUM SULPHURATUM. Formerly called Balsamum sulphuris simplex. Sulphurated oil. "Take of washed sulphur, four ounces; olive oil, a pint." Having heated the oil in a very large iron pot, add the sulphur gradually, and stir the mixture after each addition, until they have united. This, which was formerly called simple balsam of sulphur, is an acrid stimulating preparation, and much praised by some in the cure of coughs and other phthisical complaints.

OLEUM STRIE. A fragrant essential oil, obtained by distillation from the balm of

Gilead plant. See Moldavica.

OLEUM TEMPLINUM. Oleum templinum verum. A terebinthinate oil obtained from the fresh cones of the Pinus abies of Linnæus.

OLEUM TERRÆ. See Petroleum.

OLEUM TEREBINTHINE RECTIFICATUM. "Rectified oil of turpentine, a pint; water, four pints." Distil over the oil. Stimulant, diuretic, and sudorific virtues are attributed to this preparation, in the dose of from ten drops to twenty, which are given in rheumatic pains of the chronic kind, especially sciatica. Its chief use internally, however, is as an anthelmintic and styptic. Uterine, pulmonic, gastric, intestinal, and other hemorrhages, when passive, are more effectually relieved by its exhibition than by any other medicine. Externally it is applied, mixed with

ointments, and other applications, to bruises, sprains, rheumatic pains, indolent ulcers, burns, and scalds.

OLEUM VINI. Stimulant and anodyne in the dose of from one to four drops.

OLFACTORY NERVES. (Nervi olfactorii; from olfactus, the sense of smelling.) The first pair of nerves are so termed, because they are the organs of smelling. They arise from the corpora striata, perforate the ethmoid bone, and are distributed very numerously on the pituitary membrane of the nose.

OLIBANUM. (From lebona, Chald.) Thus. Frankincense. This drug has received different appellations, according to its different appearances; the single tears are called simply ohbanum, or thus; when two are joined together, thus masculum; and when two are very large, thus femininum; if several adhere to the bark, thus corticosum; the fine powder, which rubs off from the tears, mica thuris; and the coarser, manna thuris. The gum-resin that is so called, is the juice of the Juniperus lycia;-foliis ternis undique imbricatis ovatis obtusis. and is brought from Turky and the East Indies; but that which comes from India is less esteemed. It is said to ooze spontaneously from the bark of the tree, appearing in drops, or tears, of a pale yellowish, and sometimes of a reddish colour. Olibanum has a moderately strong and not very agreeable smell, and a bitterish, somewhat pungent taste: in chewing it sticks to the teeth, becomes white, and renders the saliva milky. Laid on a red-hot iron, it readily catches flame, and burns with a strong diffusive and not unpleasant smell. On trituration with water, the greatest part of it dissolves into a milky liquor, which, on standing, deposits a portion of resinous matter. The gummy and resinous parts are nearly in equal proportions; and though rectified spirit dissolves less of the olibanum than water, it extracts nearly all its active matter. In antient times, olibanum seems to have been in great repute in affections of the head and breast, coughs, hæmoptysis, and in various fluxes, both uterine and intestinal; it was also much employed externally. Recourse is seldom had to this medicine, which is now superseded by myrrh, and other articles of the resinous kind. It is, however, esteemed by many as an adstringent, and though not in general use, is considered as a valuable medicine in fluor albus, and debilities of the stomach and intestines: applied externally in the form of plaster, it is said to be corroborant, &c. and with this intention it forms the basis of the emplastrum thuris.

OLIGOTROPHIA. (From oxigos, small, and τεφω, to nourish.) Deficient nourishment.

OLISTHEMA. (From ολισθαινώ, to fall out.) A luxation.

OLIVA. The olive. Olea sativa. The fruit of the Olea Europea of Linnæus: folis lanceolatis integerrimis, racemis axillaribus coarctatis. The olive-tree, in all ages has been greatly celebrated, and held in peculiar estimation, as the bounteous gift of heaven; it was formerly exhibited in the religious ceremonies of the Jows, and is still considered as emblematic of peace and plenty. The varieties of this tree are numerous, distinguished not only by the form of the leaves but also by the shape, size, and colour of the fruit; as the large Spanish olive, the small oblong Provence olive, &c. &c. These, when pickled, are well known to us by the names of Spanish and French olives, which are extremely grateful to many stomachs, and said to excite appetite and promote digestion; they are prepared from the green unripe fruit, which is repeatedly steeped in water, to which some quick-lime or alkaline salt is added, in order to shorten the operation: after this they are washed and preserved in a pickle of common salt and water, to which an aromatic is sometimes added. The principal consuption, however, of this fruit is in the prepation of the common sallad oil, or oleum olivæ of the pharmacopæias, which is obtained by grinding and pressing them when thoroughly ripe: the finer and purer oil issues first by gentle pressure, and the inferior sorts on heating what is left, and pressing it more strongly. The best olive oil is of a bright pale amber colour, bland to the taste, and without any smell: it becomes rancid by age, and sooner if kept in a warm situation. With regard to its utility, oil, in some shape, forms a considerable part of our food, both animal and vegetable, and affords much nourishment. With some, however, oily substances do not unite with the contents of the stomach, and are frequently brought up by eructation; this happens more especially to those whose stomachs abound with acid.-Oil, considered as a medicine, is supposed to correct acrimony, and to lubricate and relax the fibres; and therefore has been recommended internally, to obviate the effects of various stimuli, which produce irritation, and consequent inflammation: on this ground it has been generally prescribed in coughs, catarrhal affections, and erosions. The oil of olives is successfully used in Switzerland against the tænia osculis superficialibus, and it is in very high estimation in this and other countries against nephritic pains, spasms, cholic, constipation of the bowels, &c. Externally it has been found a useful application to bites and stings of various poisonous animals, as the mad dog, several scrpents, &c. also to burns, tumours, and other affections, both by itself or mixed in liniments or poultices. Oil rubbed over the body is said to

be of great service in dropsies, particularly ascites. Olive oil enters several officinal compositions, and when united with water, by the intervention of alkali, is usually given in coughs and hoarseness.

Olive-tree. See Olida. Olives. See Oliva.

Olive, spurge See Mezereum.

OLIVANIUS. (From oliva, the olive.) Oliviformis. Resembling the olive; applied to two eminences on the lower part of the medulla oblongata, called corpora olivaria.

OLOPHLYCTIS, (From ελες, whole, and φγυκτις, a pustule.) A small hot eruption, covering the whole body; when partial, it

is called phlyctæna.

OLUSATRUM. (Id est, olus atrum, the black herb, from its black leaves) Lovage. OMAGRA. (From ωμος, the shoulder, and αγει, a seizure.) The gout in the shoulder.

OMENTITIS. (Omentitis; from omentum, the caul.) Inflammation of the omen-

tum, a species of peritonitis.

OMENTUM. (From omen, a guess; so called because the soothsayers prophesies from an inspection of this part) Epiploon. The caul. An adipose membraneous viscus of the abdomen, that is attached to the stomach, and lies on the anterior surface of the intestines. It is thin and easily torn, being formed of a duplicature of the peritoneum, with more or less of fat interposed. It is distinguished into the great omentum and the little omentum.

The omentum majus, which is also termed omentum gastrocolicum, arises from the whole of the great curvature of the stomach, and even as far as the spleen, from whence it descends loosely behind the abdominal parieties, and over the intestines to the navel, and sometimes into the pelvis. Having descended thus far, its inferior margin turns inwards and ascends again, and is fastened to the colon and the spleen, where

its vessels enter.

The omentum minus, or omentum hepaticogastricum, arises posteriorly from the trans- . verse fissure of the liver. It is composed of a duplicature of peritoneum, passes over the duodenum, and small lobe of the liver; "it also passes by the lobulus spigelii and pancreas, proceeds into the colon and small curvature of the stomach, and is implanted ligamentous into the œsophagus. It is in this omentum that Winslow discovered a natural opening, which goes by his name. If air be blown in at the foramen of Winslow, which is always found behind the lobulus spigelii, between the right side of the liver and hepatic vessels, the vena portarum and duodenum, the cavity of the omentum, and all its sacs may be distended.

The omentum is always double, and between its lamellæ closely connected by very tender cellular substance, the vessels are dristributed and the fat collected. Where the top of the right kidney, and the lobulus spigelius of the liver, with the subjacent large vessels, form an angle with the duodenum, there the external membrane of the colon, which comes from the peritoneum joining with the membrane of the duodenum, which also arises immediately from the peritoneum lying upon the kidney, enters the back into the transverse fissure of the liver, for a considerable space, is continuous with its external coat. centains the gali-bladder supports the hepatic vessels, and is very yellow and slippery. Behind this membranous production, betwixt the right lobe of the liver, hepatic vessels, vena portarum, biliary ducts, aorta, and adjacent duodenum, there is the natural opening just mentioned, by which air may be blown extensively into all the cavity of the omentum. From thence, in a course continuous with this membrane from the pylorus and the smaller curvature of the stomach, the external membrane of the liver joins in such a manner with that of the stomach, that the thin membrane of the liver is continued out of the fossa of the venal duct, across the little lobe into the stomach, stretched before the lobe and before the pancreas. This little omentum, or omentum hepotico-gustricum, when inflated, resembles a cone, and gradually becoming harder and emaciated, it changes into a true ligament, by which the esophagus is connected to the diaphragm. But the larger omentum, the omentum gastrocaslicum, is of a much greater extent. It begins at the first accession of the right gastro-epiploic artery to the stomach, being continued there from the upper plate of the transverse mesocolon; and then from the whole great curve of the stomach, as far as the spleen, and also from the right convex end of the stomach towards the spleen, until it also terminates in a ligament, that ties the upper and back part of the spleen to the stomach: this is the anterior lamina. Being continued downward, sometimes to the navel, sometimes to the pelvis, it hangs before the intestines, and behind the muscles of the abdomen, until its lower edge being reflected upon itself, ascends, leaving an intermediate vacuity between it and the anterior lamina, and is continued to a very great extent, into the internal membrane of the transverse colon, and lastly, into the sinus of the spicen, by which the large blood-vessels are received, and it ends finally on the œsophagus, under the diaphragm. Behind the stomach, and beforc the pancreas, its cavity is continuous with that of the smaller omentum. To this the omentum colicum is connected, which arises farther to the right than the first origin of the omentum gastrocolicum from the mesocolon, with the cavity of which it is continuous, but produced solely from the colon and its external membrane, which departs double from the intestine; it is prolonged, and terminates by a conical extremity, sometimes of longer, sometimes of shorter extent, above the intestinum excum. For all the blood which returns from the omentum and mesocolon, goes into the vena portarum, and by that into the liver itself. The omentum gastrocolicum is furnished with blood from each of the gastro-epiploic arteries, by many descending articulated branches, of which the most lateral are the longest, and the lowest anastomose by minute twigs with those of the colon. It also has branches from the splenic, duodenal, and adipose arteries, The omentum colicium has its arteries from the colon, as also the smaller appendices, and also from the duodenal and right epiploic. The arteries of the small omentum come from the hepatics, and from the right and left coronaries. The omentum being fat and indolent, has very small nerves. They arise from the nerves of the eighth pair, both in the greater and lesser curvatures of the stomach. The arteries of the mesentery are in general the same with those which go to the intestine, and of which the smaller branches remain in the glands and fat of the mesentery. Various small accessory arteries go to both mesocolons, from the intercostals, spermatics, lumbars, and capsular, to the transverse portion from the splenic artery, and pancreato-duodenalis, and to the left mesocolon, from the branches of the aorta going to the lumbar glands. The veins of the omentum in general accompany the arteries, and unite into simular trunks; those of the left part of the gastrocolic omentum into the splenic, and also those of the hepatigastric, which likewise sends its blood to the trunk of the vena portarum; those from the larger and right part of the gastrocolic omentum, from the omentum colicum, and from the appendices epiploides, into the mesenteric trunk. All the veins of the mesentery meet together in one wick, in the true trunk of the large vena portarum, being collected first into two large branches, of which the one, the mesenteric, receives the gastro-epiploic vein, the colica mediæ, the iliocolica, and all those of the small intestines, as far as the duodenum; the other, which going transversely, inserts itself into the former, above the origin of the duodenum, carries back the blood of the left gastric veins, and those of the rectum, except the lowermost, which belongs partly to those of the bladder and partly to the hypogastric branches of the pelvis. The vein which is called hæmorrhoidalis interna is sometimes inserted rather into the splenic than into the mesenteric vein. Has the omentum also lymphatic vessels? Certainly there are conglobate glands, both in the little omentum and in

ONO

the gastro-colicum; and ancient anatomists have observed pellucid vessels in the omentum; and a modern has described them for lacteals of the stomach.

OMENTUM COLICUM. See Omentum. OMENTUM GASTRO-COLICUM. See Omen-

OMENTUM HEPATICO-GASTRICUM. See Omentum.

OMO. Names compounded with this word belong to muscles which are attached to the scapula; from apos, the shoulder, As,

OMOCOTYLE. (From ωμως, the shoulder, and κοτυλη, a cavity.) The cavity in the extremity of the neck of the scapula, in which the head of the humerus is articulated.

OMO-HYOIDEUS. Caroco-hyoideus of Albinus and Douglas, scapulo hyodien of Dumas. A muscle situated between the os hyoides and shoulder, that pulls the os hyoides obliquely downwards. It acises broad, thin, and fleshy, from the superior costa of the scapula, near the semilunar notch, and from the ligament that runs across it; thence ascending obliquely, it becomes tendinous below the sternocleidomastoideus, and growing fleshy again, is inserted into the base of the os hyoides.

OMOPLATA. (From ωμος, the shoulder, and ωλατυς, broad.) See Seapula.

Omoplato-hvoideus. The same as Omohyoideus.

Ομοτοcos. (From ωμος, crude, and τιατω, to bring forth.) A miscarriage.

OMOTHERS. (From whos, crude, and telsa, to bruise.) Oil expressed from unripe olives.

OMPHACINUM. (From ομφακίον, the juice of unripe grapes.) Oil expressed from unripe olives.

OMPRACION. Omphacium. (From ομφακος, an unripe grape.) The juice of unripe grapes; and by some applied to that of wild apples, or crabs, commonly called Vertice.

OMPHACITIS. (From υμφακος, an unripe grape, because it resembles an unripe grape in its sour astringent state.) A small kind of gall; an excrescence from the oak.

ONPHACOMELL. (From ομφακος, an unripe grape, and μελ, honey.) A sort of oxymel made of the juice of unripe grapes and honey.

OMPHALOCARPUS. (From ομφαλος, the navel, and μαρατος, fruit; so called because its fruit resembles a navel.) Cleavers; hayriff.

OMPHALOCELE. (From ομφαλος, the navel, and καλα, a tumour.) An umbilical hernia. See Hernia.

Omerationes. (From ομφαλος, a navel; so named because the calyx is excavated in the middle like the human navel.) A plant resembling borage.

OMPHALOMANTIA. (From ομφαλος, the navel, and μαντεω, to prophesy.) The foolish vaticination of midwives, who pretend to foretel the number of the future

offspring from the number of knots in the navel.

OMPHALOS. (From ομφαλισκα, to roll up.) The navel.

OMPHALOTOMIA. (From ομφαλος, the navel, and τεμνο, to cut.) The separation of the navel-string.

ONAGRA. (From oranges, the wild ass, so called because it is said to tame wild beasts.) Also a name for the rheumatism in the ellow.

ONEIRODYNIA. (From overgov, a dream, and odown, anxiety.) Disturbed imagination during sleep. A genus of disease in the class Neuroses, and order Vesaniæ of Cullen, containing two species,

1. Oneirodynia activa, walking in the sleep.

2. Oneirodynia gravans, the incubus, or

night-mare. See Night-mare.
ONEIROGMOS. (From overgog to, to dream.)

Venereal dreams.
ONEHROGONOS. (From oragos, a dream, and you, the seed.) So the Greeks call an occasional emission of the semen in sleep,

when it only happens rarely.

Onion. See Cepa.

Onion, sea. See Scilla.

Onis. (From over, an ass.) the dung of an ass. It was in repute with Hippocrates.

Oniscus- (From over, an ass; so called because like the ass it requires much beating before it is useful.) The stock-fish. Also the slow-worm.

ONISCUS ASELLUS. The systematic name of the woodlouse. See Millepedes.

ONITIS. (From 6065, an ass, because asses covet it.) The origanum plant.

Onorrents. (From ever, an ass, and βενχω, to bray; so called, according to Blanchard, because the smell or taste makes asses bray.) Holy hay: saintfoin; cockshead vetch.

ONONIS. (From cros, an ass, because it interrupts asses when at plough.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaen system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandrio. 2. The pharmacopoial name of the Resta. bovis. Arresta bovis. Remora aratri. Rest harrow. The roots of this plant, Ononis spinosa, vel arvensis of Linnaeus, have faint unpleasant snell, and a sweetish, bitterish, somewhat nauseous taste. Their active matter is confined to the cortical part, which has been sometimes given in powder, or other forms, as an aperient and diuretic.

Ononis arvensis. The systematic name of the rest harrow. See Ononis.

Ononis srinosa. The systematic name of the rest harrow. See Ononis.

Onopordium acanthium. (Oyomogdor; from ores, an ass, and negdo, to break wind; so named from its being much coveted by asses, and from the noise it makes upon pressure.) The systematic name of the cotton-thistle. See Carduus tormentosus.

ONOSMA ECHIOIDES. The systematic name of the plant whose root is called anchusa lutea in some pharmacopæias. It is supposed to possess menagogue virtues.

ONYCHIA. (From ovue, the nail.) A whitlow at the side of the finger nail.

ONYX. Ovig. Unguis. An abscess, or collection of pus between the lamella of the cornea; so called from its resemblance to the stone called onyx. The diagnostic signs are, a white spot or speck, prominent, soft, and fluctuating. The species are:

1. Abscessus superficialis, arising from inflammation, not dangerous, for it vanishes when the inflammation is resolved by

the use of astringent collyria.

2. Abscessus profundus, or a deep abscess, which is deeper seated between the lamellæ of the cornea, sometimes breaking internally, and forming an hypopium: when it opens externally it leaves a fistula upon the cornea; whenever the pus is exsecuted, there remains a leucoma.

ODEIDES. (From wor, an egg, and woo, a likeness.) An epithet for the aqueous

humour of the eye.

Ophioglossum, and ειδος, a likeness.) A fungus resembling the adder's tongue.

OPINOGLOSSUM. (From οφε, a serpent, and γλωσσα, a tongue; so called from the resemblance of its fruit.) Adders tongue.

Ophioriniza mungos. The systematic

name of the plant whose root is called radix serpentum in the pharmacopæias. See

Mungos radix.

Ophioscoronon. (From opic, a serpent, and oxogoton, garlic, so named because it is spotted like a serpent.) Broad-leaved garlic.

Ophiostaphylum. (From οφις, a serpent, and σαφυλή, a berry, so called because serpents feed upon its berries.) White briony.

See Bryonia.

Ophication serpentinum. The systematic name of the tree whose wood is termed lignum serpentinum. See Serpentinum ignum.

OPHRYS. (Ocque. The lowest part of the forehead, where the eye-brows grow. Also an herb so called because its juice was used to make the hair of the eye-brows black.

OPHTHALMIA. (From οφθαλμος, the Ophthalmitis. An inflammation of the membranes of the eye, or of the whole The symptoms which bulb of the eye. characterize this disease are a preternatural redness of the tunica conjunctiva, owing to a turgescence of its blood-vessel; pain and heat over the whole surface of the eye, often attended with a sensation of some extraneous body between the eye and eyelid and a plentiful effusion of tears. All these symptoms are commonly increased by motion of the eye, or its coverings, and likewise by exposure to light. We judge

of the depth of the inflammation by that degree of pain produced by light thrown upon the eye. When the pain produced by light is considerable, we have much reason to imagine that the parts at the bottom of the eye, and especially the retina, are chiefly affected, and, vice versa, when the pain is not much increased by this exposure, we conclude with great probability that the inflamation is confined perhaps entirely to the external covering of the eye. In superficial affections of this kind too the symptoms are in general local; but, whenever the inflammation is deep seated, it is attended with severe shooting pains through the head, and fever to a greater or less degree commonly takes place. During the whole course of the disease there is for the most part a very plentiful flow of tears, which frequently become so hot and acrid as to excoriate the neighbouring parts, but it often happens after the disease has been of some duration, that together with the tears a considerable quantity of a yellow purulent-like matter is discharged, and when the inflammation has either spread to the eyelids, or has been seated there from the beginning, as soon as the tarsi becomes affected a discharge takes place of a viscid glutinous kind of matter, which greatly adds to the patient's distress, as it tends to increase the inflammation by cementing the eye-lids so firmly together as to render it extremely difficult to separate

Ophthalmia is divided into external, when the inflammation is superficial, and internal, when the inflammation is deep seated, and the globe of the eye is much affected.

In severe ophthalmia two distinct stages are commonly observable; the first is attended with a great deal of heat and pain in the eye, and considerable febrile disorder; the second is comparatively a chronic affection without pain and fever. The eye is merely weakened, moister than in the healthy state, and more or less red.

Ophthalmia may be induced by a variety of exciting causes as operate in producing inflammation in other situations. A severe cold in which the eyes are affected at the same time with the pituitary cavities, fauces, and trachea; change of weather; sudden transition from heat to cold; the prevalence of cold winds, residence in damp or sandy countries, in the hot season; exposure of the eyes to the vivid rays of the sun; are causes usually enumerated, and considering which, it does not seem extraordinary that ophthalmia should often make its appearance as an epidemic, and afflict persons of every age and sex. Besides these exciting causes, writers also generally mention the suppression of some habitual discharge, as of the menses, bleedings from the nose, from hæmorrhoids, &c. Besides which, inflammation of the eyes may be

occasioned by the venereal and scrophulous virus.

OPHTHALMIC GANGLION. Ganglion ophthalmicum. Lenticular ganglion. This ganglion is formed in the orbit, by the union of a branch of the third or fourth pair with the first branch of the fifth pair of nerves.

OPHTHALMIC NERVE. Nervus opthalmicus. Orbital nerve. The first branch of the ganglion or expansion of the fifth pair of nerves. It is from this nerve that a branch is given off, to form, with a branch of the sixth, the great intercostal nerve.

OPTHALMICI EXTERNI. See Metores oculorum.

OPHTHALMODYNIA. (From oφθαος, an eye, and oθουπ, pain.) A vehement pain in the eye, without, or with very little redness. The sensation of pain is various, as itching, burning, or as if gravel were between the globe of the eye and ids. The species are:

1. Ophthalmodinia rheumatica, which is a pain in the muscular expansions of the globe of the eye, without redness in the albuginea. The rheumatic inflammation is serous, and rarely produces redness.

2. Ophthalmodynia periodica, is a periodical pain in the eye, without redness.

3. Ophthalmodnyia spasmodica, is a pressing pain in the bulb of the eye, arising from spasmodic contractions of the muscles of the eye, in nervous, hysteric, and hypochondriac persons. It is observed to terminate by a flow of tears.

4. Ophthalmodynia from an internal inflammation of the eye. In this disorder, there is a pain and sensation as if the globe was

pressed out of the orbit.

5. Ophthalmodynia hydropthalmica. After a great pain in the inferior part of the os frontis, the sight is obscured, the pupil is dilated, and the bulb of the eye appears larger, pressing on the lid. This species is likewise perceived from an incipient hydropthalmia of the vitrcous humour.

 Ophthalmodynia arenosa, is an itching and sensation of pain in the eye, as if sand or gravel were lodged between the globe

and lid.

7. Ophthalmodynia symptomatica, which is a symptom of some other eye-disease, and is to be cured by removing the exciting cause.

8. Ophthalmodynia cancrosa, which arises from cancerous acrimony deposited in the

eye, and is rarely curable.

Ophthalmoronia. (From οφθαλμος, the eye, and ποιω, to labour.) An intense pain in the eye, whence the light is intolerable.

OPHTHALMOPYOSIS. (From οφθαλμος, an eye, and πλοτις, a fall.) A falling down of the globe of the eye on the cheek, canthus, or upwards, the globe itself being

scarce altered in magnitude. The cause is a relaxation of the muscles, and ligamentous expansions of the globe of the eye. The species are:

1. Ophthalmoptosis violenta, which is generated by a violent contusion or strong stroke, as happens sometimes in boxing. The eye falls out of the socket on the clieck or canthus of the eye, and from the elongation and extension of the optic nerve occasions immediate blindness.

2. Ophthalmoptosis, from a tumour within the orbit. An exostosis, tophs, abscess, encysted tumours, as, atheroma, lygroma, or schirrhus, forming within the orbit, induration of the orbital atleps, may throw the bulb of the eye out of the socket upwards, downwards, or towards either canthus.

 Ophthalmoptosis paralytica, or the paralytic ophthalmoptosis, which arises from a paralysis or palsy of the recti muscles, from hence a stronger power in the oblique

muscles of the bulb.

4. Ophthalmoptosis staphylomatica, when the staphyloma depresses the inferior eye-

hid and extends on the cheek.

OPIATE. (Medicamentum opiatum; from the effects being like that of opium.) A medicinc that procures sleep, &c. See Anodynes.

Orion. (Oriov.) Opium.

Orismus. (From 6710), opium.) An opiate confection.

OPISTHEMAR. (From structure, backwards and  $\theta w \alpha g$ , the palm.) The back part of the palm.

OPISTHOGRANIUM. (From controls, back. ward, and season, the head.) The occiput, or hinder part of the head.

OPISTHOCKPHOSIS. (From οπισθεν, backward, and κυφωσις, a gibbosity.) A curved

spine

OPISTHOTONOS. (From οπισθεν, backwards, and τείνου, to draw.) A fixed spasm of several muscles, so as to keep the body in a fixed position, and bent backwards. Cullen considers it as a variety of tetantus. See Tetanus.

OPIUM. (Probably from \$\pi\pi\sigma\

The species of poppy is the papaver somniferum, of Linnaus:—calycibus capsulisque glabris foliis amplexicaulibus incisis. It is brought from Turkey, Egypt, the East Indies, and other parts of Asia, where poppies are cultivated for this use in fields, as corn among us. The manner in which it is collected has been described long ago by . OPIUM.

Kæmpfer and others; but the most cir- spissated by a gentle heat; this was for-cumstantial detail of the culture of the merly called meconium, in distinction from poppy, and the method of procuring the opium, is that given by Mr. Kerr, as practised in the province of Bahar; he says, "The field being well prepared by the plough and harrow, and reduced to an exact level superficies, it is then divided into quadrangular areas of seven feet long, and five feet in breadth, leaving two feet of interval, which is raised five or six inches, and excavated into an aqueduct for conveying water to every area, for which purpose they have a well in every cultivated field. The seeds are sown in October or November. The plants are allowed to grow six or eight inches distant from each other, and are plentifully supplied with water; when the young plants are six or eight inches high, they are watered more sparingly. But the cultivator spreads all over the areas a nutrient compost of ashes, human excrements, cowdung, and a large portion of nitrous earth, scraped from the highways and old mud walls. When the plants are nigh-flowering, they are watered profusely, to increase the juice.

When the capsules are half grown, no more water is given, and they begin to col-

lect the opium.

At sunset they make two longitudinal double incisions upon each half ripe capsule, passing from below upwards, and taking care not to penetrate the internal cavity of the capsule. The incisions are repeated every evening until each capsule has received six or eight wounds; then are they allowed to ripen their seeds. The ripe capsules afford little or no juice. If the wound was made in the heat of the day, a cicatrix would be too soon formed. The night dews, by their moisture, favour

the exstillation of the juice. Early in the morning; old women, boys, and girls, collect the juice by scraping it off the wounds with a small iron scoop, and deposit the whole in an earthen pot, where it is worked by the hand in the open sunshine, until it becomes of a considerable spissitude. It is then formed into cakes of a globular shape, and about four pounds in weight, and laid into little earthen basins to be further exsiccated. These cakes are covered over with the poppy or tobacco leaves, and dried until they are fit for sale. Opium is frequently adulterated with cow-dung, the extract of the poppy plant procured by boiling and various other substances which they keep in secresy."

This process, however, is now but rarely practised, the consumption of this drug being too great to be supplied by that me-

thod of collection.

The best sort of the officinal opium is the expressed juice of the heads, or of the heads and the upper part of the stalks inthe true opium, or juice which issues spon-

taneously.

The inferior sorts (for there are considerable differences in the quality of this drug,) are said to be prepared by boiling the plant in water and evaporating the strained decoction; but as no kind of our opium will totally dissolve in water, the juice is most probably extracted by expression. Newman was informed by some Turks at Genoa and Leghorn, that in some places the heads, stalks, and leaves are committed to the press together, and that this juice inspissated affords a very good opium.

On this head Dr. Lewis remarks, that the point has not yet been fully determined. It is commonly supposed, that whatever preparations the Turks may make from the poppy for their own use, the opium brought to us is really the milky juice collected from incisions made in the heads, as described by Kæmpfer. It is certain that an extract made by boiling the heads, or the heads and stalks in water, is much weaker than opium; but it appears also, that the pure milky tears are considerably stronger.

The principles separable from opium are, a resin, gum, a minute proportion of saline matter, water and earth, which are intimately combined together, insomuch that all the three dissolve almost equally in water and in spirit. It is probably to the saline principle Nicholson observes in this and other vegetables that the intimacy of

union is in great measure to be ascribed.

Four ounces of opium, treated with alkohol, yielded three ounces and four scru-ples of resinous extract; five drachms and a scruple of insoluble impurities remaining. On taking four ounces more, and applying water at first, Newman obtained ounces five drachms and one scruple of gummy extract; the insoluble part amounting here to seven drachms and a scruple. In distillation, alkohol brought over little or nothing; but the distilled water was considerably impregnated with the peculiar ill smell of opium.

From this analysis may be estimated the effects of different solvents upon it. Alcohol and proof spirit dissolving its resin, afford tinctures possessing all its virtues. Water dissolves its gummy part, which is much less active, but a part of the resin is at the same time taken up by the medium of the gum. Wines also afford solutions possessing the virtues of opium. negar dissolves its active matter, greatly impairs its powers.

The use of this celebrated medicine, though not unknown to Hippocrates, car. be clearly traced to Diagoras, who was nearly his cotemporary, and its importance has ever since been gradually advanced by

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succeeding physicians of different nations. Its extensive practical utility, however, has not been long well understood; and in this country perhaps may be dated from the time of Sydenham. Opinm is the chief narcotic now employed; it acts directly upon the nervous power, diminishing the sensibility, irritability, and mobibility of the system; and, according to Cullen, in a certain manner suspending the motion of the nervous fluid to and from the brain, and thereby inducing sleep, one of its principal effects. From this sedative power of opinin, by which it allays pain, inordinate action, and restlessness, it naturally follows that it may be employed with advantage in a great varie-Indeed, there is scarcely ty of diseases. any disorder, in which, under some circumstances, its use is not found proper; and though in many cases it fails of producing sleep, yet, if taken in a full dose, it occasions a pleasant tranquillity of mind, and a drowsiness, which approaches to sleep, and which always refreshes the patient. Besides the sedative power of opium, it is known to act more or less as a stimulant, when given in a larger dose, exciting the motion of the blood. By a certain conjoined effort of this sedative and stimulint effect, opium has been thought to produce intoxication, a quality for which it is much used in eastern countries.

The principal indications which opium is capable of fulfilling are, supporting the actions of the system, allaying pain and irritation, relieving spasmodic ac ion, inducing sleep, and checking morbidly increased secretions. It is differently administered, as it is designed to fulfil one or

other of these indications.

Where opium is given as a stimulus, it ought to be administered in small doses frequently repeated, and slowly increased, as by this mode the excitement it produces is best kept up. But when the design is to mitigate pain or irritation, or the symptoms arising from these, it ought to be given in a full dose, and at distant intervals, by which the state of diminished power and sensibility is most completely induced.

One other general rule, with respect to the administration of opium, is, that it ought not to be given in any pure inflammatory affection, at least until evacuations have been used, or unless means are employed to determine it to the surface, and

produce a diaphoresis.

In continued fevers, not of the pure inflammatory kind, opium is administered sometimes as a general stimulus, and at other times to allay irritation. The great practical rule in such cases is, that it ought to be given in such quantities only, that the pulse becomes slower and fuller from its operation. Its exhibition is improper, where local inflammation, especially of the brain, or of its membranes, exists.

La micrimition fever, the exhibition of an opiate renders the paroxysms milder, and facilitates the cure. Dr. Cullen reconmends the mion of opium with bark, which enables the stomach to bear the latter in larger doses, and adds considerably to its efficacy.

In the greater number of the profluvia catarrh cholera, opium is employed to lessen the discharge, and is frequently the principal remedy in effecting the cure. In passive, hæmorrhagy, it proves useful by its stimulant power. In retrocedent gout it is used as a powerful stimulant.

In convulsive and spasmodic diseases it is advantageously administered, with the view of relieving symptoms, or even of effecting a permanent cure, and in several of them it requires to be given to a very great

extent.

In lues venerea it promotes the action of mercury, and relieves the irritation arising either from that remedy, or from the disease.

In the year 1779, opium was introduced into practice as a specific against the lues venerea. It was employed in several of the military hospitals, where it acquired the reputation of a most efficacious remedy; and Dr. Michaelis, physician of the Hessian forces, published an account of a great number of successful experiments made with it, in the first volume of the Medical Communications in the year 1784. Opium was afterwards given as an antivenereal remedy in some foreign hospitals. Many trials were also made of its virtues in several of the London hospitals, and in the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh. Very favourable reports of its efficacy in removing venereal complaints were published by different practitioners; but, at the same time, so many deductions were to be made, and so many exceptions are to be admitted, that it required little sagacity to discover, that most of the advocates for this medicine reposed by a slender and fluctuating confidence in its antivenereal powers. Mr. Pearson made several experiments on the virtues of opium in lues venerea, at the Lock Hospital, in the years 1784 and 1785; and published a narrative of its effects, in the second vo-lume of the Medical Communications. "The result of my experiments," says he, " was very unfavourable to the credit of this new remedy; and I believe that no surgeon in this country relies on opium as a specific against the venereal virus. I have been long accustomed to administer opium with great freedom during the venereal course; and the experience of nearly twenty years has taught me, that, when it is combined with mercury, the proner efficacy of the latter is not in any measure increased; that it would not be safe to rely

OPIUM.

upon a smaller quantity of the mineral its most valuable properties would be able specific, nor to contract the mercurial course within a shorter limit than where no opium has been employed. This representation will not, I presume, admit of controversy; yet we frequently hear people expressing themselves upon this head, as if opium manifested some peculiar qualities in venereal complaints, of a distinct nature from its well known narcotic properties, and thus afforded an important aid to mercury in the removal of lues venerea." Perhaps it may not be unuseful to disentangle this subject from the perplexity in which such indefinite language necessarily involves it. Opiam, when given in conjunction with mercury, by diminishing the sensibility of the stomach and bowels, prevents many of those inconveniences which this mineral is apt to excite in the primæ viæ; and thus its admission into the general system is facilitated. Mercury will likewise often produce a morbid irritability, accompanied with restlessness and insomnolescence, and it sometimes renders venereal sores painful, and disposed to spread. These accidental evils, not necessarily connected with the venereal disease, may be commonly alleviated, and often entirely removed, by a judicious administration of opium; and the patient will consequently be enabled to persist in using the mineral specific. It however, must be perfectly obvious, that opium, in conferring this sort of relief, communicates no additional virtues to mercury, and that, in reality, it assists the constitution of the patient, not the operation of the medicine with which it is combined. The salutary effects of mercury, as an antidote, may be diminished or lost by the supervention of vomiting, dysentery, &c. Opium will often correct these morbid appearances, and so will spices, wine, an appropriate diet, &c. yet it would be a strange use of words to urge, wherever these articles of food were beneficial to a venereal patient, that they concurred in augmenting the medicinal virtues of mcrcury. It may be supposed that the majority of medical men would understand, by the terms " to assist a medicine in curing a contagious disease," that the drug conjoined with the specific actually increased its medicinal efficacy; whereas, in the instances before us, it is the human body only, which has been aided to resist the operation of certain noxious powers, which would render a preference in the antidote prejudicial or impossible. The soothing qualities of this admirable medicine can scarcely be estimated too highly. Yet we must beware of ascribing effects to them which have no existence; since a confidence in the antivenereal virtue of opium would be a source of greater mischief, than

to compensate.

Opium is employed with laxatives in colic, and often prevents ileus and inflammation, by relieving the spasm.

It is often given to promote healthy suppuration, and is a principal remedy in arresting the progress of gangrene.

The sudorific property of opium is justly considered of considerable power, more especially in combination with ipecacuan or antimony. The combined powder of ipecacuan, consisting of one part of ipecacuan, one part of opium, and eight of sulphat of potash, is a very powerful sudorific, given in a dose from 15 to 25 grains. The combination of opium with antimony is generally made by adding 30 to 40 drops of antimonial wine to 25 or 30 drops of tincture of opium, and forming them into a dranght.

Opium, taken into the stomach in immoderate doses, proves a narcotic poison, psoducing vertigo, tremors, convulsions, delirium, stupor, stertor, and, finally, fatal

apoplexy.

Where opium has been taken so as to produce these dangerous consequences, the contents of the stomach are first to be evacuated by a powerful emetic, as a solulution of the sulphat of zinc. draughts of vinegar, or any of the native vegetable acids, are then to be swal-lowed. Moderate doses of brandy, or a strong infusion of coffee, have also been found useful.

Respecting the external application of opium, authors seem not sufficiently agreed. Some allege, that when applied to the skin it allays pain and spasm, procures sleep, and produces all the salutary or dangerous effects which result from its internal use; while others say, that thus apphed it has little or no effect whatever. It has also been asserted, that when mixed with caustic it diminishes the pain which would otherwise ensue; and if this be true, it is probably by decreasing the sensibility of the part. Injected by the rectuin, it has all the effect of opium taken into the stomach; but to answer this purpose, double the quantity is to be employed. Applied to the naked nerves of animals, it produces immediate torpor and loss of power in all the muscles with which the nerves communicate.

The requisite dose of opium varies in different persons, and in different states of the same person. A quarter of a grain will in one adult produce effects which ten times the quantity will not do in another; and a dose that might prove fatal in cholera or colic, would not be perceptible in many cases of tetanus, or mania. The lowest fatal dose, to those unaccustomed to take it, seems to be about four grains; but a dangerous dose is so apt to produce

vomiting, that it has seldom time to occasion death. When given in too small a dose, it often produces disturbed sleep, and other disagreeable consequences; and in some cases it seems impossible to be made to agree in any dosc or form. Often, on the other hand, from a small dosc, sound sleep and alleviation of pain will be produced; while a larger one occasions vertigo and delirium. Some prefer the reperition of small doses; others the giving a full dose at once: its operation is supposed to last about eight hours; this however must depend upon circumstances. The usual dose is one grain. The officinal preparations of this drug are numerous. The following are among the principal: Opium purificatum, pilula ex opro, pulvis opiatus, tinetura opii, tinetura opii camphorata, and confectio opii: it is also an ingredient in the pulvis ipecacuanha compositus, electuarium japonicum, pulvis e cretacompositus, &c.

OPOBALSAMUM. (From orros. juice, and Panoapor, balsant.) See Bulsamum Gilea-

OPOCALPASON. (From ores, juice, and κιλπασοςα, a tree of that name.) Opicurpison. The juice of a tree called Calpast. It resembles myrrh, but is poisonous.

OPUDEOCELE. A ruptue through the foramen ischii, or into the labia pudendi. OPODELDOC. A term of no meaning,

frequently mentioned by Paracelsus. Formerly it signified a plaster for all external injuries, but now is confined to a campho-

rated soap liniment.

OPOPANAX. (From oros, juice, and Tavas, the panacea.) The plant from whence the gum is produced is known by the names of opoponacum, panax heracleum, panax costinum, panax pastinacea, kyna, Hercules all heal, and opoponaxwort. Pastinaca opopanax of Linnaus; foliis pinnatis, foliolis basi antica excisis. Opopanax is the gumni-resinous juice obtained by means of incisions made at the bottom of the stalk of the plant, from which it gradually exudes, and by undergoing spontancous concretion, assumes the appearance under which we have it imported from Turkey, and the East Indies, viz. sometimes in little drops or tears, more commonly in irregular lumps, of a reddish yellow colour on the outside, with specks of white; internally of a paler colour, and frequently variegated with large white pieces. Opoponax has a strong disagreeable smell, and a bitter, acrid, somewhat nauscous tastc. only employed in the present practice as an antispasmodic, in combination with other medicines, although it was formerly in high estimation as an attenuant, deobstruent, and aperient. Its antispasmodic virtues arc less powerful than galbanum,

and more so than ammoniacum. It has no place in the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, but is directed by the London College in the pilula galbani composita.

OPOPIA (From orrowal, to see.) The

bones of the eyes.

OPORICE. (From oroga, autumnal fruits.) A conserve made of ripe fruits.

OPPHATIO. (From oppile, to shut up.) Oppulation is a close kind of obstruction; for, according to Rhodius, it signifies, not only to shut out, but also to fill.

OPPILATIVA. (From oppilo, to shut up.) Medicines or substances which shut ap the

Sec Flexor ossis OPPONENS POLLICIS.

metacarpi pollicis.

OPPRESSIO. The catalepsy, or any pressure upon the brain.

Opsigonos. (From it, late, and pivoual, to be born.) A dens sapientiæ, or late cut tooth.

OPTIC NERVES. (Nervi optici, from official, to sec: because they are the organs of sight.) The second pair of nerves of the brain, they arise from the thalami, nervorum opticorum, perforate the bulb of the eye, and in it form the retina.

OPUNTIA. (.16 opunte, from the city Opus, near which it flourished.) prickly leaves of this plant, Cacius opuntia of Linnzus, abound with a mucillagmous matter, which is esteemed in its native countries an emollient, in the form of poultice.

Orache, stinking. See Atriplex fatida.

Orange. See Aurantium.

Orange, Seville. See Aurantium.
Orange, shaddock. See Shaddock.
ORBICULARE OS. (Orbicularis,

shaped like a ring, from orbiculus, a little ring.) Os pisiforme. A name of a bone of the carpus. Also a very small round bone, not larger han a pin-head, that belongs to the internal ear.

ORBICULARIS ORIS. (Musculus orbicularis oris, from orbiculus, a little ring; so called from its shape.) Sphincter laborium of Douglass, semi orbicularis of Winslow, constrictor oris of Cowper, and labial of Dumas. A muscle of the mouth, formed in a great measure by those of the lips; the fibres of the superior descending, those of the inferior ascending, and decussating each other about the corner of the mouth; they run along the lip to join those of the opposite side, so that the fleshy fibres appear to surround the mouth like a sphincter. Its use is to shut the mouth, by contracting and drawing both lips together, and to counteract all the muscles that assist in forming it.

ORBICULARIS PALPEBRARUM. Or. bicularis, scil. musculus. Orbicularis palpebrarum ciliaris of authors, and maxillo palpebral of Dumas. A muscle common to both the cyclids. It arises by a number

of fleshy fibres from the outer edge of the orbitar process of the superior maxillary bone, and from a tendon near the inner angle of the eye; these fibres run a little downward, and outwards, over the upper part of the cheek, below the orbit, covering the under eyelid, and surround the external angle, being closely connected only to the skin and fat; they then run over the superciliary ridge of the os frontis, towards the inner canthus, where they mix with the fibre of the os oecipito-frontalis and corrugator supercilii: then eovering the upper eyelid, they descend to the inner angle, opposite to their inferior origin, and firmly adhere to the internal angular process of the os frontis, and to the short round tendon which serves to fix the palpebræ and muscular fibres arising It is inserted into the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone by a short round tendon, covering the anterior and upper part of the lachrymal sac, which tendon can be easily felt at the inner canthus of the eye. The use of this muscle is to shut the eye, by drawing both lids together, the fibres contracting from the outer angle towards the inner, press the eyeball, squeeze the lachrymal gland, and convey the tears towards the puncta lachrymalia.

ORBICULARIS PALPERRARUM CILIARIS. See

Orbicularis palpebrarum.

ORBITS. Orbita. The two cavities under the forehead, in which the eyes are situated, are so termed. The angles of the orbits are called canthi. Each orbit is composed of seven bones, viz. the frontal, maxillary, jugal, lachrymal, ethmoid, palatine, and sphanoid The use of this bony socket is to maintain and defend the organ of sight, and its adjacent parts.

ORCHEA. (From ogxis, a testicle.) Ga-

len says it is the scrotum.

ORCHIS. (From opeyopau, to desire.)

1. A testicle.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Gyuandria. Order, Diandria.

ORCHIS BIFOLIA. The systematic name of the butterfly orchis. See Satyrion.

ORCHIS MASCULA The systematic name

of the male orchis. See Satyrion.
Onemis Monio. The systematic name of the orchis from whose root the salep is made. See Salep,

ORCHITIS. (From ogxis, a testicle.)

See Hernia humoralis.

Orchos. (From ogxos, a plantation or orchard; so called from the regularity with which the hairs are inserted.) extremities of the eye-lids, where the eyelashes grow.

ORCHOTOMY. (From ogxis, a testicle, and reuvo, to cut.) Castration. The operation of extracting a testicle.

(From opos, a mountain, OREOSELINUM. and σελινον, parsley, so named because it grows wild upon mountains.) Black mountain parsley. The root and seed of this plant, Athaminta oreoselinum of Linnæus, foliolis divaricatis, as well as the whole herb, were formerly used medicinally. Though formerly in so high estimation as to obtain the epithet of polychesta, this plant is seldom used in the practice of the present day. An extract and tincture prepared from the root were said to be attenuant aperient, deobstruent, and lithoutriptic. The oil obtained by distillation from the seed was esteemed to allay the toothach; and the whole was recommended as an antiscorbutic and corrobo-

ORESTION. (From egos, a mountain.) In Doscorides it is the Helenium, or a kind of elecampane growing upon mountains.

OREXIS (From ogegopus, to desire.)

Orexia. The appetite,
ORICIA. (From Oricus, a city of Epirus, near which it grows.) A species of fir or turpentine tree.

ORIENTALIA FOLIA. The leaves of

senna.

ORIGANUM. (From opos, a mountain, and yavee, to rejoice, so called because it grows upon the side of mountains.)

1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Dydinamia. Or-

der, Gymnospermia

2 The charmacopecial name of Majorana mancarana. Originanum heracloeticum, from Heraclea, where the best was said to be produced. Zazarhendi herba. Wild marjorum. Origanum vulgare of Linnæus: spicis subrotunais paniculatis conglomeratis, bracteis calyce longioribus ovatis plant grows wild in many parts of Bri-It has an agrecable aromatic smell, approaching to that of marjoram, and a pungent taste, much resembling thyme, to which it is likewise thought to be more readily allied in its medicinal qualities, and therefore deemed to be emmenagogue, tonic, stomachic, &c. The dried leaves, used instead of tea, are said to be exceedingly grateful They are employed in medicated baths and fomentations.

ORIGANUM CRETICUM. See Dictamnus creticus.

ORIGANUM DICTAMNUS. The systematic name of the dittany of Crete. tamnus creticus.

ORIGANUM MAJORANA. The systematic name of sweet marjoram. See Marjo-

ORIGANUM SYRIACUM. The systematic name of the Syrian herb mastich. Marum.

ORIGANUM VULGARE, The systematic

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name of the wild marjoram. See Origanum.

ORIS CONSTRUCTOR. See Orbicularis oris. ORLEANA TERRA. (Orleana, so named from the place where it grows.) The substance so called is a ceraceous mass, obtained from the seeds of the Bixa orleana of Linnaus. In Jamaica and warm climates it is considered as a useful remedy in dysentery, possessing adstringent and stomachic qualities.

ORNITHOGALUM MARITIMUM. (From oping, a bird, and yazz, milk, so called from the colour of its flowers, which are like the milk found in eggs.) A kind of wild onion.

See Scilla.

ORNITHOGLOSSUM. (From opic, a bird, and γλοςςα, a tongue, so called from its shape.) Bird's tongue. The seeds of the ash-tree, as sometimes so called.

ORNITHOLOGY. (From ορν, a bird, and λογος, a discourse) That part of natural

history which treats of birds.

ORNITHOPODIUM. (From ognica, a bird, and  $\pi sc$ , a foot; so called from the likeness of its pods to a bird's claw.) Bird's foot; scorpion wort.

ORNUS. (From orn, Heb.) 'The ash-

tree which affords manna.

ORDIANCHE. (From ogoGos, the wild pea, and ay 200, to suffocate; so called because it twines round the orobus, and destroys it.) The great tooth wort or hypocystis.

OROBRYCHIS. (From ogo60s, the woodpea, and βεοχο, to cat.) The same as oro-

bus.

OROBUS. (From spirlar, to eat.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linmann system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the ervum.

See Eroum

Oronus Tunknosus. The heath pea. The root of this plant is said to be nutritions. The Scotch Highlanders hold them in great esteem, and chew them like to-bacco.

OROSELINUM. See Oreoselinum.

ORPIMENT. Orpimentum. Native orpiment is found in yellow, brilliant, and, as it were, talcky masses, often mixed with realgar, and sometimes of a greenish colour. See Arsenic.

Orpine. See Faba crussa.

Oursilopealum (From ogos, the extremity, and πορη, the buttocks.) The extremity of the spine, which is terminated by the os coccygis.

ORRHOS. (From geo, to flow.) Serum, whey. The raphe, and the extremity of

the sacrum.

Orris, common. See Iris nostras.
Orris, Florentine. See Iris florentina.

Ournocolos. (From ορθος, straight, and καλον, a limb.) It is a species of stiff joint,

and is when it cannot be bended, but remains straight.

ORTHOPNOEA. (From ορθρος, erect, and στου, breathing) A very quick and laborious breathing, during which the person is obliged to be in an erect posture.

ORVALA. (Orvale, French.) A species

of clary or horminum.

ORVIETANUM is used for a medicine that resists poisons, from a mountebank of Orvieta in Italy, who first made himself famous by taking such things upon the stage, after doses of pretended poisons. Though some say its inventor was one H. F. Orvietanus, and that it is named after him.

ORYZA. (From orez, Arab.) 1. The

name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Triandria. Order, Digynia. 2. The name for rice, or the seeds of the Oryza sativa of Linnaus. Rice is the princip I food of the inhabitants in all parts of the East, where it is boiled and eaten, either alone or with their meat. Large quantities of it are annually sent into Europe, and is meets with a general esteem for family purposes. The people of Java have a method of making puddings of rice, which seems to be unknown here, but it is not difficult to put in practice, if it should merit attention. They take a conical carthen pot, which is open at the large end, and perforated all over: this they fill about half full with rice, and putting it into a larger earthen pot of the same shape, filled with boiling water, the rice in the first pot soon swells, and stops the perforations so as to keep out 'he water; by this method the rice is brought to a firm consistence, and forms a pudding, which is generally eaten with butter, oil, sugar, vinegar, and spices. The Indians eat stewed rice with good success against the bloody flux; and in most inflammatory dis orders they cure themselves with only a decoction of it. The spirituous liquor called arrack is made from this grain. Ricc grows naturally in moist places; and will not come to perfection, when cultivated, unless the ground be sometimes overflowed, or plentifully watered. grain is of a grey colour when first reaped; but the gr wers have a method of whitening it before it is sent to market manner of performing this, and beating it out in Egypt, is thus described by Hassel-quint: They have hollow iron cylindrical pestles, about an inch diameter, lifted by a wheel worked with oxen. A person its between the pestles, and, as they rise, pushes forward the rice, whilst another winnows and supplies fr sh parcels. Thus they continue working until it is entirely-free from chaff. Having in this manner cleaned it, they add one-thirtieth part of salt, and rub them both together, by which the grain acquires a whiteness; then it is

passed through a sieve, to separate the salt again from it. In the island of Ceylon they have a much more expeditious method of getting out the rice; for, in the field where it is reaped, they dig a round hole, with a level bottom, about a foot deep, and eight yards diameter, and fill it with bundles of corn. Having laid it properly, the women drive about half a dozen oxen continually round the pit; and thus they will tread out forty or fifty bushels a day. This is a very ancient method of treading out corn, and is still practised in Africa upon other sorts of grain.

ORYZA SATIVA. The systematic name of

the rice-plant. See Oryza.

OS. See Bone.

Os EXTERNUM. The entrance into the vagina. It is so named in opposition to the mouth of the womb, which is called the os internum, or os tincæ.

Os internum. Os tincæ, and amphideon, or amphideum. Galen calls it oscheon. The orifice or mouth of the womb.

Os LEONIS. The antirrhinum linaria.

OS TINCE. See Os internum.

OSCHEOCELE. (From ogxeor, the scrotum, and knan, a tumour) This term is sometimes given to a tumour of the scrotum, from an accumulation of water, (see Hydrocele); and sometimes to a scrotal hernia, (see Hernia.)

OSCHEON. OGXEOV. The scrotum. Galen

gives the name to the os uteri.

OSCHEOPHYMA. (From of xeov, the scrotum, and ouna, a tumour. (A swelling of the

Oscillation of Boerhaave. See Irritabi-

OSCITANS. (From oscito, to gape.) The yawning fever.

OSCITATIO. (From oscito, to gape.) Chasme. Oscedo. Yawning. Gaping.

OSCULATORIUS. (From osculo, to kiss; so called because the action of kissing is performed by it.) The sphincter muscle of the

OSCULUM. Dim. of os, a mouth.)

little mouth.

Osmund royal. See Osmunda regalis. OSMUNDA. (From Osmund, who first used it ) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæin system. Class, Cryptogamia. Order, Filices.

OSMUNDA REGALIS. The systematic name of the osmund royal. Its root possesses ad-

stringent and styptic virtues.

OSPHYS. Ospus. The loins. OSSA SPONGIOSA.

The spongy bones are 'wo in number, and are called ossa spongiosa inferiora. The ethmoid bone has two turbinated portions, which are sometimes called the superior spongy bones. These bones, which, from their shape, are sometimes called ossa turbinata, have, by some anatomists, been described

as belonging to the ethmoid bone; and by others, as portions of the ossa palati. In young subjects, however, they are evidently distinct bones. They consist of a spongy lamella in each nostril. The convex surface of this lamella is turned towards the septum narium, and its concave part towards the maxillary bone, covering the opening of the lachrymal duct into the From their upper edge arise two processes: the posterior of these, which is the broadest, liangs as it were upon the edge of the antrum highmorianum; the anterior one joins the os unguis, and forms a part of the lachrymal duct. These bones are complete in the feetus. They are fined with the pituitary membrane; and, besides their connection with the ethnoid bone, are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora. ossa palati, and ossa unguis. these ossa spongiosa inferiora, there are sometimes two others, situated lower down, one in each nostril. These are very properly considered as a production of the sides of the maxillary sanus turned downwards. In many subjects, likewise, we find other smaller bones, standing out into the nostrils, which, from their shape, might also deserve the name of turbinata, but they are uncertain in their size, situation, and number.

OSSICULA AUDITUS. The small bones of the internal ear are four in number, viz. the malleus, incus tapes, and os orbiculare; and are situated in the cavity of the tympanum. See Malleus, Incus, Stapes, and

Orbiculare os.

OSSIFICATION. (From os, a bone, and

facio, to make.) See Bone.

Ossifraga. (From os, a bone, and frango, to break.) A petrified root, called the bone-binder, from its supposed virtues in uniting fractured bones.

Ossifragus. See Osteocolla.

Ossivorus. (From os, a bone, and voro, to devour.) Applied to a species of tumour or ulcer, which destroys the bone.

OSTARGA. (From cortest, a bone, and appa, a laying hold of.) A forceps to take out

bones with.

(A porter, from ostium, a OSTARIUS. door; so called as being the passage into the bowels.) The lower orifice of the stomach.

OSTEITES. (From osesov, a bone.) The bone-binder. See Osteocolla.

OSTEOCOLLA. (From oster, a bone, and nonhaw, to glue.) Ossifraga. Holo-Osteites. Amosteus. Osteolithos. steus. Stelochites, glue bone, stone, or Bone-binder, A particular carbonate of lime, found in some parts of Germany, particularly in the Marché of Brandenburg, and in other countries. It is met with in loose sandy grounds, spreading from near the surface to a considerable depth, into a number of ramifications, like the roots of a tree; it is of whitish colour, soft whilst under the earth, it able when dry, rough on the surface, for the most part either hollow within, or filled with a solid wood, or with a powdery write matter. It was formerly celebrated for promoting the coalition of fractured bones, and the formation of callus; which virtues are not attributed to it in the present day.

OSTEOCOPUS. (From oster, a bone, and nortes, uneasiness.) A very violent fixed

pain in any part of the bone.

OSTEOGENICA. (From oster, a bone, and parvae, to beget.) Medicines which promote

the generation of a callus.

OSTEOGENY. (Osteogenia, from oseov, bone, and pavaz, generation.) growth of bones. Bones are either formed between membranes or in the substance of cartilages, and the bony deposition is effected by a determined action of arteries. The secretion of bone takes place in cartilage in the long bones, as those of the arm, leg, &c. and betwixt two layers of membrane, like the bones of the skull, where true cartilage is never seen. Often the bony matter is formed in distinct bags, and there it grows into form, as in the teeth; for each tooth is formed in its little bag, which by injection can be filled and covered with vessels. Any artery of the body can assume this action, and deposit bone, which is formed also where it should not he, in the tendons, and in the joints; in the great arteries, and in the valves, in the fiesh of the heart itself, or even in the soft and pulpy substance of the

All the bones in the fætus are merely cartilage before the time of birth; this cartilage is never hardened into bonc, but from the first it is an organized mass. It has its vessels, which are at first transparent, but which soon dilate; and whenever the red colour or the blood begins to appear in them, ossification very quickly succeeds, the arteries being so far enlarged as to carry the coarser parts of the blood. The first mark of ossification is an artery which is seen running into the centre of the jelly which is formed. Other arteries soon appear, and a net work of vessels is formed, and then a centre of ossification begins, stretching its rays according to the length of the bone, and then the cartillage begins to grow opaque, yellow, brittle; it will no longer bend, and a bony centre may easily be discovered. Other points of ossification are successively formed, preceded by the appearance of arteries. The ossification follows the vessels, and buries and hides those vessels by which it is formed. The vessels advance towards the ends of the bone, the whole body of the bone becomes opaque, and

either end; the heads are separated from the body of the bone by a thin cartilage, and the vessels of the centre, extending still towards the extremities of the bone, perforate the cartilage, pass into the head of the bone, and then its ossification also begins, and a small nucleus of ossification is formed in its centre. Thus the heads and the body are at first distinct bones, formed apart, joined by a cartilage, and not united till the age of fifteen or twenty years. Then the deposition of bone begins, and while the bone is laid by the arteries, the cartilage is conveyed away by the absorbing vessels; and while they convey away the superfluous cartilage, they model the bone into its due form, shape out its cavities, cancelli and holes, remove the thinner parts of the cartilage, and harden it into due consistence. The earth which constitutes the hardness of bone, and all its useful properties, is dead, inorganized, and lies in the interstices of bone, where it is made up of gelatinous matter, to give it consistence and strength, furnished with absorbents to keep it in health, and carry off its wasted parts; and pervaded by vessels to supply it with new matter. During all the process of ossification, the absorbents proportion their action to the stimulus which is applied to them; they carry away the serous fluid, when jelly is to take its place; they remove the jelly as the bone is laid; they continue removing the bony particles also, which (as in a circle,) the arteries continually renew; this renovation and change of parts goes on even in the hardest bones, so that after a bone is perfectly formed, its older particles are continually being removed, and new ones are deposited in their place. The bony particles are so deposited in the flat bones of the skull as to present a radiated structure, and the vacancies between the fibres which occasion this appearance are found, by injection, to be chiefly passages for blood-vessels. As the fortus increases in size, the osseous fibres increase in number, till a lamina is produced; and as the bone continues to grow, more lamina are added, till the more solid part of a bone is formed. The ossification which begins in cartilage is considerably later than that which has its origin between membranes. The generality of bones are incomplete until the age of puberty, or between the fifteenth and twentieth year, and in some few instances not until a later period: the small bones of the ear however are completely formed at birth.

OSTEOGRAPHY. (From ος εεν, a bone, and γραφα, to describe.) The description of the bones. See *Bone*.

OSTEOLITHOS. (From ossev, a bone, and

OSTEOLOGY. (From oseen, a bone, and hopes, a discourse.) The doctrine of the bones. See Bone.

OSTIOLA. (Dim. of ostium, a door.) The

valves or gates of the heart.

OSTREUM. (From ospanor, a shell.) The oyster. The shell of this fish is occasionally used medicinally; its virtues are similar to those of the carbonate of lime. See Creta.

OSTRITIUM. (Blanchard calls it a corruption from laserpitium.) Imperatoria, or masterwort.

OSTRUTHIUM. Laserpitium. See Imperatoria.

OSTRIS. Cassia poetica Lobellii. Cassia latinorum. Cassia lignea monspeliensium. Cassia monspeliensium. Poet's rosemary. The whole shrub is astringent. It grows in the southern parts of Europe.

OSTALGIA. (From 85, the ear, and anyos,

pain.) The ear-ache.

OTENCHYTES (From ωτος, the genitive of ους, an ear, and εγχευα, to pour in.) A syringe for the ears.

OTHONNA. (From obown, lint; so called from the softness of its leaves.) A species of c-landine.

OTICA. (From 85, the ear) Medicines ag inst diseases of the ear

OTITES. (From 85, the ear.) An epithet of the little finger, because it is commonly

of the little finger, because it is commonly made use of in scratching the ear.

OTITIS. (From ss, the ear) Inflammation of the internal ear. It is known by pyrexia, and an excruciating and throbbing pain in the internal ear, that is sometimes attended with delirium.

OTOPLATOS. (From 85, the ear.) A stink-

ing utcer helind the ears.

OTOPYOSIS. (From 85, the ear, and muov, pus.) A purulent discharge from the

OTORRHÆA. (From 85, the ear, and gsw, o flow.) A discharge of blood or matter from the ear.

OVALE FORAMEN. (See Foramen

ovale.)

OVARIUM. (Dim. of ovum, an egg.) The ovaria are two flat oval bodies, about one inch in length, and rather more than half in breadth and thickness, suspended in the broad ligaments, about the distance of one inch from the uterus behind, and a little below, the Fallopian tubes. To the ovaria, according to the idea of their structure entertained by different anatomists, various uses have been assigned, or the purpose they answer has been differently explained. Some have supposed that their texture was glandular, and that they secreted a fluid equivalent to, and similar to, the male semen; but others, who have examined them with more care, assert that they are ovaria in the literal acceptation of the term, and include a number of vesicles,

or ova, to the amount of twenty-two, of different sizes, joined to the internal surface of the ovaria by cellular threads or pedicles; and that they contain a fluid which has the appearance of thin lymph. These vesicles are, in fact, to be seen in the healthy ovaria of every young woman. They differ very much in their number in different ovaria, but are very seldom so numerous as has just been stated. All have agreed, that the ovaria prepare whatever the female supplies towards the formation of the fœtus; and this is proved by the operation of spaying, which consists in the extirpation of the ovaria, after which the animal not only loses the power of conceiving, but desire is for ever extinguished. The outer coat of the ovaria. together with that of the uterus, is given by the peritonæum; and whenever an ovum is passed into the Fallopian tube, a fissure is observed at the part through which it is supposed to have been transferred. These fissures healing, leave small longitudinal cicatrices on the surface, which are said to enable us to determine, whenever the ovarium is examined, the number of times a woman has conceived. The corpora lutea are oblong glandular bodies of a yellowish colour, found in the ovaria of all animals when pregnant, and, according to some, when they are salacious. They are said to be calyces, from which the impregnated ovum has dropped; and their number is always in proportion to the number of conceptions found in the uterus. They are largest and most conspicuous in the early state of pregnancy, and remain for some time after delivery, when they gradually fade and wither till they disappear. The corpora lutea are very vascular, except at their centre, which is whitish; and in the middle of the white part is a small cavity, from which the impregnated ovum is thought to have immediately proceeded. The ovaria are the seat of a particular kind of dropsy, which most commonly happens to women at the time of the final cessation of the menses, though not unfrequently at a more early period of life. It is of the encysted kind, the fluid being sometimes limpid and thin, and at others discoloured and gelatinous. In some cases it has been found to contain one cyst, often in several, and in others the whole tumefaction has been composed of hydatids not larger than grapes. The ovaria are also subject, especially a short time after delivery, to inflammation, terminating in suppuration, and to schirrhous and cancerous diseases, with considerable enlargement. In the former state, they generally adhere to some adjoining part, as the uterus, rectum, the bladder, or the external integuments, and the matter is discharged from

the vagina by stool, by urine, or by any external abscess of the integuments of the abdomen.

OVIDUCT. (Oviductus, from ovum, an egg, and ductus, a canal.) The Fallopian tube, or canal, which runs from the ovary to the bottom of the womb.

OVIPAROUS. (From ovum, an egg, and pario, to bring forth.) Animals which exclude their young in the egg, which are afterwards hatched

OVORUM TESTAL. Egg-shells. A testaceous absorbent.

OVUM. See Egg.

OVUM PHILOSOPHICUM. Ovum chymicum. A

glass body, round like an egg.

OXALATS. Oxalas. Salts formed by the combination of the oxalic acid with different bases; thus, oxalat of ammonia,

OXALIC ACID. Acidum oxalicum. Salt of sorrel. Acid of sugar. This acid is obtained by evaporating the fresh juice of sorrel almost to the consistence of honey, when it is to be poured into a glass vessel with a narrow neck, and covered with a stratum of the oil of olives. After some weeks the sides of the bottle are invested with a crust, which is the salt of sorrel, or oxalis potassa acidulus. The salt of sorrel is then to be dissolved in boiling water, and a small quantity of the nitrate of barytes added to it, when the barytes will unite with the oxalic acid, and the potash with the nitric acid. The oxalat of barytes, which is precipitated, is then to be decompounded by digestion with sulphuric acid, by which means the oxalic acid is let loose. Formerly this acid was considered as different from that of sugar, but it is now proved by experiments to be the same in all its properties.

OXALIS. (From oğue, sharp; so called from the sharpness of its juice.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Pentagynia. Woodsorrel.

OYALIS ACETOCELLA. (Dim. of acetosa.) The systematic name of the wood-sorrel. See Lujula.

(From egue, sharp, and axe, OXALME. salt.) A mixture of vinegar and salt.

See Rellis major. Ox-cye-daisy O.r's tongue. See Picris echioides.

OXYCANTHA GADENT. (From ofoc, sharp, and axarba, a thorn; so called from the acidity of its fruit.) The barberry. See Berberia.

Oxycennus. (From ogo, acutely, and usses, a cedar; so called from the sharp termination of its leaves.) A kind of cedar. Spanish juniper, a species of juniperus.

Oxycoccos. (From ogue, acid, and nonxoc, a berry, so named from its acidity.) Vaccinia palustris. Vitis ideza palustris. Moor-berry. The cranberry. The berries of the Vaccinium oxycoccos of Linnæus are so termed in some pharmacopæias. They are about the size of our haws, and are pleasantly acid, with which intention they are used medicinally in Sweden. In this country they are mostly preserved and made into tarts.

OXYCRATUM. (From ogus, acid, and xegave vuu, to mix.) Oxycrates. Vinegar mixed with such a portion of water as is required, and rendered still milder by the addition of a little honey.

OXYCROCEUM EMPLASTRUM. (From ozus, acid, and xponos, crocus, saffron.) A plaster in which there is much saffron, but no vinegar necessary, unless in dissolving some gums.

OXYD. Oxyd. Oxide. Oxyde. Oxydum. A substance formed by the union of oxygen with a basis: thus, axyd of iron, oxyd of copper, &c.

Oxyd of carbon, gazeous. See. Carbon,

gazeous oxyd of.
OXYDATION. The operation by which a substance is made to combine with oxy-

OXYDERCICA. (From ogue, acute, and Seena, to see.) Medicines which sharpen the sight.

OXYDUM. (So called from oxygen, which enters into its composition.) See

OXYDUM ANTIMONII. Oxyd of antimony. This is the calx antimonii, the crocos antimonii lotus, and the antimonium diaphoreticum, of old pharmacopæias. It is made thus: "Take of sulphuret of antimony, powdcred, two ounces, muriatic acid, eleven fluid ounces, nitric acid, one fluid-ounce. The acids being mixed together in a glass vessel, add the antimony gradually thereto, and digest them in a boiling heat for an hour, then strain the solution and pour it into a gallon of water, in which two ounces of the subcarbonate of potash have been previously dissolved; wash the precipitated powder by repeated effusions of water until all the acid is washed away, then dry it upon bibulous paper." This preparation possesses diaphoretic virtues, and is given in the dose of from three grains to ten.

OXYDUM ARSENICI ALBUM. See Arsenious acid.

OXYDUM CUPRI VIRIDE ACETATUM. Verdigris.

OXYDUM FERRI LUTEUM. See Ferri car. bonas.

OXYMURIAS HYDRARGYRI. Hydrargyrus muriatus. Oxymuriat of mercury. Take of purified mercury by weight two pounds, sulphuric acid by weight thirty ounces, dried muriate of soda four pounds. Boil the mercury with the sulphuric acid in a glass vessel until the sulphate of mercury shall be left dry. Rub this, when it 4 F \*

is cold, with the muriate of soda in an earthen-ware mortar; then sublime it in a glass cucurbit, increasing the heat gradually.

An extremely acrid and violently poi-

sonous preparation.

Given internally in small doses properly diluted, and never in the form of pill, it possesses oxygenating, antisyphilitical, and alterative virtues. Externally applied, in form of lotion, it facilitates the healing of venereal sores, and curcs the itch. gargles for venereal ulcers in the throat the oxymuriat of mercury gr. iii. or iv., barley decoction lbj., honey of roses 3jj., proves very serviceable; also in cases of tetters, from gr. v. to gr. x. to water Hoj.; and for films and ulcerations of the cornea, gr. i. to

water Ziv.

Mr. Pearson remarks that when the sublimate is given to cure the primary symptoms of syphilis, it will sometimes succeed; more especially, when it produces a considerable degree of soreness of the gums, and the common specific effects of mercury in the animal system. But it will often fail of removing even a recent chancre; and where that symptom has vanished during the administration of corrosive sublimate, I have known, says he, a three months' course of that medicine fail of securing the patient from a constitutional affection. The result of my observations is, that simple mercury, calomel or calcined mercury, arc preparations more to be confided in for the cure of primary symptoms, than corrosive sublimate. The latter will often check the progress of secondary symptoms very conveniently, and I think it is peculiarly efficacious in relieving venercal pains, in healing ulcers of the throat, and in promoting the desquamation of eruptions. Yet even in these cases it never confers permanent benefit; for new symptoms will appear during the use of it; and on many occasions it will fail of affording the least advantage to the patient from first to last. I do, sometimes, indeed, employ this preparation in venereal cases; but it is either at the beginning of a mercurial course, to bring the constitution under the influence of mercury at an early period, or during a course of inunction, with the intention of increasing the action of simple mercury. I sometimes also prescribe it after the conclusion of a course of friction, to support the mercurial influence in the habit, in order to guard against the danger of a relapsc. But on no occasion whatever do I think it safe to confide in this preparation singly and uncombined, for the cure of any truly venereal symptom.

OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI CINEREUM. Grey oxyd of mercury. "Take of submuriate of mercury, an ounce; lime-water, a gallon." Boil the submuriate of mercury in the lime-water, constantly stirring, until a grey oxyd of mercury is separated. Wash this with distilled water, and then dry it.

The dose from gr. ii. to x.

OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI NIGRUM. The black oxyd of mercury has received several names. Ethops per se. Pulvis mercurialis cinereus. Nercurius cinereus. Turpethum nigrum. Mercurius pracipitatus ni. ger. There are four preparations of it in high estimation:

One made by rubbing mercury with mucilage of gum arabic. Plenk, of Vienna, has written a treatise on the superior efficacy of this medicine. It is very troublesome to make; and does not appear to possess more virtues than some other mercurial

preparations.

Another made by triturating equal parts

of sugar and mercury together.

The third, composed of honey or liquorice and hydrargyrus purificatus.

The fourth is the blue mercurial ointment. All these preparations possess anthelmintic, antisyphilitic, alterative, sialagogue, and deobstruent virtues, and are exhibited in the cure of worms, syphilis, amenorrhæa, diseases of the skin, chronic diseases, ob-

structions of the viscera, &c.

OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI RUBRUM. Hydrargyrus calcinatus. Red oxyd of mer-cury. "Take of purified mercury by weight a pound." Pour the mercury into a glass mattrass, with a very narrow mouth and broad bottom. Apply a heat of 600° to this vessel, without stopping it, until the mercury has changed into red scales; then reduce these to a very fine powder.

The whole process may probably require

an exposure of six weeks.

This preparation of mercury is given with great advantage in the cure of syphil-Its action, however, is such, when given alone, on the bowels, as to require the addition of opium, which totally prevents it. It is also given in conjunction with opium and camphire, as a diaphoretic, in chronic pains and diseases of long continuance.

It is given as an alterative and diaphoretic from gr. ss ad. ii. every night, joined with camphor and opium, cach gr. onefourth or one-half. It is violently emetic and cathartic in gr. iv. to gr. v.

OXYDUM PLUMBI ALBUM. See Subcarbonas

OXYDUM PLUMBI HUBRUM. See Lead. Oxydum plumbi semivitreum. See Lithargyrus.

OXYDUM STIBII ALBUM. See Oxydum anti-

OXYDUM STIBIL SEMIVITHEUM. treous oxyd of antimony. It was formerly called Vitrum antimonii, and consists of an oxyd of antimony with a little sulphur; it is employed to make antimonial wine.

OXYDUM STIBIL SULPRURATUM. is an oxid of antimony with sulphur, and was formerly called Hepar antimonii. Crocus metallorum. Crocus antimonii. It was formerly exhibited in the cure of fevers and atonic diseases of the lungs. Its principal use now is in preparing other medicines.

OXYDUM ZINCI SUBLIMATUM.

oxydum.

OXYDUM ZINCI. See Zinci Oxydum. Oxyganum. (From ogus, acid, and 22-50, garum.) A composition of garum and

vinegar.

OXYGEN. (Oxygenium; from cgus, acid, and pievouxi, to generate; because it is the generator of acidity.) This substance, although existing sometimes in a solid and sometimes in an aëriform state, is never distinctly perceptible to the human senses, but in combination.

We know it only in its combination, by its effects. Nature never presents it solitary; chymists do not know how to insulate It is a principle which was long unknown. It is absorbable by combustible bodies, and converts them into acids. It is an indispensable condition of combustion, uniting itself always to bodies which burn, augmenting their weight, and changing their properties. It may be disengaged in the state of oxygen gas, from burnt bodies, by a joint accumulation of caloric and light. It is highly necessary for the respiration of animals. It exists universally dispersed through nature, and is a constituent part of atmospheric air, of water, of acids, and of all bodies of the animal and vegetable kingdoms.

One of the most remarkable combinations into which it is capable of entering, is that which it forms with light and caloric. The nature of that mysterious union has not been ascertained, but it is certain that, in that state, it constitutes the gazeous

fluid called OXYGEN GAS.

Properties of Oxygen Gas.—Oxygen gas is an elastic invisible fluid, like common air, capable of indefinite expansion and compression. It has neither taste or odour, nor does it show any traces of an acid. Its specific gravity, as determined by Kirwan, is 0.00135, that of water being 1.0000; it is, therefore, 740 times lighter than the same bulk of water. Its weight is to atmospheric air as 1103 to 1000 One hundred and sixteen cubic inches of oxygen gas weigh 39.38 grains. It is not absorbed by water, but entirely absorbable by combustible bodies, which, at the same time, disengage its caloric and light, producing in consequence a strong heat and flame. rekindles almost extinct combustible bodies. It is indispensable to respiration, and is the cause of animal heat. It hastens germination. It combines with every combustible body, with all the metals, and with the greater number of vegetable and animal substances. It is considered as the cause of acidity; and from this last property is derived the name oxygen, a word denoting the origin of acidity.

The act of its combining with bodies is called oxydation, or oxygenation; and the bodies with which it is combined are called

oxyds.

Oxygen gas is the chief basis of the

pneumatic doctrine of chymistry.

Methods of obtaining Oxygen Gas .- We are at present acquainted with a great number of bodies, from which we may, by art, produce oxygen gas. It is most amply obtained from the oxyds of manganese, or mcrcury; from nitrate of potash; from the green leaves of vegetables, and from oxygenated muriate of potash, or soda. Besides these, there are a great many other substances, from which oxygen gas may be procured.

1. In order to procure oxygen gas in a state of great purity, pure oxygenated muriate of potash, or soda, must be made use With this view, put some of the salt into a small earthen or glass retort, the neek of which is placed under the shelf of the pncumatic trough, filled with water; and heat the retort by means of a lamp. The salt will begin to melt, and oxygen gas will be obtained in abundance, and of great purity, which may be collected and preserved over water.

Explanation .- Oxygenated muriate of potash consists of oxygenated muriatic acid and potash; at an elevated temperature, a decomposition of the oxygenated muriatic acid takes place; its oxygen unites to the caloric, and forms oxygen gas. The oxygenated acid becomes the etore converted into simple muriatic acid, which remains in the retort united to the potash, in the form of muriate of potash.

Oxygen gas may likewise be obtained from the green leaves of vegetables.

For this purpose fill a bell-glass with water, introduce fresh-gathered green leaves under it, and place the bell, or receiver, inverted, in a vessel containing the same fluid; expose the apparatus to the rays of the sun, and very pure oxygen gass will be liberated.

The emission of oxygen gas is proportioned to the vigour of the plant and the vivacity of the light; the quantity differs in different plants and under different conditions

Explanation.-It is an established fact, that plants decompose water, and probably carbonic acid, which serve for their nourishment; they absorb the hydrogen and carbon of these fluids, disengaging a part of the oxygen in a state of purity. Light, however, favours this decomposition greatly; it seems to serve for melting the oxygen, and thus forms it into oxygen gas; in proportion as it becomes disengaged, the hydrogen becomes fixed in the vegetable, and combines partly with the carbon and partly with the oxygen, to form the oil, &c. of the vegetable.

3. Nitrate of potash is another substance frequently made use of for obtaining oxygen gas, in the following manner:

Take any quantity of this salt, introduce it into a coated earthen or glass retort, and fit to it a tube, which must be plunged into the pneumatic trough, under the receiver filled with water. When the apparatus has been properly adjusted, heat the retort gradually, till it becomes red hot; the oxygen gas will then be disengaged rapidly. The gas obtained in this way is also

very pure, especially if the last portion be

kept separate.

Explanation.—Nitrate of potash consists of nitric acid and potash. Nitric acid consists again of oxygen and nitrogen. On exposing the salt to ignition, a partial decomposition of the acid takes place; the greatest part of the oxygen of the nitric acid unites to caloric, and appears under the form of oxygen gas. The other part remains attached to the potash in the state of nitrous acid. The residue in the retort is, therefore, nitrite of potash, if the process has been carefully conducted.

Remark.—If too much heat be applied, particularly towards the end of the process, a total decomposition of the nitric acid takes place; the oxygen gas, in that case, will therefore be mingled with nitrogen gas. The weight of the two gases, when collected, will be found to correspond very exactly with the weight of the acid which had been decomposed. The residue then

left in the retort is potash.

4. Black oxyd of manganese, however, is generally made use of for obtaining oxygen gas, on account of its cheapness. This native oxyd is reduced to a coarse powder; a stone, or rather an iron retort, is then charged with it and heated. As soon as the retort becomes ignited, oxygen gas

is obtained plentifully.

Explanation.—Black oxyd of manganese is the metal called manganese fully saturated with oxygen, together with many earthy impurities; on applying heat, part of the solid oxygen quits the metal and unites to caloric, in order to form oxygen gas, the remainder of the oxygen remains united to the metal with a forcible affinity; the metal, therefore, re-approaches to the metallic state, or is found in the state of a grey oxyd of manganese.

One pound of the best manganese yields upwards of 1400 cubic inches of oxygen

gas, nearly pure. If sulphuric acid be previously added to the manganese, the gas is produced by a less heat, and in a larger quantity; a glass retort may then be used, and the heat of a lamp is sufficient.

5. Red oxyd of mercury yields oxygen gas in a manner similar to that of manga-

iese.

Explanation.—This oxyd consists likewise of solid oxygen and mercury, the combination of which takes place on exposing mercury to a heat of about 610° Fahr. At this degree it attracts oxygen, and becomes converted into an oxyd; but if the temperature be increased to about 1000°, the attraction of oxygen is changed. The oxygen then attracts caloric stronger than it did the mercury; it therefore abandons it and forms oxygen gass. The mercury then re-appears in its metallic state.

6. Red oxyd of lead yields oxygen gas

on the same principle.

OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID This gas possesses an uncommonly pungent and suffocating odour. It is absolutely and in every respect non-respirable; animals immersed in it die instantly. It is absorbable by water, and forms with it what is called liquid oxygenated muriatic acid. When water is saturated with it, the compound crystallizes at low temperatures. Oxygenated muriatic acid gas is not invisible, but has a yellow-greenish colour. It is capable of maintaining and exciting com-bustion in many cases. Phosphorus, charcoal, red sulphuret of mercury, sulphuret of antimony, bismuth, iron, zinc, copper, gold, arsenic, cobalt, tin, lead, and several other combustible bodies, take fire spontaneously when introduced into it. It is heavier than atmospheric air. It weakens and reddens the flame of a taper, but does not extinguish it. It decomposes ammonaithickens fat oils. It detonates with hydrogen gas. Nitrous gas immediately produces a cloud of reddish vapour with it. It is likewise decomposed by sulphurated, phosphorated, and carbonated hydrogen gases. It is not altered by exposure to light, and passes unaltered through an ignited porcelain tube It discolours stuffs, and totally destroys most of the vegetable colours, rendering them white. It also bleaches yellow wax, &c.

This gas may be obtained in several

ways.

1. Take one part of the native oxyd of manganese, one of red precipitate of mercury, or red lead, put it into a glass retort, and add four parts of concentrated muriatic acid. This, on distillation, affords a quantity of yellow aëriform fluid, which is oxygenated muriatic acid gas, and by agitating it with water, it combines and forms oxygenated muriatic acid.

It may also be obtained without the red mercurial precipitate, or red lead, thus:

2. Put into a retort one part of powdered black oxyd of manganese, three or four of concentrated muriatic acid, connect the retort with the pneumatic trough, and receive the gas over water in the usual manner. When no more gas is liberated, apply the heat of a lamp, and gas will be produced abundantly, which may be kept in bottles with ground glass stoppers.

The oxyd of manganese yields up in this process part of its oxygen to part of the muriatic acid, which becomes converted into oxygenated muriatic acid gas; the oxyd of manganese being thus partly deoxydated, is dissolved in the remaining quantity of the muriatic acid, which remains behind in the retort as muriate of

manganese.

The retort containing the mixture should not be filled above one-third, for the mixture, on the application of heat, swells and is otherwise very apt to be forced over into

the neck of the retort.

3. Oxygenated muriatic acid gas may likewise be obtained in an indirect manner, by decomposing muriate of soda in contact with black oxyd of manganese. For that purpose mix eight parts, by weight, of muriate of soda with three of powdered oxyd of manganese, put the mixture into a tubulated retort, and pour upon it gradually four parts of sulpluric acid, diluted previously with three of water, and which has been suffered to cool after dilution. On applying a gentle heat, gas will be produced as before.

In this operation the sulphuric acid acts on the muriate of soda, to the base of which it unites; the muriatic acid formed by this union attacks the oxyd of manganese; one part of it combines with the oxygen, and another with the oxyd brought nearer to the metallic state, and the result is sulphat of soda and muriate of manganese, which remain in the distilling vessel; and oxygenated muriatic acid, which passes in the state of gas at common temperatures.

In preparing this gas great care should be taken that it does not escape into the apartment in any considerable quantity; as it acts violently on the pituitous membrane, occasions a defluxion of the brain, blunts the senses of smell and taste, produces head-ach, and proves extremely injurious to health.

Pelletier fell a sacrifice in attempting to breathe it; a consumption was the conse-

quence, which proved fatal.

Liquid ammonia is the remedy best calculated to check its effects, when accidentally set at liberty in places where it is prepared.

The water which adheres to the inner

side of the vessel filled with oxygenated muriatic acid gas crystallizes in the form of yellow spangles, if the temperature is near the freezing point. If a considerable quantity of gas be thus condensed, care must be taken to keep it at a low temperature; for as soon as the temperature is raised, it expands, and endangers the bursting of the vessel. When absorbed by water it forms liquid

OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID.-This acid is of a greenish yellow colour. It has a styptic bitter taste, and a very suffocating odour. Instead of reddening blue vegetable colours, it has the remarkable property of rendering them white. high temperatures, we en light is excluded, phosphorus remains unaltered in liquid oxygenated muriatic acid; but if light be admitted, the colour of the acid gradually disappears, and the phosphorus is converted into phosphoric acid. It thickens oils and animal fats, and renders them less disposed to combine with alkalies. Its action upon metals presents phenomena extremely curious and important; the oxygen of the acid unites with the metal, and the produced oxyd is afterwards dissolved by the de-oxydated acid.

Method of obtaining Oxygenated Muriatic Acid .- Put into a tubulated retort, supported over a lamp, one part of black oxyd of manganese reduced to a gross powder, and pour over it three parts of concentrated inuriatic acid, recline the retort in such a manner that the fluid which rises up into its neck, may easily run back again into the body, and apply a receiver with a little distilled water in it; the receiver must be luted to the retort by a fillet of When the offervescence, which instantly takes place on the affusion of the acid, ceases, apply a gentle heat. Oxygenated muriatic acid gas will be evolved, and the receiver become filled with yellow vapours, which are absorbed by the water. When the water has acquired a yellowishgreen colour, the receiver may be removed, and another one applied till no more gas is extricated. The process may be more clegantly conducted, by joining the apparatus of Burkitt or Pepys to the distillatory vessel. The common muriatic acid which may arise is condensed in the first bottle, and the oxygenated muriatic acid gas unites to the water in the second. third, &c.

The union of oxygenated muriatic acid with different bases forms salts, known by the name of oxygenated muriates.

Oxygercum. (From εξυς, acid, and γλυκυς, sweet.) Honey mixed with vinegar. An oxymel.

ΟΧΥΙΑΡΑΤΗΙΙΜ. (From οξυς, acid, and λαταθον, the dock; so named from its acidity.) Lapathum acutum. Rumex acutus

of Linnaus. Sharp-pointed dock. Humer foribus hermaphroditis; valvula dentatis graniferis, folis cordato oblongis acuminatis. The decoction of the root of this plant is used in Germany to curé the itch; and it appears to have been used in the time of Dissocrides, in the cure of leprous and imperingenous affections, both alone and boiled with vinegar.

ONYMEL. (From εξως, acid, and μελι, honey.) Apomeli. Adipson. Honey and vinegar boiled to a sirup. See Mel acetatum.

OXYMEL ERUGINIS. See Linimentum

aruginia,

OXYMEL COLUMNIC. Oxymel of meadow saffron is an acrid medicine, but is nevertheless employed, for its diuretic virtues, in dropsies.

OXYMEL SCILLE. A very useful expec-

torant.

OXIMPRHINE. (From Eys, acute, and uvggun, the myrtle; so called from its resemblance to myrtle, and its pointed leaves.)

Oxymprsine. Wild myrtle.

OXIMERSINE. See Oxymyrrhine.

OXINITRUM (From egus, acid, and m-

of vinegar and nitre.

OXYOPIA. (From egus, acute, and equs, vision.) The faculty of seeing more acutely than usual. Thus there have been instances known of persons who could see the stars in the day-time. The proximate cause is a preternatural sensibility of the retina. It has been known to precede the gutta serena; and it has been asserted that prisoners, who have been long detained in darkness, have learned to read and write in darkened places.

Oxypalegnasia (From εξυς, acute, and φλερα, to burn.) An acute inflamma-

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OXYPHENICON. (From egus, acid, and come, the tamarind; a native of Phonicia.) See Tamarindus.

OXYPHONIA (From ozos, sharp, and earn, the voice.) The same as Paraphonia Clangens. It is a howling.

Oxyregma. (From εξυς, acid, and εξυς, α, to break wind.) An acid eructation. Oxyrerhodinos. (From εξυς, acid, and

OXYRRHODINON. (From ogus, acid, and godnor, oil of roses.) A composition of the oil of roses and vinegar.

OXTRACTHARUM. (From Egus, acid, and oxax/agos, sugar.) A composition of vinegar and sugar.

OXYSAL PLAPHORETICUM. A preparation of Angelus Sala. It is a fixed salt, loaded with more acid than is necessary to saturate it. The salt of Juniper is of this kind.

ΟΧΥΤΟCA. (From οξυς, quick, and τικτα, to bring forth.) Medicines which promote delivery.

OXYTRIPHYLLUM. (From οξυς, acid, and τg/2υλλος, trefoil; so named from its acidity.) Wood-sorrel.

Oyster. See Ostreum. Oyster.shell. See Ostreum.

OZŒNA. (From ośn, a stench.) An ulcer situated in the nose, discharging a fætid purulent matter, and sometimes accompanied with caries of the bones. Some authors have signified by the term, an ill. conditioned ulcer in the antrum. The first meaning is the original one. The disease is described as coming on with a trifling tumefaction and redness about the ala nasi. accompanied with a discharge of mucus, with which the nostril becomes obstructed. The matter gradually assumes the appearance of pus, is most copious in the morning, and is sometimes attended with sneezing, and a little bleeding. The ulceration occasionally extends round the ala nasi to the cheek, but seldom far from the nose, the ala of which also it rarely destroys. The ozena is often connected with scrophulous and venereal complaints. In the latter cases, portions of the ossa spongiosa often come away. After the complete cure of all venereal complaints, an exfoliating dead piece of bone will often keep up symptoms similar to those of the ozena, until it is detached. Mr. Pearson remarks, that the ozena frequently occurs as a symptom of the cachexia syphyloidea. It may perforate the septum nasi, destroy the ossa spongiosa, and even the ossa nasi. Such mischief is now more frequently the effect of the cachexia syphyloidea, than of lues venerea. The ozona must not be confounded with abscesses in the upper jaw-

OZYNUM. (From εξα, to smell; so called from its fragrance.) Sweet basil.

P.

P. A contraction of pugillus, a pugil, or eighth part of a handful, and sometimes a contraction of partes, parts.

P. Æ. A contraction of partes aquales. P. P. A contraction of pulvis pairum, Jesuit's powder.

PABULUM. (From pasco, to feed.)
Food, aliment. The animal heat and animal spirits are called pabulum vitx, the food of life.

Pacchionian glands. See Glandulæ Pacchionæ.

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PACHENTICA. (From @1214, to incres-Medicines which incrassate or thicken the fluids.

PACHYS PAZU, thick. The name of a disorder described by Hippocrates, but not

known by us.

Padus. The wild cluster cherry, or bird's cherry. The Printus padus of Linnæus. The bark and berries of this shrub are used medicinally. The former, when taken from the tree, has a fragrant smell, and a bitter, subastringent taste, somewhat similar to that of bitter almonds. Made into a decoction, it cures intermittents, and it has been recommended in the cure of several forms of syphylis. The latter are said to cure the dysentery.

P.EDANCHONE. (From was, a child, and αγχω, to strangulate.) A species of quinsy

common among children.

PEDARTHROCACE. (From was, a boy, aggeor, a joint, and xaxor, an evil.) The joint evil. Severinus calls the Spina Ventora by this name, as also doth Dr Cullen. By some this name is used to express a sort of anasarca.

PÆONIA. (From Peon, who first applied it to medicinal purposes.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Polyandria. Order, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common peony. Male and female peony. This plant, Paonia officinalis of Linnans:-folis oblongis, has long been considered as a powerful medicine; and, till the late revision by the London College, it had a place in the catalogue of the Materia Medica; in which the two common varieties of this plant arc indiscriminately directed for use: and, on the authority of G. Bauhin, improperly distinguished into male and female

peony.

The roots and seeds of peony have, when fresh, a faint, unpleasant smell, somewhat of the narcotic kind, and a mucilaginous, subacrid taste, with a slight degree of bitterness and adstringency. In drying, they lose their smell and part of their taste. Extracts made from them by water are almost insipid, as well as inodorous; but extracts made by rectified spirits are manifestly bitterish, and considerably adstringent. The flowers have rather more smell than any of the other parts of the plant, and a rough, sweetish taste, which they impart, together with their colour, both to water and spirit.

The roots, flowers, and seeds of peony, have been esteemed, in the character of an anodyne and corroborant, but more especially the roots; which, since the days of Galen, have been very commonly employed as a remedy for the epilepsy. For this purpose, it was usual to cut the root into thin slices, which were to be attached to a string,

and suspended about the neck as an an ulet; if this failed of success, the patient was to have recourse to the internal use of this root, which Willis directs to be given in the form of a powder, and in the quantity of a drachm, two or three times a-day, by which, as we are informed, both infants and adults were cured of this disease. Other authors recommended the expressed juice to be given in wine, and sweetened with sugar, as the most effectual way of administering this plant. Many writers, however, especially in modern times, from repeated trials of the peony in epileptic cases, have found it of no use whatever; though Professor Home, who gave the radix pagnix to two epileptics at the Edinburgh infirmary, declares that one received a temporary advantage from its usc. Of the good effects of this plant, in other disorders, we find no instances recorded.

PAONIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the common paony. Sec Paonia.

Paigil. See Primula veris. PAIN. Dolor. Any unpleasant sensation, or irritation.

Painter's colic. See Colica pictonum.

Palate. See Palatum.

PALATE BONE. (Os palati; from pale, to hedge in; because it is staked in, as it were, by the teeth.) These two bones are of very irregular figure. They are placed between the ossa maxilaria superiora and the os splienoides, at the back part of the roof of the mouth, and extend from thence to the bottom of the orbit. Each of these bones may be divided into four parts, viz. the inferior, or square portion, the pterygold process, the nasal lamella, and orbitar process. The first of these, or the square part of the bone, helps to form the palate of the mouth. The upper part of its internal edge rises into a spine, which makes part of the septum narium. The pterygoid process, which is smaller above than below, is so named from its being united with the pterygoid processes of the sphenoid bone, with which it helps to form the pterygoid fossæ. It is separated from the square part of the bone, and from the nasal iamella. by an oblique fossa, which, applied to such another in the os maxillare, forms a passage for a branch of the filth pair of nerves. The nasal lamella is nothing more than a very thin bony plate, which arises from the upper side of the external edge of the square part of the bone. Its inner surface is concave, and furnished with a ridge, which supports the back part of the os spongiosum inferius. Externally, it is convex, and firmly united to the maxillary bone. The orbitar process is more irregular than any other part of the bone. It has a smooth surface, where it helps to form the orbit; and, when viewed in its place, we see it

contiguous to that part of the orbit which is formed by the os maxillare, and appearing as a small triangle at the inner extremity of the orbitar process of this last men-This fourth part of the os tioned bone palati likewise helps to form the zygomastic fossa on each side, and there its surface is Between this orbitar process concave. and the sphenoid bone, a hole is formed, through which an artery, vein, and nerve, are transmitted to the nostrils. The ossa palati are complete in the fœtus. They are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora, os sphenoides, os ethmoides, ossa spongiosa inferiora, and vomer

PALATI CIRCUMPLEXUS. See Circum-

fiexus.

PALATI LEVATOR. See Levator palati.
PALATI TENSOR. See Circumflexus.

PALATO-PHARYNGEUS. (Jeusculus palato pharyngeus; so called from its origin in the palate and insertion in the pharynx.) Thyreo-staphilinus of Douglas. Thyreo-pharyngo-staphilinus of Winslow, and palato-pharyngien of Dumas. A muscle situated at the side of the entry of the fauces. It arises by a broad beginning from the middle of the velum pendulum palati at the root of the uvula posteriorly, and from the tendinous expansion of the circumflexus palati. The fibres are collected within the posterior arch behind the tonsils, and run backwards to the top and lateral part of the pharynx, where the fibres are scattered and mixed with those of the style-pharyngeus. It is inserted into the edge of the upper and back part of the thyroid cartilage. Its use is, to draw the uvula and velum pendulum palati downwards and backwards, and at the same time to pull the thyroid cartilage and pharynx upwards, and shorten it; with the constrictor superior pharyngis and tongue, it assists in shutting the passage into the nostrils; and in swallowing, it thrusts the food from the fauces into the pharynx.

PALATO-SALFING.EUS. (From palatum, the palate, and σαλπηξ, a trumpet; so called from its origin in the palate, and its trumpet-like shape.) See Circumflexus.

PALATO-STAPHILINUS. See Azygos uvu-

læ.

PALATUM. (From palo, to hedge in, because it is staked in, as it were, by the teeth.) The palate, or roof of the mouth.

PALATUM MOLLE The soft palate. This lies behind the bony palate; and from the middle of it the uvula hangs down.

PALEA DE MECHA. A name given by some to the Juncus Odoratus.

PALIMPISSA. (From waln, repetition, and wirea, pitch.) Dioscorides says, that dlry pitch is thus named, because it is prepared of pitch twice boiled.

PALINDROMIA. (II ax 1, again, and Seo-

μος, a course.) Is used by Hippocrates for any recurritation of humours to the more noble parts: and sometimes for the return of a distemper.

Paliurus. (From σαλλω, to move, and sgo, urine; so called from its diuretic qualities.) A species of white thorn.

PALLIATIVA. (From pallie, to dissemble.) Medicines given only with an intent to relieve pains in a fatal disease.

PALM OIL. Oleum palm.e. This oil 13 produced chiefly from the fruit of the Cocos butyracea of Linnæus :- inernis, frondibus pennatis : foliolis simplicibus, by bruising and dissolving the kernels of the fruit in water, without the aid of heat, by which the oil is separated, and rises to the surface, and, on being washed two or three times, is rendered fit for use. When brought into this country, it is of the consistence of an ointment, and of an orange yellow colour, with little taste, and of a strong, though not disagreeable, smell. Its use is confined to external applications in pains, tumours, and sprains; but it appears to possess very little if any advantage over other bland oils.

PALMA. (From TALLAW, to move.)

1. The palm of the hand.

2. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system, so called because the leaves are extended from the top, like the fingers upon the hand.

PALMA CHRISTI. See Ricinus.

PALMARIS BREVIS. (Palmaris, from palma, the hand.) Palmaris brevis vel caro quadrata of Douglas, and Palmare cutané of Dumas. A small, thin, cutaneous, flexor muscle of the hand, situated on the fore-arm, between the wrist and the little-finger. Fallopius tells us that it was discovered by Cananus. Winslow names it palmaris cataneus. It arises from a small part of the internal annular ligament, and inner edge of the aponeurosis palmaris, and is inserted by small bundles of fleshy fibres into the os pisiforme, and into the skin and fat that cover the abductor minimi digiti. This muscle seems to assist in contracting the palm of the hand

PALMARIS CUTANEUS. See Palmaris

brevis

PALMARIS LONGUS. Ulnaris gracilis of Winslow, and Epitrochlo carpi palmaire of Dumas. A flexor minscle of the arm, situated on the fore-arm, immediately under the integuments. It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the os himeri, but soon becomes fleshy, and after continuing so about three inches, terminates in a long slender tendon, which, near the wrist, separates into two portions, one of which is inserted into the internal annual r ligament, and the other loses itself in a tendinous membrane, that is nearly of a triangular shape, and extends over the

palm of the hand, from the carpal ligament to the roots of the fingers, and is called aponeurosis palmaris. Some of the fibres of this expansion adhere strongly to the metacarpal bones, and separate the muscles and tendous of each finger. Several anatomical writers have considered this aponeurosis as a production of the tendon of this muscle, but seemingly without reason, because we now and then find the latter wholly inserted into the carpal ligament, in which case it is perfectly distinct from the aponeurosis in question; and, in some subjects, the palmaris longus is wanting, but the aponeurosis is always to be found. Rhodius, indeed, says that the latter is now and then deficient; but there is good reason to think that he was mistaken. This muscle bends the hand, and may assist in its pronation; it likewise serves to stretch the aponeurosis palmaris.

PALMOS. (From wanne, to beat.)

palpitation of the heart

PALMULA. (Dim. of palma, the hand; so called from its shape.) 1. A date.

2. The broad and flat end of a rib.

PALPEBRÆ. (A palpitando, from its frequent motion.) The eyelids, distinguished into upper and under: at each end they unite and form the canthus.

Pulpebræ superioris levator. See Levator

palpebræ superioris.

palpebræ superioris.

PALPITATIO. 1. A palpitation or

convulsive motion of a part.

2. Palpitation of the heart, which is either constant or frequently returning. A genus of disease in the class Neurosis, and order Spasmi, of Cullen.

Palsy. Sec Paralysis.

PALUDAPIUM. (From palus, a lake, and apium, smallage; so named because it grows in and about rivulets.) A species of smallage.

PALUS SANCTUS. A

PANPHILIUM. (From was, all, and wi-205, grateful; so called from its extensive usefulness.) A plaster described by Ga-

Pampiniformis. (From pampinus, a tendril, and forma, a likeness.) Resembling a tendril; applied to the spermatic chord

and the thoracic duct.

was, all, and automai, to cure.) An epithet given by the antients to those remedies which they conceived would cure every disease. Unfortunately for those of the present day there are no such remedies.

of potash.

L'ANACEA DUPLICATA. ash.

PANACEA VEGETABILIS. Saffron.

PANADA. (Dim. of pane, bread, Ital.) Panata. Panatella. Bread boiled in water to the consistence of pap. Dry biscuits soaked are the best for this purpose.

PANALETHES. (From may, all, and annons, true.) A name of a cephalic plaster,

from its universal efficacy.

Corrupted from parony-PANARITIA.

PANARIS. (Corrupted from paronychia.) See Paronychia

PANAVA. See Lignum pavana.

PANAX. (From mar, all, and axes, 2 cure.) The pharmacopocial name of Hercules's allieal or wound wort. Laserpitium chironium of Linnaus The seeds and roots of this plant are warm, and similar in flayour and quality to those of the parsnip. The roots and stalks have a much stronger smell, which resembles that of opoponax, and Boerhave relates, that on wounding the plant in the summer, he obtained a yellow juice, which being inspissated a little in the sun, agreed perfectly in both respects with that exotic gum resin.

PANAX QUINQUEFOLIUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the

ginseng root. See Ginseng.

PANCHESTOS. (From may, all, xeesos, useful, so named from its general usefulness.) Panchreston. An epithet of a collyrium described by Galen. It is also of Palpebrum aperiens rectus. See Levator the same signification as Panacea, but little used.

PANCHYMAGOGA. (From way, all, xumos, succus, humour, and ayo, duco, to lead or draw.) Is ascribed to such medicines as are supposed to purge all humours equally alike: but this is a conceit now not minded.

PANCOENUS. (From Tas, all, and ROLVOS. common ) Epidemic; applied to popular diseases, which attack all descriptions of

persons.

PANCRATIUM. (From mas, all, and name of guaia- xeatew, to conquer; so called from its virtues in overcoming all obstructions.) See

PANCREAS. (From mas, all, and xgeas, flesh; so called from its fleshy consistence.) A glandular viscus of the abdomen, of a long figure, compared to a dog's tongue, situated in the epigastric region under the stomach. It is composed of innumerable small glands, the excretory ducts of which PANACEA. (From war, the neuter of unite and form one duct, called the pancreatic duct, which perforates the duodenum with the ductus communis choledochus, and conveys a fluid, in its nature similar to saliva, into the intestines. The pancreatic artery is a branch of the splee PANACEA DUC HOLSATIE. The sulphate nic. The veins evacuate theniselves into the splenic vein. Its nerves are from the Sulphate of pot- par vagum and great intercostal. The use of the pancreas is to secrete the pancreatic juice, which is to be mixed with the 4 G

chyle in the duodenum. The quantity of the fluid secreted is uncertain; but it must be very considerable, if we compare it with the weight of the saliva, the pancreas being three times larger, and seated in a warmer place. It is expelled by the force of the circulating blood, and of the incumbent viscera in the full abdomen; as the liver, stomach, spleen, mesenteric and splenic arteries, and the aorta. Its great utility appears from its constancy, being found in almost all animals; nor is it refuted by the few experiments in which a part of it was cut out from a robust animal, without occasioning death; because the whole pancreas cannot be removed without the duodenum: for even a part of the longs may be cut out without producing death, but they are not therefore useless. It seems principally to dilute the viscid cystic bile, to mitigate its acrimony, and to mix it with the food. Hence it is poured into a place remote from the cystic duct, as often as there is no gallbladder. Like the rest of the intestinal humours, it dilutes and resolves the mass of aliments, and performs every other office of the saliva.

Pancreatic duct. See Ductus pancreaticus.

Parcreatic juice. See Pancreas.

PANCRENE. (From mas, all, and nenun, a fountain ) A name of the pancreas from its great secretion.

PANDALITIUM. A whitlow.

PANDEMIC. (Pandemicus; from mar, all, and demos, the people ) A synonym of epidemic. See Epidemic.

PANDICULATIO. (From pandiculo, to gape and stretch.) Pandiculation, or that restless stretching and gaping which accompanies the cold fit of an ague.

PANICUM. (A paniculis, from its many particles; the spike consisting of innumerable thick seeds, disposed in many panicles.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Triandria, Order, Digynia.

The systematic PANICUM ITALICUM. name of the plant which affords the Indian millet-seed See Millet-seed, Indian.

PANICUM MILIACEUM. The systematic let seed. See Millet-seed

PANIS CUCULIS. See Acetosella.

Panis porcinus. A species of cycla-

PANNICULUS. (From pannus, cloth.) 1. A piece of fine cloth.

2. The cellular and carnous membranes are so called from their resemblance to a piece of fine cloth.

PANNONICA. (From pannus, a rag; so called because its stalk is divided into many uneven points, like the end of a piece of rag.) Hawkweed.

PANNUS. (From meyo, to labour.) 1, A piece of cloth.

2. A tent for a wound.

3. A speck in the eve, resembling a bit

4. An irregular mark upon the skin.

PANOCHIE. Buboes in the groin.

PANOPHOBIA. (From may, all, and φοδος, fear.) That kind of melancholy which is attended with groundless fears.

Pansies. See Viola triocolor.

Pantagoga. (From mas, all, and ayo, to drive out.) Medicines which expel all morbid humours.

PANTOLMIUS. (From mas, all, and Toxμαω, to dare; so named from its general uses.) A medicine described by Ægine-

PANTOPHOBIA. The same as hydropho-

Panus. (From mera, to work.) 1. A weaver's roll.

2. A soft tumour shaped like a weaver's

PAPAVER. (Papaver, from pappa, pap; so called because nurses used to mix this plant in children's food to relieve the colic and make them sleep.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Polyandria. Order Mo-

nogynia. The poppy

2. The pharmacopeial name of the white poppy. Papaver album. Papaver somnife-rum of Linnxus:—calycibus capsulisque glabris, foliis amplexicaulibus incisis. It is from heads of this plant that the opium is obtained. See Opium They are also directed for medicinal use in the form of fomentation, and in the syrupus papaveris, a useful anodyne, which often succeeds in procuring sleep where opium fails; it is, however, more especially adapted to children. The seeds of this species of poppy contain a bland oil, and in many places are eaten as food; as a medicine, they have been usually given in the form of emulsion in catarrhs, stranguries, &c.

PAPAVER ERRATICUM. Red or corn poppy. Papaver rheas of Linnaus:-capsulis glabris globosis, caule piloso multifloro, foliis pennatifidis incisis. The heads of this species, like those of the somniferum, name of the plant which affords the mil- contain a milky juice of a narcotic quality; from which an extract is prepared, that has been successfully employed as a sedative. The flowers have somewhat of the smell of opium, and a mucilaginous taste, accompanied with a slight degree of bitterness. A syrup of these flowers is directed in the London Pharmacopaia, which has been thought useful as an anodyne and pectoral, and is prescribed in coughs and catarrhal affections. See Syrupus rhæados.

PAPAVER NIGRUM. The black poppy. The seeds and heads of the paparer somni-

ferum, are also called in some pharmacopœias semina and capitula papaveris nigra. See Papaver.

PAPAVER RUBAS. The systematic and pharmacoperal name of the red corn pop-

py. See Papaver erraticum

PAPAVER SONVIFERUM. The systematic name of the white poppy. See Papa-

ver erraticum.

PAPAW. The fruit of the Carica papapa of Linnæus, a native of both Indics, and Guinea coast of Africa. When the roundish fruit are nearly ripe, the inhabitants of India boil and eat them with their meat, as we do turnips. They have somewhat the flavour of a pompion. Previous to boiling, they soak them for some time in salt and water, to extract the corrosive juice, unless the meat they are to be boiled with should be very salt and old, and then this juice being in them will make them as tender as a chicken. But they mostly pickle the long fruit, and thus they make no bad succedancum for mango. The buds of the female flowers are gathered, and made into a sweetmeat; and the inhabitants are such good husbands of the produce of this tree, that they boil the shells of the ripe fruit into a repast, and the insides are caten with sugar in the manner of melons.

PAPILLA. 1. The nipple of the breast.

See Nipple.

2. The fine terminations of nerves, &c. as the nervous papillæ of the tongue, skin, &c.

PAPILLE MENULLARES. Small eminences on the medulla oblongata.

Papillanis Herba. Sec Lapsana.

Papres. The hair on the middle of the chin. See Capillus.

PAPULA. (Papula, dim. of pappa, a dug or nipple.) A very small and accuminated clevation of the cuticle, with an inflamed base, not containing a fluid, nor tending to suppuration. The duration of papula is uncertain, but they terminate for the most part in seurf.

PAN CUCULLANE. So Casserius calls the

Musculus Crico Arytænoideus.

PAR VAGUM. (Par, a pair.) The eighth pair of nerves. They arise from the corpora olivaria of the medulla oblongata, and proceed into the neck, thorax, and abdomen. In the neck the par vagum gives off two branches, the lingual and superior laryngeal; and, in the thorax, four branches, the recurrent laryngeal, the cardiac, the pulmonary, and the esophageal plexuses. At length the trunks of the nervi vagi, adjacent to the mediastinum, run into the stomach, and there form the stomachic plexus, which branches to the abdominal plexuses.

PARACENTESIS. (From @aganertem, to pierce through.) The operation of tup-

ping to evacuate the water in ascites, dropsy of the ovarium, uterus, &c.

PARACHASTICOS. (From maganhaga, to decline.) Paracme. The decleusion of any distemper; also, according to Galen, that part of life, where a person is said to grow old, and which he reckons from 35 to 49, when he is said to be old.

PARACOE. (From #aga, dim, and anew, to hear.) Difficult hearing; dulness of

hearing.

PARACOLLETICA. (From παξακολλομαι, to glue together.) Agglutinants; substances which unite parts preternaturally separated.

PARACOPE. (From παζακοπτω, to be delirious.) In Hippocrates it is a slight

delirium.

PARACRUSIS. (From magazese, to depreciate.) A slight disarrangement of the faculties, where the patient is inattentive

to what is said to him.

PARACUSIS. (From σαρα, wrong, and ακκω, to hear.) Depraved hearing. Deafnoss. A genus of disease in the Class Locales, and Order Dysasthesia of Cullen. There are two species, 1. Paracusis impersecta. Surditas. When existing sounds are not heard as usual. 2. Paracusis imaginaria, called also susurrus. Syringmus. Syringmos. Timitus aurium. When maginary sounds are heard, not from without, but excited within the ear.

Panacrnanche. From  $\pi \alpha g \alpha_s \kappa u \omega v_s$ , a dog, and  $\omega \gamma \chi \omega_s$ , to strangle.) A species of Quinsy: it being a distemper to which dogs

are subject.

Paranetes. (Heb.) A pungent seed resembling the cardamom, is named granum paradisi, from its virtues

Paradisi grana. See Grana paradisi.

Parageossa. (From  $\pi \alpha g \alpha$ , and  $\gamma \lambda \alpha \sigma \sigma \alpha$ , the tongue.) A prolapsus of the tongue, a swelled tongue.

Panagoge. (From παζαγα, to adduce.) Signifies that fitness of the bones to one another, as is discernible in their articulation; and bones which are thereby easier of reduction, when dislocated, are by Hippocrates called παζαγαγοτέζα.

PARALAMPSIS. (From πας αλαμπω, to shine a little.) Some writers use this word to express a cicatrix in the transparent part of the cornea of the eye.

PARALLAGMA. (From raganatra, to change.) Parallaris. The transmutation of a solid part from its proper place, as where one part of a broken bone lies over another.

PAHALLAKIS. See Parallagma.

PAHALLELA. (From παςαλληλος, parallel.) A sort of seurf or leprosy, affecting only the palms of the hands, and running down them in parallel lines; it happens sometimes in the venereal disease.

absurdly.) A delirium in which the pa-

tient talks wildly.

PARALOPHIA. (From Taga, near, and λοφια, the first vertebra of the back.) Thus some anatomical writers, as Keil, &c express the lower and lateral part of the neck near the vertebræ

PARALYSIS. (From παζαλυω, to loose or weaken.) Catalysis. Attonitus morbus. Stupor. Tremor. The palsy. A genus of disease in the Class Neuroses, and Order Comata, of Cullen, known by a loss or diminution of the power of voluntary motion, affecting certain parts of the body, often accompanied with drowsiness. some instances, the disease is confined to a particular part; but it more usually happens that one entire side of the body from the head downwards is affected. The species are: 1. Paralysis partialis, partial, or palsy of some particular muscle. 2. Paralysis hemiplegica, palsy of one side, longitudinally. 3 Paralysis paruplegica, palsy of one half of the body, taken transversely, as both legs and thighs. 4. Paralysis venenata, from the sedative effects of poisons. Paralysis is also symptomatic of several diseases, as worms, scrophula, syphilis, &c.

It may arise in consequence of an attack of apoplexy. It may likewise be occasioned by any thing that prevents the flow of the nervous power from the brain into ungos, the thigh.) The inward parts of the the organs of motion; hence tumours, over distention and effusion, often give rise to it. It may also be occasioned by morbid matter to the head, by the suppression of usual evacuations, and by the pressure made on the nerves by luxations, fractures, wounds, or other external injuries. The long continued application of sedatives will likewise produce palsy, as we find those, whose occupations subject them to the constant handling of white lead, and those who are much exposed to the poisonous fumes of metals, or minerals, are very apt to be attacked with it. Whatever tends to relax and enervate the system, may likewise prove an occasional

cause of this disease.

Palsy usually comes on with a sudden and immediate loss of the motion and sensibility of the parts; but in a few instances, it is preceded by a numbness, coldness, and paleness, and sometimes by slight convulsive twitches. When the head is much affected, the eye and mouth are drawn on one side, the memory and judgment are much impaired, and the speech is indistinct and incoherent. If the disease affects the extremities, and has been of long duration, it not only produces a loss of motion and sensibility, but likewise a considerable flaccidity and

(From παραλεγω, to talk wasting away in the muscles of the parts

When palsy attacks any vital part, such as the brain, heart, or lungs, it soon terminates fatally. When it arises as a consequence of apoplexy, it generally proves very difficult of cure. Paralytic affections of the lower extremies ensuing from any injury done to the spinal marrow, by blows and other accidents, usually prove incurable. Palsy, although a dangerous disease in every instance, particularly at an advanced period of life, is sometimes removed by the occurrence of a diarrhea or fever.

The morbid appearances to be observed on dissections in palsy, are pretty similar to those which are to be met with in apoplexy; hence collections of blood, and of serous fluids, are often found effused on the brain, but more frequently the latter, and in some instances the substance of this organ seems to have suffered an alteration. In palsy, as well as in apoplexy, the collection of extravasated fluid is generally on the opposite side of the brain to that which is affected.

PARALYSIS HERBA. (From παραλυω, to weaken; so called from its use in paralytic disorders.) The cowslip and primrose are sometimes so termed. See Primula veris, and Primula vulgaris.

PARAMERIA. (From maga, near, and thigh.

Paramesus. (From maga, near, and meros, the middle.) The ring finger, or that which is between the middle and the little fingers.

PARANCEA. (From maga, dim, and voew, to understand.) Alienation of mind; de-

ranapechyum. (From πaga, near, and παχυς, the cubit.) That part of the

PARAPHORA. (From παζαφέζω, to trans. fer.) A slight kind of delirium, or lightheadedness in a fever: some use this word for a delirium in general.

PARAPHRENESIS. A delirium; also pa-

raphrenitis.

PARAPHROSYNE. (From Tagadeovew, to be estranged in mind.) The same as Ma-

PARAPHONIA. (From wags, wrong, and own, sound.) Alteration of the voice. A genus of discase in the Class Locales, and Order Dysciuesia of Cullen, comprehending six species, viz. paraphonia puberum, paraphonia ranca, paraphonia resonans, paraphonia palatina, paraphonia clangens, and paraphonia comatosa

PARAPHORA. (From magagego, to trans-A slight alienation of the mind.

PARAPHRENITIS. (From waga, dim,

and penv, the mind.) Diaphragmititis. An to cleave.) A fragment or fissure in a broinflammation of the diaphragm. A genus ken bone. of disease in the Class Pyrexia and Order with difficulty of breathing, and pain in mais and plants are so termed that rethe region of the diaphragm.

PARAPHYMOSIS. (From σαgα, about, others, as worms, polypes, hydatids, &c. and διμοφ, to bridle.) The paraphymo- Parasphagis. (From σαgα, near, and and φιμοω, to bridle.) The paraphymo-Paraseriagis. (From παξα, near, and sis is a disorder wherein the prepuce, being σφαγη, the throat.) The part of the neek retracted toward the root of the penis, cannot be returned again over the glans, corona. It is easily known; the glans is uncovered, the skin tumefied on the corostricture, which, from the skin being unequally extended, becomes indented, and makes several rings round the part. This disease may proceed from two causes; as first from the imprudence of young people, and sometimes also of grown persons, who baving the end of their prepuce too strait, cannot uncover their glans without pain, and when they have done it, neglect returning it so soon as they ought; and thus the contracted part of the prepuce forms a constriction behind the glans. Soon after, the glass and penis swell, and the prepuce being consequently very much distended, is affected in the same manner: an inflammation seizes upon both, and swellingsquickly appear upon the stricture formed by the prepuce, so that the whole dily relieved. The second thing that may produce a paraphymosis, is a venereal virus. In adults, whose glans is uncovered, camphorata. there frequently arise venereal chancres in the prepuce after impure coition, which before they digest, are generally attended with inflammation, more or less considerable. This inflammation is alone sufficient to render the prepuce too strait for the size of the penis, in consequence of which a swelling or inosculation may ensue like that before mentioned; and this is what is termed a paraphymosis.

PARAPLEGIA. (From παgaπλησσω, to strike inharmoniously.) Palsy of one half of the body taken transversely. A spe-

cies of paralysis. See Paralysis.

PAHAPOPLENIA. (From Taga dim, and ατοπληξία, an apoplexy.) A slight apo-

PARARTHRENA. (From ruga, and aggest, a joint ) A slight luxation; a tumour

from protrusion, as an hernia. PARABURHEMATA. Plural of pararthrema,

and synonymous with ectopice.

PANANYTHMOS. (From Taga, and gubucc, number.) A pulse not suitable to the age of the person.

PARASCEPASTRA. (From maga, and GRETZ (a, to cover.) A cap or bandage to go round the whole head.

PARASITIC. (Parasiticalis; Phlegmasic of Cullen, known by delirium, Tagaritos, a parasite or hanger on.) Aniceive their nourishment in the bodies of

contiguous to the clavicles.

l'anastata. (From magishui, to stand but makes a sort of ligature behind the near.) It signifies any thing situated near another.

PARASTATE. (From magiorepi, to stand na, and above it forms a circular collar or near.) In Hippocrates it signifies the Epididymis. Herophilus and Galen called these the Varicosa Parastata, to distinguish them from the Glandulosa Parastata, now called Prostate Rufus Ephesius called the tubæ Fallopianæ by the name of Parastatæ Varicosæ.

PARASTREMMA. (From TagaTTEEpw, to distort, or pervert.) A perversion, or convulsive distortion of the mouth, or any part of the face.

PARASTNANCHE. A species of Quinsy.

See Paracynanche.

PARATHENAN. (From maga, near, and Devag, the sole of the foot.) A muscle situated near the sole of the foot.

Parathenar minor. See Flexor brevis

minimi digiti pedis.

PARDALIUM. (From magsoc, the panmay be liable to a gangrene, if not spee- ther.) An ointment smelling like the pan-

Paregoric Elixir. See Tinctura opii

PAREGORICS. (Medicamenta paregorica, παζηγοςικος ; from σαζαγοςεω, to mitigate, to assnage.) Medicines that allay pain are so termed.

PAREIA, Hagera. That part of the face which is between the eyes and

PAREIRA BRAVA. See Pariera brava. PARENCEPHALIS. (From waga, near,

εγκεφαλος, the brain.) See Cerebellum. PARENCHYMA. (From Φαζεγκυο, to strain through, because the ancients believed the blood was strained through it.) The spongy and cellular substance that connects parts together. It is now only, in anatomy, applied to the connecting medium of the substance of the lungs.

PARESIS (From maginial, to relax.)

An imperfect palsy.

PARIERA BRAVA. (Span.) Pareyra. Ambutna. Butna. Overo butna. The root of this plant, Cissumpelos pareira of Linnans. foliis pellatis cordatis emarginatis. Class, Dioecia. Order, Monodelphia. native of South America and the West Indies, has no remarkable smell, but to the taste it manifests a notable sweetness of the liquorice kind, together with a PARASCHIVE. (From Taga, and oxiga, considerable bitterness, and a slight roughness covered by the sweet matter. The facts adduced on the utility of the radix pariere bruve in the nephritic and calculous complaints, are principally mentioned by foreigners, and no remarkable instances of its efficacy are recorded by English

practitioners.

PARIETAL BONES. (Parietalis, from paries, a wall, because they defend the brain like walls.) Ossa verticis. Ossa syncipitis. Ossa verticalia vel bregmatis. Two arched and somewhat quadrangular bones, situated one on each side of the superior part of the cranium. Each of these bones forms an irregular square. They are thicker above than below; but are somewhat thinner, and at the same time more equal and smooth than the other bones of Paris. The herb true love. Paris quadrithe cranium serve in them, is a small one towards the this plant indicate its possessing narcotic upper and posterior part of each. It. has been named the parietal foramen, and serves for the transmission of a small vein to the longitudinal sinus. In many subjects this foramen is wanting. On the inner surface of these bones are the marks of the vessels of the dura mater, and of the convoluted surface of the brain. On the inside of their upper edge we may likewise observe a considerable furrow, which corresponds with the longitudinal sinus of the dura mater; and lower down, towards their posterior and inferior angle, is a smaller one for part of the lateral sinuses. These bones are joined to each other by the sagittal suture; to the os sphenoides, and ossa temporum, by the squamous suture; to the os occipitis by the lambdoidal suture; and to the os frontis by the coronal suture. Their connexion with this latter bone is well worthy our attention. We shall find that in the middle of the suture, where the os frontis from its size and flatness is the most in danger of being injured, it rests upon the arch formed by the parietal bones; whereas at the sides, the parietal bones are found resting upon the os frontis because this same arch is there in the greatest danger from pressure. In new born infants, the ossa parietalia are separated from the middle of the divided os frontis by a portion of the cranium, then unossified. When the finger is applied to this part, the motion of the brain, and the pulsation of the arteries of the dura mater, may be easily distinguished. In general the whole of this part is completely ossified before we are seven years of age.

PARIETARIA. (From paries a wall; because it grows upon old walls, and among rubbish.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class,

Polygamia. Order, Monoecia.

The pharmacopæial name of the wall pellitory.

Linnæus :- foliis lanceolato-ovatis, peduneulis dichotomis, calycibus diphyllis plant has no smell, and its taste is simply herbaceous. In the practice of the present day it is wholly laid aside, although it was formerly in high estimation as a diuretic.

PARIETARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the wall pellitory. See Parietaria.

PARIS. (So called in reference to the youth of that name, who adjudged the golden apple to Venus, this herb bearing but one seed.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system.

tandria. Order, Tetragyvia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the herb The only foramen we ob- folia of Linnaus. The colour and smell of powers. The leaves and berries are said to be efficacious in the cure of hoopingcough, and to act like opium. Great caution is requisite in their exhibition, as convulsions and death are caused by an overdose. The root possesses emetic qualities.

Paris Quadrifolia. The systematic name of the herb Paris. See Paris.

PARISTHMIA. (From maga, and 108 mior: the part of the throat near which the tonsils are.) A part of the throat near the tonsils, or disorders of the tonsils.

PARISTHMIOTOMUS. (From wagiobuia, the tonsils, and reuve, to cut.) An instrument with which the tonsils were formerly scarified.

PARODONTIS. (From @202, near, and odss, a tooth.) A painful tubercle upon the

PARONYCHIA. (From waga, about and ovek, the nail.) Panaris. Panaritium. A whitlow, or whitloe. Any collection of pus formed in the fingers is termed by authors panaris, or whitloe, and is an abscess of the same nature with those arising in other parts of the body. These abscesses are situated more or less deep, which has induced the writers upon the subject to divide them into several species: accordingly they have ranged them under four heads, agreeable to the places where they are formed. The first kind of panaris is formed under the cuticle, on one side of the nail, and sometimes all round it. second is seated in the fat lying under the skin, between that and the sheath which involves the flexor tendons. The third is described by authors to be formed within the sheath; and they still add a fourth species, arising between the periosteum and the bone.

PAROPIE. (From waga, near, and wy, the eye.) The external angles of the

eyes.

PAROPTESIS. (From wagz, and onlaw, to Parietaria officinalis of roast.) A provocation of sweat, by mak-

ing a patient approach the fire, or by placing him in a bagnio.

PARORASIS. (From waga, dim, and cezw, to see.) An imbecility of sight.

PARORCHIDIUM. (From waga, and εεχις, a testicle.) A tumour in the groin, occasioned by the testicle, which is pass-

ing into the scrotum.

PAROTID GLAND. (Glandula parotidea; from raga, about, and se, the car.) Parotis A large conglomerate and salival gland, situated under the ear, between the mamillary process of the temple bone and the angle of the lower jaw. The excretory duct of this gland opens in the mouth, and is called, from its discoverer, the Stenonian duct

PAROTID.EA (From waparis, the parotid gland.) The trivial name of a species of quinsey, in which the parotid gland, neck and throat, are considerably affect-

cd. See Cynanche.

PAROTIS. (From waga, near, and es, the ear.) See Parotid gland.

PAROXYSM. (Paroxysmus; from σαςοξυνω, to aggravate.) A periodical exacerbation or fit of a disease.

Parsley, black mountain. See Oreoselimune.

Parsley, common. See Petroselinum.

Parsley, Macedonian. See Petroselinum Macedonicum. Parsnip. See Pastinaca.

Parsnip, water. See Sinm.

PARTHENIASTRUM. (Dim. of parthenium, tansy.) A species of tansy, or bastard feverfew.

PARTMENIS. The same as parthenium.

PARTHENIUM. (From wagbevog, a virgin; so called because of its uses in diseases of young women.) See Matrica-

PARTHENIUM MAS. See Tanacetum.

PARULIS, (From waga, near, and sxor, the gum.) An inflammation, boil, or abscess in the gums.

PARAGEON. (From waga, and vyeos, hum.d.) A liquid or moist preparation for allaying a topical inflammation.

PASIFILLUS. (From was, all, and place, grateful; from its general usefulness.) A name given to a vitriolic plaster.

Pasma. (From marra, to sprinkle

over.) See Catupasma Passa. (From pando, to spread.) In

Paracelsus it is a whitloe.

PASSA MINOR. See Uva passa minor. Passavanticus. (From &ac, all, and avaira, to dry up.) An epithet given by Schroder to a powder which dries up and evacuates morbid humours.

PASSIFLORA. of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, two slightly concave surfaces, of which the Gynandria. Order, Pentandria.

l'ASSITLORA LAURIFOLIA.

passion-flower. A native of Surinam. The fruit have a delicius smell and flavour, and are excellent for quenching thirst, abating heat of the stomach, increasing the appetite, recruiting the spirits, and allaying the heat in burning fevers.

Passiflora maliformis. Apple-shaped granadilla. The fruit of this species of passion flower is esteemed a delicacy in the West Indies, where it is served up at table in desserts: they are not unwhole-

Passion, cæliac. See Diarrhæa. Passion, hysteric. See Hysteria. Passion, ihac. See Iliac passion. PASSULE MAJORES. See Uva passa major.

Passulatum. (From passo, a fig, or raisin.) Is a term given by Dispensatory writers to some medicines, where raisins. are the chief ingredient, as the electarium passulatum, &c.

(From passa, a grape, or Passum.

raisin.) Raisin-wine.

PASTA REGIA. (From @2000, to sprinkle.) A lozenge, or small cake, sprinkled over with some dry powdered substance.

Pastillum. (Dim. of pasta, a lozenge.) Pastillus. A little lump of paste, or ball, made to take like a lozenge, a troch, or pastil.

PASTINACA. (A pasta; from its usefulness as a food.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digmia. Pars-

2. The pharmacopæial name of the parsnip. The cultivated or garden parsnip is the Pastinaca sativa of Linnæus:foliolis simpliciter pinnatis. Eluphoboscum. Its roots are sweet and nutritious, and in high esteem as an article of food. They possess an aromatic flavour, more especially those of the wild plant, and are exhibited in calculous complaints for their dirretic and sheathing qualities.

PASTINACA OPOPANAX. The systematic name of the plant which yields opopo-

nax. See Opoponax.

The systematic Pastinaca sativa.

name of the parsnip. See Pastinaca.
PATELLA. (Dim. of patina, a dish; so named from its shape.) Rotula. The knee-pan. A small flat bone, which, in some measure, resembles the common figure of the heart, with its point downwards, and is placed at the fore part of the joint of the knee. It is thicker in its middle part than at its edge. Anteriorly it is a little convex, and rough for the insertion of muscles and ligaments; posteriorly, it is smooth, covered with cartilage, and The name of a genus divided by a middle longitudinal ridge, into external one is the largest and deepest. Bay leaved They are both exactly adapted to the pul-

lev of the os femoris. The edges of this posterior surface are rough and prominent, where the capsular ligament is attached, rest.) It is a warm opiate, such as the and below is a roughness at the point of London College have called Confectio Opii, the bone, where the upper extremity of in their Dispensatory. It is the Paulina a strong tendinous ligament is fixed, which of Aristarchus, which is the same with the joins this bone to the tuberosity at the upper end of the tibia. This ligament is of considerable thickness, about an inch in breadth, and upwards of two inches in length. The rotula is composed internally of a cellular substance, covered by a thin bony plate; but its cells are so extremely minute, that the strength of the bone is, upon the whole, very considerable. In new-born children, it is entirely cartilaginous. The use of this bone seems to be, to defend the articulation of the joint of the knee from external injury. It likewise tends to increase the power of the muscles which act in the extension of the leg, by removing their direction farther from the centre of motion, in the manner of a pul- rieties, affording an wholesome nourishley. When we consider the manner in ment. which it is connected with the tibia, we find that it may very properly be considered as an appendix to the latter, which it follows in all its motions, so as to be to the tibia what the electanon is to the ulna; that of commamon, which it greatly resemwith this difference, however, that the rotula is moveable, whereas the olecranon is a fixed process. Without this mobility, for allaying obstinate vomitings. the rotatory motion of the leg would have been prevented.

PATHETICI. (Patheticus; from @abos, an affection; because they direct the eyes to express the passions of the mind.) Trochleutores. The fourth pair of nerves. They arise from the crura of the cerebellum laterally, and are distributed in the scurvy. musculus obliquus superior seu troch-

PATHOGNOMONIC (Pathognomonicus: from malos, a disease, and yirworw, to know.) A term given to those symptoms which are peculiar to a disease. They are also termed proper or characteristic symptoms.

PATHOLOGY. (Pathologia; from waθos, a disease, and λογος, a discourse.) The doctrine of diseases. It comprehends nosology, atiology, symptomatology, semio-

tics, and therapia.

PATIENTIA. (From patior, to bear, or suffer.) The name of the herb monk's rhubarh, from its gentle purging qualities. See Rhabarbarum

See Rhabarbarum Patience, garden. monachovum

(From pateo, to be PATOR NARIUM. opened.) The sinus, cavity, or chasmof

PATRUM CORTEX. (So called from the Jesuits, called fathers in the church of muscular fibres of the right auricle of the Rome, who first spread its use in Europe.) heart. See Cinchona.

PATURSA. The venereal disease.

PAULINA, CONFECTIO. (From @200, to Confectio Archigenis.

Paul's betony. See Veronica. PAVANA. See Liguum pavanæ.

PAVOR. (From paveo, to fear; so called from the dread there is of approaching or touching a person affected with it.) The

PEA. A species of pulse of great variety, and much in use as a nourishing article of diet.

Peach. See Persica. Pengle. See Primula veris. Pearl. See Margurita. Pearl-ashes. See Potash. Pearl-barley. See Hordeum.

PEAR. Of pears there are a many va-

Pecuepion. Huxediev. The perinaum. PECHURIM CORTEX. An highly aromatic bark, the produce of a species of Laurus It is extremely fragrant, like unto bles in its properties. In Lisbon it is much esteemed in the cure of dysenteries, and

PECHURIM FABA. See Faba pechurim.

PECHURIS. See Pechurim.

PECHYAGRA. (From wnxus, the cubit, and ayea, a seizure.) The gout in the el-

Pecnys. Hazus. The cubit, or elbow. PECHYTYRBE. An epithet for the.

Perquet's duct. See Thoracic duct. PECTEN. The pubes, or share-bone.

PECTINALIS. (Pectinalis, sc. musculus; so named from it arising at the pecten, or pubis.) Pectineus of authors, and Pubio femoral of Dumas. This is a small flat muscle, situated obliquely between the pubis and the little trochanter, at the upper and anterior part of the thigh. It arises broad and fleshy from all the anterior edge of the os pectinis, or pubis, as it is more commonly called, as far as its spine, and, descending obliquely backwards and outwards, is inserted by a short and broad tendon, into the upper and anterior part of the linea aspera of the os femoris, a little below the lesser trochan-This muscle serves to bend the thigh, by drawing it upwards and inwards, and likewise assists in rolling it ontwards.

PECTINATI MUSCULI (Pectinatus; from preten, a comb : so named from their supposed resemblance.) The fasciculated

Pectinæas. See Pectinalis.

Pectoralis. See Pectoralis major.

PECTORALIS MAJOR. pectoralis; from pectus the breast.) Pec- denied this use, and Albinus has omitted toralis of authors, and sterno-costo-clavio- it, probably because it does not take place humeral of Dumas. This is a broad, thick, in a natural state. fleshy, and radiated muscle, situated immediately under the integuments, and co- tieus of Albinus. Douglas and Cowper call vering almost the whole anterior part of this muscle Serratus minor anticus, and the breast. Winslow calls it pectoralis major, to distinguish it from the serratus anti- minor, and Dumas calls it Costo-coracoicus, which he has named pectoralis minor. It arises from the cartilaginous extremities muscle, situated at the anterior and lateral of the fifth and sixth ribs, from the last of part of the thorax, immediately under the which its tendinous fibres descend over the upper part of the obliquus externus and edges of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, rectus abdominis, helping to form a part near where they join with their cartilages of the sheath in which the latter is inclu- by an equal number of tendinous and ded. It likewise springs from almost the fleshy digitations, which have been comwhole length of the sternum by short ten-dinous fibres, which evidently decussate and some other muscles, from their having those on the other side; and tendinous and a similar origin, or insertion, have gotten gins the fibres run in a folding manner to- cends, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the outer side of the groove which lodges downwards; and when that is fixed, it may the tendon of the long head of the biceps: likewise serve to elevate the ribs. some of its fibres likewise extend into that groove; and, from the lower part of this lia; from pectus, the breast.) Medicines tendon, which is spread near two inches that relieve disorders of the ehest. along the os humeri, we find it sending off other fibres, which help to form the fascia that covers the muscles of the arm. It often happens that that part of the pectoralis which arises from the clavicle, is separated from the inferior portion, so as to appear gizage. That disease of the body in which like a distinct muscle. This has induced lice are continually bred on the skin. Winslow to divide it into parts, one of the thoracic portion. Sometimes these two portions are inserted by separate tendons, which cross one another at the upper and inner part of the os humeri, the tendon of the thoracic portion being inserted at the outer edge of the bicipital groove, immediately behind the other. This muscle, Pediasmus. (From medion, a field.) An and the latissimus dorsi, form the cavity of epithet of a species of wild myrrh. the axilla, or arm-pit. The use of the peelikewise oceasionally assists in moving the gria. trunk upon the arm; thus, when we exert any efforts with the hand, as in raising our- named from its many small feet.) 1. A selves from off an arm-chair, or in sealing a letter, the contraction of this muscle is particularly observable. To these uses or leaf. Haller adds that of assisting in perspiration, by raising the sternum and ribs. He tells us he well remembers, that when this muscle was affected by rheumatism, his feet. breathing was incommoded: and that, when troubled with difficulty of respiration, he had often found himself greatly relieved by raising and drawing back his

shoulders, keeping his arms at the same (Musculus time firmly fixed. Winslow however, has

PECTORALIS MINOR. Serratus an. Winslow gives it the name of Pectoralis dien. It is a fleshy and pretty considerable pectoralis major. It arises from the upper fleshy from more than a third of the ante- the name of serrati. From these origins it rior part of the clavicle. From these oris becomes thicker and narrower as it aswards the axilla, and are inserted by a the upper part of the coracoid process of broad tendon into the os humeri, above the scapula. The principal use of this the insertion of the deltoid muscle, and at muscle is to draw the scapula forwards and

PECTORALS. (Medicamenta pectora-

PECTUS. The breast. See Thorax. PECTUSCULUM. (Dim. of pectus, the breast; so named from its shape.) metatarsus.

PEDECULATIO. Morbus Pedicularis. ofer-

PEDES HIPPOCAMPI. (Pes, a foot, which he calls the clavicular, and the other so named from their resemblance to the feet of the hippocampus, or sea-horse.) Two columns at the end of the fornix of the brain, which diverge posteriorly.

PEDETHMUS. (From wudaw, to leap.) The motion which is sensible in the arteries

PEDICULARIA. (From pediculus, a toralis is to move the arm forwards, or to louse; so called from its use in destroying raise it obliquely towards the sternum. It lice.) The herb staves acre. See Staphisa-

PEDICULUS. (Dim. of pes, a foot; so

2. A pedicle or foot-stalk of a flower.

Pedicus. See Extensor digitorum brevis. PEDILUVIUM. (From pedes, the feet, and lavo, to wash.) A bath for the

PEDION. (From was, the foot.) sole of the foot.

PEDORA. (From pes, a foot.) sordes of the eyes, ears, and feet.

• 4 H

(From wnyavov, rue, PEGANELEUM. and shasov, oil.) Oil of Rue.

PEGANERUM. (From wnyavov, rue.) A

plaster composed of rue.

PEGANUM. (From Thyvuw, to compress; so called because, by its dryness, it condenses the seed.) Ruc. Pege. (Ilnyn, a fountain.) The internal

angles of the eyes are called Pega.

PELADA. A species of baldness, a shedding of the hair from a venereal cause.

PELAGRA. The disease called the pelagra does not appear to have been noticed by any of our nosologists. Indeed few accounts of it have hitherto been published, although the peculiar symptoms with which it is attended, and the fatal consequences which generally ensue from it, render it equally curious and impor-In certain districts, as Milan and Padua, in Italy, where it is peculiarly prevalent, it is computed to attack five inhabitants out of every hundred. The following account of this singular disease is extracted from Dr. Jansen's treatise on the subject, who had seen the disease at Milan:

About the month of March or April, when the season invites the farmers to cultivate their fields, it often happens that a shining red spot suddenly arises on the back of the hand, resembling the common erysipelas, but without much itching or pain, or indeed any other particular inconvenience. Both men and women, girls and boys, are equally subject to it. Sometimes this spot affects both hands, without sometimes on the neck, and now and then, though very rarely, on the face. It is sometimes also seen on the breasts of women, where they are not covered by the clothes, but such parts of the body as are not exposed to the air, are very seldom little, producing numerous small tubercles of different colours; the skin becomes dry and cracks, and the epidermis sometimes the health is not the least impaired, the lancholy increases, and at length ends in patient performs all his rural labours as real mania. before, enjoys a good appetite, eats heartireturn at their accustomed periods, and in person accustomed to see the disease

the proper quantity. But what is most surprising is, that in the month of September, when the heat of the summer is over, in some cases sooner, in others later, the disorder generally altogether disappears, and the skin resumes it natural healthy appearance. This change has been known to take place as early as the latter end of May or June, when it has only been in its earliest stage. The patients, however, are not now to be considered as well; the disease hides itself, but is not eradicated: for, no sooner does the following spring return, but it quickly re-appears, and generally is accompanied with severer symptoms. The spot grows larger, the skin becomes more unequal and hard, with deeper cracks. The patient now begins to feel uneasiness in the head, becomes fearful, dull, less capable of labour, and much wearied with his usual exertions. He is exceedingly affected with the changes of the atmosphere, and impatient both of cold and heat. Nevertheless he generally gets through his ordinary labour, with less vigour and cheerfulness indeed than formerly, but still without being obliged to take to his bed : and, as he has no fever, his appetite continues good, and the chylopoietic viscera perform their proper functions. When the pelagra has even arrived at this stage, the returning winter, nevertheless, commonly restores the patient to apparent health; but the more severe the symptoms have been, and the deeper root the disease has taken, the more certainly does the return of spring produce it with additional appearing on any other part of the body. violence. Sometimes the disease in the Not uncommonly it arises also on the shins. skin disappears, but the other symptoms remain notwithstanding. The powers both of the mind and body now become daily more enfeebled; peevishness, watchings, vertigo, and, at length, complete melancholy, supervene. Nor is there a more distressing kind of melancholy any where affected; nor has it ever been observed to to be seen, than takes place in this disattack the palm of the hand, or the sole of ease. "On entering the hospital at Legthe foot. This red spot elevates the skin a nano," says Dr. Jansen, "I was astonished at the mournful spectacle I beheld, especially in the women's ward. There they all sat, indolent, languid, with downcast assumes a fibrous appearance. At length looks, their eyes expressing distress, weepit falls off in white furfuraceous scales; but ing without cause, and scarcely returning the shining redness underneath still conti- an answer when spoken to; so that a pernues, and, in some instances, remains son would suppose himself to be among through the following winter. In the mean fools and mad people: and, indeed, with time, excepting this mere local affection, very good reason; for gradually this me-

"Many, as I had an opportunity of obly, and digests well. The bowels are ge- serving in this hospital, were covered with nerally relaxed at the very commencement a peculiar and characteristic sweat, having of the disease, and continue so throughout a very offensive smell, which I know not its whole course. All the other excretions how better to express than by compaare as usual; and, in females, the menses ring it to the smell of mouldy bread. A

would at once recognise it by this single ter, or returning again in the spring. This symptom. Many complained of a burn- occasions some of the inhabitants to paying pain at night in the soles of the feet, little attention to it; although, in other which often deprived them of sleep. Some cases, it reaches its greatest height after with double vision; others with fatuity; the second or third attack. It appears others with visceral obstructions; others that this disease is not infectious, and with additional symptoms. Nevertheless, that the causes producing it are yet unasfever still keeps off, the appetite is unimpaired, and the secretions are regularly carried on. But the disease goes on increasing, the nerves are more debilitated, the legs and thighs loose the power of motion, stupor or delirium come on, and the melancholy terminates in confirmed mania. In the hospital at Legnano, I saw both men and women in this maniacal state. Some lay quiet; others were raving, and obliged to be tied down to the bed, to prevent them from doing mischief to themselves and others. In almost all these, the pulse was small, slow, and without any character of fever. One woman appeared to have a slight degree of furor uterinus; for, at the sight of men, she became merry, smiled, offered kisses, and by her gestures desired them to come towards her. Some were occupied in constant prayers; some pleased themselves with laughter, and others with other things. But it was remarkable, that all who were in this stage of the disease, had a strong propensity to drown themselves. They now begin to grow emaciated, and the delirium is often followed by a species of tabes. A colliquative diarrhoa comes on, which no remedy can stop, as also has been observed in nostalgia. Sometimes, in the pelagra, the diarrhoa comes on before the delirium, and the delirium and stupor mutually interchange with each other. The appetite often suddenly failed, so that the sick will sometimes go for near a week without tasting food. Not uncommonly it returns as suddenly, so that they eagerly devoured whatever was offered them, and this even at times when they are horridly convulsed. The convulsions with which they are attacked, are most shocking to see, and are of almost every kind, catalepsy excepted, which has been described by writers. I saw one girl in bed, who was violently distorted by opisthotonos every time she attempted to rise. Some are seized with emprosthotonos; and others with other species of tetanus. At length, syncope and death close the tragedy, often without any symptom of fever occurring through the whole course of the disease. The first stage of the pelagra, in which the local affection only takes place, Dr. Jansen observes, continues in some instances for a great length of time; persons being occasionally met with in whom it has lasted six or eight, or even fifteen years, disappearing regularly every win- and inferior part of the pelvis. One of

certained. It has been supposed, by some, to arise from the heat of the sun's rays; and hence it is now and then called mal de sole; but this does not produce any similar disease in other parts of the world, where it is in an equal or even much greater degree than at Milan; no disease, in any respect resembling it, having hitherto been noticed in such regions, except the lepra asturiensis described by Thicry, and after him by Sauvages. In this, a tremor of the head and trunk of the body takes place, which does not happen in the pelagra. This, however, is the principal difference in the two diseases.

PELARIUM (From wnlos, mud; so called from its muddy consistence.) A collyrium. Pelato salpingaus. See Circumflexus.

Pelecanus. (From wederaw, to perforate; so named from its curvature at the end resembling the beak of the Pelican.) 1. The Pelican.

2. An instrument to draw teeth.

Pelecinum. (From @exensuc, a hatchet; so called because its seeds are shaped like a two-edged hatchet.) The hatchet vetch.

Peliona. (From wexos, black.) An ecchymosis when liver-coloured.

Pelitory, bastard. See Ptarmica. Pellitory of Spain. See Pyrethrum. Pellitory, wall. Sec Parietaria

PELMA. (From @EAW, to move forwards.) The sole of the foot, or a sock adapted to the sole of the foot.

PELTALIS CARTILAGO. (From pelta, a buckler; so called from its shape.) The scutiform cartilage of the larynx.

PELVIC LIGAMENTS. The articulation of the os sacrum with the last lumbar vertebra, and with the ossa innominata, is strengthened by means of a strong transverse ligament, which passes from the extremity and lower edge of the last lumbar vertebra, to the posterior and internal surface of the spine of the ilium. O her ligaments are extended posteriorly from the os sacrum to the ossa ilia on each side, and, from the direction of their fibres, may be called the lateral ligaments. Besides these, there are many shorter ligamentous fibres, which are seen stretched from the whole circumference of the articulating surfaces of these two bones. But the most remarkable ligaments of the pelvis are the two sacro ischiatic ligaments. which are placed towards the posterior

these may be called the greater, and the ted the outlet. It is composed by the other the lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament, arch of the pubis and by the sciatic liga-The first of these is attached to the pos- ments; it is wide and dilatable, to perterior edge of the os sacrum, to the tubemit the delivery of the child, but which rosity of the ilium, and to the first of the being sometimes too wide, permits the three divisions of the os coccygis. Its child's head to press so suddenly, and other extremity is inserted into the inner with such violence upon the soft parts, surface of the tuberosity of the ischium. that the perineum is torn. At its upper part it is of considerable breadth, after which it becomes narrower, been sought for in the skull, as in the conbut expands again before its insertion into tinuation of the sagital suture; but the the ischium, and extending along the tu- truest marks are those which relate to that berosity of that bone to the lower branch of the os pubis, where it terminates in a point, forms a kind of falx, one end of which is loose, while the other is fixed to the bone. The lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament is somewhat thicker than the former, and is placed obliquely before it. It bones, and with every peculiarity which extends from the transverse processes of may conduce to the easy passage of the the os sacrum, and the tuberosity of the spine of the ilium, on each side, to the spine of the ischium. These two ligaments not only serve to strengthen the articulation of the ossa innominata with the os sacrum, but to support the weight of the viscera contained in the pelvis, the back and lower part of which is closed by these ligaments. The posterior and external of the small intestines, and to give supsurface of the greater ligament likewise serves for the attachment of some portions of the gluteus maximus and gemini muscles. The symphysis pubis is strengthened internally by a transverse ligament, some of the fibres of which are extended to the obturator ligament.

PELVIS. (From weave, a basin, because it is shaped like a basin used in former times.) The cavity below the belly. The pelvis consists, in the child, of many pieces, but, in the adult, it is formed of four large bones, of the os sacrum behind, the ossa innominata on either side, and the os cocygis below. See Os sacrum, Ossa innominata, and Os cocygis. It is wide and expanded at its upper part, and contracted at its inferior aperture. The upper part of the pelvis, properly so called, is bounded by an oval ring, which parts the cavity of the pelvis from the cavity of the abdo-

The marks of the female skeleton have great function by which chiefly the sexes are distinguished; for while the male pelvis is large and strong, with a small cavity, narrow openings, and bones of greater strength, the female pelvis is very shallow and wide, with a large cavity and slender child.

The office of the pelvis is to give a steady bearing to the trunk, and to connect it with the lower extremities, by a sure and firm joining, to form the centre of all the great motions of the body, to contain the internal organs of generation, the urinary bladder, the rectum, and occasionally part port to the gravid uterus.

PELVIS AURIUM. The cochlea in the

PELVIS CEREBRI. The infundibulum in the brain.

Pemphigodes. (From σεμφίξ, a blast of wind.) A fever distinguished by flatulences and inflations, in which a sort of aërial vapour was said to pass through the skin.

PEMPHIGUS. (From σεμφιέ, a bubble, or vesicle.) Febris bullosa. Exanthemuta serosa, Morta. Pemphigus helveticus. Pemphigus major. Pemphigus minor. The vesicular fever. A fever attended by successive eruptions of vesicles about the size of almonds, which are filled with a yellowish scrum, and in three or four days subside. The fever may be either synocha or typhus. It is a genus of disease in the Class Pyrexia and Order Exanthemata of men This circle is denominated the brim Cullen. The latest writers on this disease of the pelvis; it is formed by a continued contend, that it is sometimes acute and and prominent line along the upper part sometimes a chronic affection; that the of the sacrum, the middle of the ilium, former is constantly attended with fever, and the upper part, or crest, of the pubis. the latter is constantly without; that in This circle of the brim supports the im- neither case is it an acrimonious or contapregnated womb, keeps it up against the gious matter thrown out by the constitupressure of labour pains; and sometimes tion, but pure serum, secreted by the cu-this line has been "as sharp as a paper-taneous exhalent arteries. So rare was this this line has been "as sharp as a paper taneous exhalent arteries. So have was this folder, and has cut across the segment of disease when Dr. Cullen wrote, that he the womb;" and so, by separating the never saw it but once, in a case which was womb from the vagina, has rendered delivery impossible; and the child escaping Stuart, then physician to the hospital at into the abdomen the woman has died. Aberdeen, published an account of it in The lower part of the pelvis is denomina- the Edinburgh Medical Commentaries.

venty-third regiment, aged eighteen, for- Society of London. Some subsequent obmerly a pedlar, and naturally of a healthy servations on pemphigus were published constitution. About twenty days before, in the London Med. Journal, by Mr. Thohe had been seized with the measles, when mas Christie. From a case which Mr. in the country; and, in marching to town, Christie describes, he is disposed to agree on the second day of their eruption, he with Dr. Dickson, in thingink that somewas exposed to cold; upon which they times, at least, pemphigus is not contasuddenly disappeared. On his arrival at gious. He remarks, however, that the pemphigus described by some foreign wriunder-ground apartment. He then com- ters was extremely infectious; circumplained of sickness at stomach, great op- stances which, he thinks, may lead to a pression about the pracordia, head-ache, division of the disease into two species, the pemphigus simplex and complicatus, tion, and stiffness and rigidity of his knees both of which, but especially the last, seem to vary much with respect to mildness and malignity.

> PEMPHIGUS MAJOR. A title under which pemphigus is spoken of by Sanvages, who defines it an eruption of phlyctænæ about the size of an hazel-nut, filled with

a thin yellow serum.

PEMPHIGUS MINOR. In this species

PEMPHIS. A species of Lithrum. PEMPTHUS. (From weptos, the fifth.) An ague, the paroxysm of which returns every fifth day.

PENEA A species of Polygala. PENEA MUCRONATA. The sys

cocolla. See Sarcocolla.

PENETRANTIA. (From penetro, to pierce with vesicles, or phlyctenæ, of the size of through.) Medicines which pass through

Penicilliform. (Penicilliformis; from In the interstices, between the vesicles, the penicillum, a pencil, and forma, likeness.) Resembling a painter's pencil.

PENICILLUS. (Dim. of peniculum, a brush.) 1. A tent, or pledget.

2. The glandular or secreting extremi-

PENIDIUM. A kind of clarified sugar, with a mixture of starch, made up into small rolls. The confectioners call it barley-sugar.

PENIDIUM SACCHARATUM. See Penidi-

PENIS. (A pendendo, from its hanging down.) Membrum virile. The cylindrical part that hangs down, under the mons veneris, before the scrotum of males It is divided by anatomists into the root, body, and head called the glans penis; cutis ulcerated, or livid; but of a red It is composed of common integuments, florid colour, as when the cuticle is sepa- two corpora cavernosa, and one corpus rated by a blister, or superficial burning. spongiosum, which surrounds a canal, the No other person laboured under a similar urethru, that proceeds from the bladder to discase, either in the part of the country the apex of the penis, where it opens by from which he came, or where he resided the meatus urinarius. See Urethra. The fold of the skin that covers the glans penis The arteries of Dickson, of Dublin, by Mr. Gaitskell and magna ipsius penis, empties itself into

The patient was a private soldier of the se- Mr. Upton, in the Mem. of the Medical Aberdeen, he was quartered in a damp lassitude and weariness on the least exerand other joints. He had been purged, but with little benefit. About ten days before, he observed, on the inside of his thighs, a number of very small, distinct, red spots, a little elevated above the surface of the skin, and much resembling the first appearance of the small-pox. This eruption gradually spread itself over his whole body, and the pustules continued the vesicles are no larger than garden-every day to increase in size.

Upon being received into the hospital, he complained of head ache, sickness at stomach, oppression about the præcordia, thirst, sore throat, with difficulty of swallowing; his tongue was foul, his skin felt hot and feverish; pulse from 110 to 120, PENEA MUCRONATA. The systematic rather depressed; belly costive, eyes dull name of the plant which affords the sarand languid, but without delirium. The whole surface of the skin was interspersed an ordinary walnut; many of them were the pores and stimulate. larger, especially on the arms and breast. appearance of the skin was natural, nor was there any redness round their base; the distance from one to another was from half an inch to a hand-breadth, or more. In some places two or three were joined tics of the vena portæ. See Liver. together, like the pustules in the confluent small-pox. A few vesicles had burst of themselves, and formed a whitish scab, or crust. These were mostly on the neck and face; others shewed a tolerable laudable pus. However, by far the greatest number were perfectly entire, turgid, and of a bluish colour. Upon opening them, it was evident that the cuticle elevated above the cutis, and distended with a thin, yellowish, semi-pellucid serum, formed this appearance. Nor was the surface of the in Aberdeen.

Since the publication of this case of is termed the prepuce. pemphigus, by Dr. Stuart, observations the penis are from the hypogastric and on this disease have been published by Dr. ischiatic. The vein of the penis, venu

the hypogastric vein. The absorbents of devil's-milk; so called from its resemthis organ are very numerous, and run blance.) Peplos Wild parsley under the common integuments to the Pero. (From ωεπτω, to ripen.) inguinal glands: absorbents also are found in great plenty in the urethra. E'he glands of the penis are, Cowper's glands, the prostate, muciparous, and odoriferous glands. The nerves of the penis are branches of the sacral and ischiatic.

PENIS CEREBRI. The pineal gland. Penis, erector. See Erector penis. PENIS MULIEBRIS. See Clitoris. Pennyroyal. See Pulegium.

Pennyroyal, harts. See Pulegium cervi-

PENTADACTYLON. (Fron wevre, five. and fartores, a finger; so called because it has five leaves upon each stalk, like the fingers upon the hand.) The herb cinque- thus called when greatly inflamed, or agfoil; also a name for the ricinus, the fruit of which resembles a hand.

PENTAMYRUM. (From serves, five, and surger, ointment.) An ointment composed

of five ingredients.

PENTANEURON. (From wever, five, and raugor, a string; so called because it has

hve-ribbed leaves.) Ribwort. Pentapharmacon. (From Ферте, five, and paguanov, remedium, remedy.) Any medicine consisting of five ingredients.

PENTAPHYLLOIDES. (From @EVTaquadov, cinquefoil, and eidos, likeness; so called

ren strawberry.

PENTAPHYLLUM. (From wevre, five, and φυλλον, a leaf; so named because it has so called because partridges were said to five leaves on each stalk.) Common cinquefoil, or five-leaved grass. The roots of this plant, Potentilla reptans of Linnaus: so called because the leaves surround the -foliis quinatis, caule repente, pedunculis stem, like those of a cabbage.) Roundrinforis, have a bitterish styptic taste, leaved hare's ear, or therow wax. This They were used by the antients in the plant, Buplurum rotundifolium of Linnaus, cure of intermittents; but the medicinal, was formerly celebrated for curing rupquality of cinquefoil is confined, in the tures, mixed into a poultice with wine and present day, to stop diarrheas and other oatmeal. Auxes.

Pentapleurum. The same as penta-

PENTATOMOM. (From wever, five, and perforans. τεμνω, to cut; so called because its leaves are divided into five segments.) Cinquefoil.

PENTOROBUS. (From werre, five, and egoCos, the wood-pea; so called because it has five seeds resembling the wood-pea.)

The herb peony.

PEPLION.

Peony, common. See Pæonia.

PEPANSIS. (From σεπαινω, to concoct.) Pepasmus. The maturation or concoction of humours.

The same as pepansis. PEPASMOS. PEPASTICA. coct.) Digestive medicines. PEPITA NUX. Ignatius's bean.

Cucurbita.

Pepper, black. See Piper nigrum. Pepper, Guinea. See Piper Indicum. Pepper, Jamaica. See Pimenta. Pepper, long. See Piper longum. Pepper, poorman's. See Hydropiper. Pepper, wall. See Illecebra. Pepper, water. See Hudropiper. Pepper, white, See Piper nigrum. Peppermint. See Mentha piperitis. Pepperworth. See Lepidium.

Perticos. (From wertw, to ripen.) Such a thing as promotes digestion, or is

digestive.

Peracute. Very sharp. Diseases are gravated beyond measure.

Percepier. Parsley-piert, or parsleybreakstone.

PERCOLATION. (Percolatio, straining through; from per, through, and colo, to strain.) It is generally applied to animal secretion, from the office of the glands resembling that of a strainer, in transmitting the liquors that pass through them.

PERDETUM. In Paracelsus it is the

root of skirret.

Perennial worm-grass. See Spigolia.
Pereterion. (From ωεσαω, to dig from its resemblance to cinquefoil.) Bar- through.) The perforating part of the trepan.

PERDICIUM. (From megdit, a partridge; feed upon it.) Pellitory of the wall.

PERFOLIATA. (From per and folium,

Perforans. See Flexor profundus perforans. Perforans, sen flexor profundus. See Flexor longus digitorum pedis profundus

Perforans, seu flexor tertii internodii digitorum pedis. See Flexor longus digitorum pedis profundus perforans.

Perforans vulgo profundus. See Flexor

profundus perforans.

PERFORATA. (From perforo, to pierce through; so called because its leaves are full of holes.) See Hypericum. Perforatus. See Flexor brevis digitorum

pedis, and Flexor sublimis perforatus.

Perforatus, seu flexor secundi internodii digitorum pedis. See Flexor brevis di-(From ωεπαινω, to con- gitorum pedis sublimis perforatus.

PERIAMMA. (From wigiante, to hang round.) An amulet, or charm, which was (From werker, the herb hung round the neck to prevent infection. stare about ) That kind of wild look which others of the Greek writers.

is observed in delirious persons.

round.) Sometimes it signifies the dress eases, signs, or symptoms, importing their of a person; at others, a translation of being salutary, and that they prognostithe morbific humours to the surface of cate the recovery of the patient. the body

sion, at the corners or uniting parts of the or delineation. In Vesalius, perigraphe sigeyelids. This disorder most frequently affects the internal commissure of the eyelids. The species are 1. Peribrosis, from the acrimony of the tears, as may be observed in the epiphora. 2. Peribrosis, from an ægylops, which sometimes extends to the commissure of the eyelids.

PERICARDITIS. (From @seinaediov, Inflammation of the the perieardium.)

pericardium. See Carditis.

PERICARDIUM. (From wegs, about, and nagdia, the heart.) The membranous bag that surrounds the heart. Its use is to secrete and contain the vapour of the pericardium, which lubricates the heart, and thus preserves it from concreting with the pericardium.

(From wegs, about, and PERICARPIA. carpus, the wrist.) Are medicines that are

applied to the wrist.

Penicenmia. (From wegt, about, and wvnµn, the tibia.) The parts about the tibia. PERICHONDRIUM. (From weel,

about, and xovdgos, a cartilage.) The membrane that covers a cartilage.

χειω, to anoint.) Any medicines with which the eyelids are anointed, in an opthalmia.

Periclasis. (From wegi, about, and κλαω, to break.) It is a term used by Galen for such a fracture of the bone as quite divides it, and forces it through the flesh into sight. Or a fracture with a great wound, wherein the bone is laid bare.

l'enicly venum. (From weginduza, to roll round; so called because it twists itself round whatever is near it.) The ho-

ney-suckle, or woodbine.

PERICRANIUM. (From weet, about, and xe zrior, the cranium.) The membrane that is closely connected to the bones of the head.

Peridesmica. (From wigi, about, and Sequec. a ligature.) Applied to an ischuria, or suppression of urine, from stricture in the urethra.

PERIDRONOS. (From wegs, about, and Seques, a course.) The extreme circumference of the hairs of the head.

Peniengia. Hegiegyta Is any needless caution or trouble in an operation, as rigingy oc. is one who despatches it with

PERIBLEPSIS. (From σεριβλέπω, to terms are met with in Hippocrates, and

Periestecos. (From weguothui, to sur-Penibole. (From περιθαλλώ, to sur-round, or to guard.) An epithet for dis-

PERIGRAPHE. (From wegizeaque, to cir-PERIBROSIS. An ulceration, or ero- cumscribe.) An inaccurate description, nifies certain white lines and impressions, observable in the museulus rectus of the abdomen.

Penin. (From wnga, a bag.) A testiele, Some explain it the Perinaum; others say it is the Anus.

PERINÆOCELE. (From wegivator, the perinæum, and κηλη, a rupture.) A rup-

ture in the perinaum.

PERINÆUM. (From wegiven, to flow round, because that part is generally moist.) The space between the anus and organs of generation.

Perinaus transversus. See Transversus

PERINYCTIDES. (From megi, and wot, the night.) Little swellings like nipples ; or, as others relate, pustules, or pimples,

which break out in the night.

PERIOSTEUM. (From wegi, about, and oseov, a bone.) The membrane which invests the external surface of all the bones, except the crowns of the teeth. It is of a fibrous texture, and well supplied with arteries, veins, nerves, and absorbents. It Pericurisis. (From εεξι, about, and is called pericranism, on the eranium; pericrbita, to anoint.) A liniment.

Pericurista. (From εεξι, around, and it covers cartilage; and peridesmium, when it covers ligament. Its use appears to be to distribute the vessels on the external surfaces of bones.

PERIPHIMOSIS. See Phimosis.

Peripleumonia. See Pneumonia.

PERIPNEUMONIA. (From wegt, and www. the lung.) Peripneumony, or inflammation of the lungs. See Pneumonia.

PERIPNEUMONIA NOTHA. Bastard or spurious peripneumony. Practitioners, it would appear, do not all affix this name to the same disease; some affirming it to be a rheumatic affection of the respiratory muscles, while others consider it as a mild peripneumony. It is characterised by difficulty of breathing, great oppression at the chest, with obscure pains, coughs, and oceasionally an expectoration. Spurious peripneumony is sometimes so slight as to resemble only a violent catarrh; and, after the employment of a few proper remedies, goes of by a free and copious expectoration; but sometimes the symptoms run high, and an effusion of serum into the brochiæ takes place, which destroys the patient.

PERIPYEMA. (From wegt, about, and wucr, pus.) Is a collection of matter about unnecessary circumstances: both the any part, as round a tooth in the gums: vuui, to break.) A breaking off, or a sepa- pletes the septum, in conjunction with the ration round about, either of corrupted pleura, with which it is continuous thro' bones or of dead flesh.

about.) Is a reflux of humours from the neys; anteriorly, behind the abdominal habit of the body into any of the larger muscles; it dips into the pelvis; from the emunctories for its excretion, as in an hy- bones of the pubis, passes over the bladdropsical case, of water upon the bowels der, and descends behind; and being again or kidneys, where it passes away by urine, carried backwards, at the entrance of the

κυφος, gibbons.) An incision made across itself which invests the loins, and in this the forehead, or from one temple to ano- situation lies before the rectum. The cel-ther, over the upper part of the os frontis, lular texture which covers the peritonaover the coronary suture. It was former um on the outside, is continued into ly used when a considerable inflammation sheaths in very many places; of which, or defluxion in the eyes attended,.

cus; from wegiseλλω, to contract.) The the obturatoria, those of the penis, bladder, vermicular motion of the intestines, by and aorta, and, ascending to the breast, which they contract and propel their con- accompany the œsophagus and vertebræ; tents. A similar motion takes place in the by means of which, there is a communica-Fallopian tubes, after conception, by means tion between the whole body and the periof which the ovum is translated from the tonzum, well known in dropsical people. ovarium into the uterus.

so called because pigeons cover it.) The surface, enclosing cellular substance, and herb vervain. See Verbena.

covering, but is applied, by Pecquet, to substance always accompanies this memthe mucous or villous coat or lining of branaceous coat, and joins it with the true the intestines, the same which Blasius substance of the viscus. Of this short kind calls Muscum Villosum; Bartholine, Crusta of production, three belong to the liver, Membranosa; and De Graaf, Crusta Ver- one or two to the spleen, and others to the micularis.

press.) 1. The time between a contraction stance of the viscera is defended from inand dilatation of the heart.

systole and diastole, which is by most placed by their own weight, and from indenied to be perceived in healthy per- juring themselves, being securely connectsons, but when dying it is very sensibly ed with the firm sides of the periton aum.

trepan.

quent hernia.

surface. Outwardly, it is every where sur- mesenterii. rounded by cellular substance, which, towards the kidneys, is very loose and very the general head of gastritis, as there are fat; but is very short at the lower tendon no certain signs by which they can be dis-

PERIRRHEXIS. (From wegs, about, eny- and the external lumbar fibres, it comthe various intervals of the diaphragm. PERIRRHEA. (From TELLEGEN, to flow Posteriorly, it descends before the kidureters in two lunar folds, it rejoins Periscrphismus. (From weer, about, and upon the intestinum rectum, that part of one receives the testicle on each side, an-PERISTALTIC MOTION. (Pristalti- other the iliac vessels of the pelvis, viz. It has various prolongations for covering Peristaphylinus. (From wegi, about, the viscera. The shorter productions of and saquaros, the staphylinus ) A muscle this membrane are called ligaments; and which is connected with the staphylinus. are formed by a continuous reduplication Peristerium. (From @egisegos, a pigeon; of the peritonæum, receding from its inner extending to some viscus, where its plates Peristoma. (From weels envious, to strew separate, and, having diverged, embrace Peristoma properly signifies any the viscus; but the intermediate cellular kidneys, and to the sides of the uterus and Perisystole. (From σερισελλω, to com- vagina. By this means, the tender subjury by any motion or concussion, and their 2. A pause, or intermission between the whole mass is prevented from being mis-

PERITONITIS. (From @egitovasov, the Periterion. (From wegi, and THEW, to periton zum.) An inflammation of the pepreserve.) The perforating part of the ritonaum. A genus of disease in the Class Pyrexiæ and Order Phlegmasiæ of Cullen. PERITON EORIXIS. (From περιτοναίον, the known by the presence of pyrexia, with peritonxum, and gnosw, to break.) A pain in the abdomen, that is increased bursting of the peritonxum, and conse- when in an erect position, but without other proper signs of abdominal inflamma-PERITONEUM. (From @egiteiva, to tion. When the inflammation attacks the extend round.) A strong simple mem- peritoneum of the viscera, it takes the brane, by which all the viscera of the ab- name of the viscus: thus, peritonitis hepadomen are surrounded. It has an exceed- tis, peritonitis intestinalis, peritonitis omeningly smooth, exhaling and moist internal talis, or epiploitis, or omentitis, peritonitis,

All these Dr. Cullen considers under of the transverse muscles. It begins from tinguished from each other, and the methe diaphragm, which it completely lines; thou of cure must be the same in all. He and, at the last fleshy fibres of the ribs, however distinguishes three species. neum, strictly so called, is inflamed.

ploitis, when he omentum is affected.

3. Peritonitis mesenterica, when the mc-

sentery is inflamed.

PERIZOMA. (From repilarvoul, to gird round.) Strictly signifies a girdle; but by Hildanus, and some other ch rurgical writers, it is applied to such instruments for supporting ruptures, which we commonly call trusses. Some also express by it the diaphragm.

PERLA. (Ital. and Span. perl, Welch,

perlen, Germ.) See Margarita.

Perls See Margurita.

PERNIO. A kibe or chilblain. A species of erythema of Cullen. Chilblains are painful inflammatory swelling's, of a deep purple or leaden colour, to which the fingers, toes, heels, and other extreme parts of the body are subject on being ex- gus posed to a severe degree of cold. pain is not constant, but rather pungent and shooting at particular times, and an insupportable itching attends. In some instances the skin remains entire, but in When the degree of cold has been very great, or the application long continued, are more apt to be troubled with chilsuch as are of a scrophulous habit, are remarked to suffer severely from them.

Peroneus anticus. See Peroneus brevis. musculus, negovaios, from perone, the fibula.) Its fibres run obliquely downwards, to-This muscle is the peroneus secundus seu wards a tendon which passes under the ananticus of Douglas, the peroneus medius seu nular ligament, and then running obliqueanticus of Winslow, the peroneus secundus ly outwards, is inserted into the root of the of Cowper, and petit-peroneo-sus-metatarsien metatarsal bone that supports the little toe. of Dumas. It arises by an acute, thin, This muscle assists in bending the foot and fleshy origin from the anterior and outer part of the fibula, its fibres continu- called because it fastens together the tibia ing to adhere to the lower half of that and the muscles.) The fibula. bone. Its round tendon passes through the groove in the malleolus externus, The peach. The fruit of the Amygdalus Peralong with that of the peroncus longus, sica of Linnaus. It is known to be grateful after which it runs in a separate groove to and wholesome, seldom disagreeing with be inserted into the upper and posterior the stomach, unless this organ is not in a part of the tubercle at the basis of the healthy state, or the fruit has been eaten inetatarsal bone, that supports the little to excess, when effects similar to those of toe. Its use is to assist the peroneus lon- the other dulco-acid summer fruits may be

Douglas, peroneus maximus seu posterior of These have an agreeable but weak smell, Winslow, peroneus primus of Cowper, and and a bitterish taste. Boulduc observes, tebi-peroneo-tarsien of Dumas, is situated "that when distilled, without addition, by somewhat anteriorly along the outer side the heat of a water bath, they yield oneof the leg. It arises tendinous and fleshy sixth their weight, or more, of a whitish from the external lateral part of the head liquid, which communicates to a consider-

1. Peritonitis propria; when the perito- anterior surface and outer side of the perone or fibula, its fibres continuing to ad-2. Peritonitis omentalis. Omentitis. Epi- here to the outer surface of the latter to within three or four inches of the malleolus externus. It terminates in a long round tendon, which runs obliquely behind the malleolus internus, where it passes through a cartilaginous groove in common with the peronens brevis, being bound down by an annular ligament. When it has reached the os calcis, it quits the tendon of the peroneus brevis, and runs obliquely inwards along a groove in the os cuboides, under the muscles on the sole of the foot, to be inserted into the outside of the posterior extremity of the metatarsal bone, that supports the great toe. Near the insertion of this muscle we find a small bursa mucosa. This muscle draws the foot outwards, and likewise assists in extending it.

Peroneus maximus. See Peroneus lon-

Peroneus medius. See Peroneus brevis. Peroneus posticus. Sce Peroneus longus. Peroneus primus. See Peroneus longus. Peroneus secundus. See Peroneus brevis.

PERONEUS TERTIUS. This is the others it breaks and discharges athin fluid. name given by Albinus to a muscle which, by some writers, is called nonus Vesalii, or Vesalius's ninth muscle of the foot; but the parts affected are apt to mortify and by most considered in the present day as slough off, leaving a foul ill-conditioned a portion of the extensor longus digitorum ulcer behind. Children and old people pedis. It is situated at the anterior, inferior, and outer part of the leg, along the blains than those of a middle age; and outeredge of the last-described muscle, to which it is intimately united. It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the lower half of the fibula, and from the ad-PERONEUS BREVIS. (Peroneus, sc. jacent part of the interosseous ligament,

Perone. (From Tuew, to fasten; so

PERSICA. (From Persia, its native soil.) produced. The flowers, including the ca-PERONEUS LONGUS. This muscle, lyx, as well as the corolla, are the parts which is the peroneus primus seu posticus of of the persica used for medicinal purposes. of the tibia, and likewise from the upper able quantity of other liquids a flavour

like that of the kernels of fruits. These air with the oxygen of the atmosphere flowers have a cathartic effect, and, espe-cially to children, have been successfully which a man has bathed, soon becomes given in the character of a vermifuge; for this purpose, an infusion of a drachm of the flowers dried, or half an ounce in their stitute purpose. May not this be recent state, is the requisite dose. The the origin of putrid fever, in those narrow sess an anthelmintic power, and from a great number of experiments appear to have been given with invariable success both to children and adults. However, as the leaves and flowers of the persica manifest, in some degree, the quality of those of the laurocerasis, they ought to be used with caution.

Persicaria. (From persica, the peach-tree, so called because its blossoms are like those of the peach.) Persicaria mitis. Plumbago. Arsmart. This plant, Polygonum persicaria of Linnaus, is said to pos- temperature of the atmosphere. Thus men sess vulnerary and antiseptic properties; with which intentions it is given in wine to restrain the progress of gangrene.

PERSICARIA MITIS. See Persicaria. PERSICARIA URENS. Sec Hydropiper.

PERSICUS IGNIS. A carbuncle. Avicenna says, it is that species of carbuncle which is attended with pustules and vesications.

PERSISTENS FEBRIS. A regular intermitting fever, the paroxysms of which return at constant and stated hours.

ed person, because, according to Pliny, the ancient actors used to mask them- causes a more acrid and coloured sweat; selves with the leaves of this plant.) See and the drinking a great quantity of cold Burdana.

form of very little drops adhering to the stices of the toes, it is very fetid, forming epidermis. The secretory organ is com- in the most healthy man blackish sordes. lowish, from the passage of the subcutane- colour. ous oil, and sebaceous matter of the sublinen, but also the thicker garments.

drogen. As the production of carbonated lungs; for when it is suppressed, the cu-

leaves of the persica are also found to pos- confined chambers in which there are many persons? 4. The glandular smegma and subcutaneous oil; hence linen is stained with a yellowish colour, and leanness is brought on. 5. The serum of the blood. This affords an immense quantity of water, and the albuminous and saline part of the sweat. It makes the linen of a viscid rigidity, and of a salt taste. Glass-blowers sometimes excrete so acrid a sweat, that salt has been seen collected in crystals on their faces.

Perspiration varies in respect to, 1. The have a more copious, viscid, and higher coloured sweat on the summer days, and in warm countries, than in colder regions. 2. Sex. The sweat of a man is said to smell more acrid than that of a woman. 3. Age. The young are more subject to sweat than the aged, who during the excessive heat of the summer scarcely sweat at all. 4. Ingesta. An alliacious sweat is perceived from eating garlic; a leguminous from peas; an acid from acids; a fe-tid from animal food only; and a rancid PERSONATA. (From persona, a disguis- sweat from fat foods, as is observed in Greenland. A long abstinence from drink water in summer, a limpid and thin sweat. PERSPIRATION. Perspiratio. The va- 5. Medicines. The sweat of those who pour that is secreted by the extremitics have taken musk, even moderately, and of the cutaneous arteries from the exter-assafædita, or sulphur, smells of their renal surface of the body. It is distinguished spective natures. 6. Region of the body. into sensible and insensible. The former is The sweat of the head is greasy; on the separated in the form of an invisible va- forehead it is more aqueous; under the pour, the latter so as to be visible in the axillæ very unguinous; and in the interposed of the extremities of the cutaneous 7. Diseases. In this respect it varies very arteries. The smell of the perspirable much, in regard to quantity, smell, and fluid, in an healthy man, is fatuous and colour; for the sweat of gouty persons is animal; its taste manifestly salt and amsaid to turn vegetable juices to a red comoniacal. In consistence it is vaporous and lour, and is of a cretaceous nature. Some aqueous; and its specific gravity is greater men also have a lucid sweat, others a than water. For the most part it is yels sweat tinging their linen of a carulean

The use of the insensible perspiration cutaneous glands. Sometimes it is red- are, 1. To liberate the blood from superdish, from the globules of the cruror pass- fluous animal gas, azot, and water, 2. ing through, especially under the axillæ. To eliminate the noxious and heterogenc-The quantity is sometimes so profuse, as ous excrements; hence the acid, rancid, not only conspicuously to moisten the leguminous, or putrid perspiration of some men. 3. To moisten the external surface The constituent principles of the per- of the body, lest the epidermis cutis, and spirable fluid appear to be, 1. Water, attenuated into vapour, by the matter of mospheric air. 4. To counter-balance the heat. 2. Animal gas, or carbonated by suppressed pulmonary transpiration of the

both appears to be the same.

observable, unless from an error of the and shortly afterwards returns to the non-naturals. Its first effect on the body amusements he was employed in before manner an aqueous diarrhoa is frequently rations, and falls into a faint. cured by sweating. 2. By eliminating, at

tussis, cough.) genus of disease in the class neuroses, and ing free and copious, the fits of coughing order spasmi of Cullen, known by a con- are less frequent, as well as of shorter vulsive strangulating cough, with hoop- duration. ing, returning by fits that are usually ter-

gious.

them but once in their life. The discuse are often repeated without any evident ears. cause; but in many cases, the contagion may depend upon various exciting causes, such as violent exercise, a full meal, the having taken food of difficult digestion, and irritation of the lungs by dust, smoke, or disagrecable odours. Emotions of the mind may likewise prove an exciting cansc.

Its proximate or immediate cause seems to be a viscid matter or phlegm lodged about the bronchiæ, trachea, and fauces, which sticks so close as to be expectorated with the greatest difficulty. Some have supposed it to be a morbid irritability of the stomach, with increased actions of its mucous glands; but the affection of the stomach which takes place in the disease, is clearly only of a secondary nature, so that this opinion must be erro-

The hooping-cough usually comes on with a difficulty of breathing, some degree of thirst, a quick pulse, and other slight febrile symptoms, which are succontinue perhaps for a fortnight or more, at the end of which time the disease puts on its peculiar and characteristic form, and is now evident, as the cough becomes convulsive, and is attended with a peculiar sound, which has been called a hoop.

When the sonorous inspiration has happened, the coughing is again renewed, and found in a hard and enlarged state. continues in the same manner as before, ill either a quantity of mucus is thrown vianum.

taneous is increased; hence the nature of up from the longs, or the contents of the stomach are evacuated by vomiting. The The use of the sensible perspiration, or fit is then terminated, and the patient resweat, in an healthy man, is scarcely mains free from any other for some time, is always prejudicial, by exhausting and the accession of the fit, expresses a desire drying it; although it is sometimes of ad- for food, and when it is given to him, takes vantage. 1. By supplying a watery ex- it greedily. In those cases, however, cretion: thus when the urme is deficient, where the attack has been severe, he often the sweat is often more abundant. In this seems much fatigued, makes quick inspi-

On the first coming on of the disease, the same time, any morbid matter. Thus there is little or no expectoration, or if various miasmata are critically expelled, in any, it consists only of thin mucus, and acute and chronic diseases, with the sweat. as long as this is the case the fits of coagh-PERTUSSIS. (From per, much, and ing are frequent, and of considerable du-The hooping-cough. A ration; but on the expectoration becom-

By the violence of coughing, the free minated by a vomiting, and being conta- transmission of blood through the lungs is somewhat interrupted, as likewise the Children are most commonly the sub- free return of the blood from the head, jects of this disease, and it seems to de- which produces that turgescence and sufpend on a specific contagion, which affects fusion of the face which commonly attend the attack, and in some instances brings being once produced, the fits of coughing on a hamorrhage either from the nose or

The discase having arrived at its height, may be considered as only giving the pre-usually continues for some weeks longer, disposition, and the frequency of the fits and at length goes off gradually. In some cases it is however protracted for several

months, or even a year.

Although the hooping-cough often proves tedious, and is liable to return with violence on any fresh exposure to cold, when not entirely removed, it nevertheless is seldom fatal, except to very young children, who are always likely to suffer more from it than those of a more advanced age. The danger seems indeed always to be in proportion to the youth of the person, and the degree of fever, and difficulty of breathing, which accompany the disease, as likewise the state of debility which prevails.

It has been known in some instances to terminate in apoplexy and suffocation. If the fits are put an end to by vomiting, it may be regarded as a favourable symptom, as may likewise the taking place of a moderate and free expectoration, or the ensuing of a slight hamorrhage from the

nose or ears.

Dissections of those who die of the coded by a hoarseness, cough, and diffi-culty of expectoration. These symptoms hooping-cough usually shew the consequence of the organs of respiration being affected, and particularly those parts which are the seat of catarrh. When the disease has been long protracted, it is apt to degenerate into pulmonary consumption, asthma, or visceral obstructions, in which last case the glands of the mysentery are

Peruvian balsum. Sce Balsamum Peru-

Peruvian bark. See Cinchona. PERUVIANUS CONTEX. See Cinchona.

PERUVIANUS CORTEX FLAVUS. See Cin-

PERUVIANUS CORTEX RUBER. See Cin-

PERVIGILIUM. (From per, much, and vigilo, to watch.) Watching, or a want of sleep. See Vigilance.

gether) So called because its stringy that he is very soon seized with great deroots were used for binding substances together The herb periwinkle.

PES ALEXANDRINUS. See Pyrethrum. PES CAPRE. Goat's foot, a species of the same time very weak and irregular. Oxalis; also a species of Convolvulus.

PES CATI. See Gnaphalium.

PES COLUMBINUS.

times so called. See Alchemilla.

of Ipomæa.

soften.) An instrument that is introdu-vailing to a great degree in the mass of ced into the vagina to support the uterus. the blood.

Pestilent wort. See Petasites.

ease in the class pyrexia and order exan- happens that they are all to be met with themata of Cullen, characterised by typhus, in the same person. Some, in the advancwhich is contagious in the extreme, proseed state of the disease, labour under butration of strength, bubbes, and carbunboes, others under carbuncles, and others cles, petechiæ, hæmorrhage, and colliqua- again are covered with petechiæ. tive diarrhoa.

divided into three species; that attended when it prevailed in this country about with buboes; that attended with carbun- 200 years ago, proved fatal to the most of cles; and that accompanied with petechiæ. those who were attacked with it. It is pro-This division appears wholly superfluous. bable, however, that many of them died Dr. Russel, in his elaborate treatise on the from want of care and proper nourishment, plague, makes mention of many varieties; as the infected were forsaken by their but when these have arisen, they seem to nearest friends; because in Turkey and have depended in a great measure on the other countries, where attention is paid temperament and constitution of the air at to the sick, a great many recover. the time the disease became epidemical, When the disease is unattended by bu-as likewise on the patient's habit of body boes, it runs its course more rapidly, and

coming near infected materials.

may lurk in an unfavourable habit without the same termination. producing the disease, and may yet be communicated, and the disease excited, in vered the gall-bladder full of black bile, habits more susceptible of the infection, the liver very considerably enlarged, the It has generally been supposed, however, heart much increased in size, and the that a quarantine of 40 days is much longer lungs, k-dneys, and intestines beset with than is necessary for persons, and probacarbuncles. They have likewise discobly for goods also. Experience has not vered all the other appearances of putrid yet determined how much of this term fever. may be abated. "If I am not much

mistaken," observes Dr. Thomas, "the Board of Trade has, however, very lately, under the sanction of the College of Physicians, somewhat abridged it.'

It sometimes happens that after the application of the putrid vapour, the patient experiences only a considerable degree of languor and slight head-ache for many days previous to a perfect attack of the PERVINCA (From pervincio, to tie to- disease: but it more usually comes to pass, pression of strength, anxiety, palpitations. syncope, stupor, giddiness, violent headache, and delirium, the pulse becoming at

These symptoms are shortly succeeded by nausea, and a vomiting of a dark bili-See Geranium colum- ous matter, and in the further progress of the disease, carbuncles make their ap-PES LEONIS. The ladies mantle is some- pearance; buboes arise in different glands, such as the parotid, maxillary, cervical, PES TIGRIDIS. Tiger's foot, a species axillary, and inguinal; or petcchizhemorrhages and a colliquative diarrhæa cn-PESSARY. (Pessarium, from weodo, to sue, which denote a putrid tendency pre-

Such are the characteristic symptoms PESTIS. The plague. A genus of dis- of this malignant disease, but it seldom

The plague is always to be considered By some writers the disease has been as attended with imminent danger, and

When the disease is unattended by buat the time of his being attacked with it. is more generally fatal, than when accom-The plague is by most writers consider-panied by such inflammations. The ear-ed as the consequence of a pestilential her they appear, the milder usually is the contagion, which is propagated from one disease. When they proceed kindly to person to another by association, or by suppuration they always prove critical, and ensure the patient's recovery. A gen-It has been observed that it generally the diaphoresis, arising spontaneously, appears as early as the fourth or fifth day has been known in many instances likeafter infection: but it has not yet been as- wise to prove critical. When carbuncles certained how long a person who has la- shew a disposition to become gangrenous, boured under the disease is capable of in- the event will be fatal. Petechia, homorfecting others, nor how long the contagion rhages and colliquative diarrhea denote

Dissections of the plague have disco-

DEMITARED

an urine which hath in it flaky substances nephritic pains and obstructions of urine.

resembling leaves.

PETASITES. (From meracos, a hat, so tive powers, but are soldom prescribed. named because its leaves are shaped like a hat.) Butterbur. Pestilentwort. Tus- petraum. Petrapium. Macedonian parssilago petasites of Linnæus. The roots of ley. This plant, Bubon Macedonicum of this plant are recommended as aperient Linnaus, is similar in quality to the com-and alexipharmic, and promise, though mon parsley, but weaker and less grate-now forgotten, to be of considerable actiful. The seeds enter the celebrated comvity. They have a strong smell, and a pounds mithridate and theriaca. bitterish acrid taste, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable.

Perecuia. (From the Italian petechio,

sembles flea-bites

PETRAPIUM. (From petra, a rock, and apium, parsley, so called because it grows in stony places ) See Petroselinum Mu-

distils from rocks.

Naphtha, Mineral pitch, &c.

PETROLEUM DARBADENSE. tar. This is chiefly obtained from the or autumn, particularly in the former seaisland of Barbadoes, and is sometimes em- son, in which the root is most vigorous.

a blackish red colour, of thicker con- smell of the root. This, as well as the sistence, less penetrating and more disa- root, is recommended as a nervine and greeable smell than the other kinds of anti-hysteric remedy. petroleum. It abounds about the village of Gabian in Languedoc-

Petroleum sulphunetum. A stimula- cedanum. ting balsamic remedy given in coughs,

Petropharyngaus. A muscle which ari- ifraga vulgaris. ses in the apophysis petrosa, and is inserted into the pharynx.

Petro salpingo staphylinus. See Levator under the villous coat of the intestines.

PETROSELINUM. (From merga, a rock, and Galiror, parsley.) Petroselinum to make appear.) All those appearances vulgare. Apium hortense. Common parsin the human body which are contrary to ley. Apium petroselinum of Linnaus:—fo-the usual process of nature. his caulinis linearibis, involucellis minutis. Both the roots and seeds of this plant are A species of ulcer that spreads very radirected by the London College for medi- pidly. cinal use: the former have a sweetish taste, accompanied with a slight warmth dicamenta; from \$\phi a \gamma \alpha\$, to eat.) Applicaor flavour, somewhat resembling that of tions that destroy fungous flesh. carrot; the latter are in taste warmer and Phalachum. (From φαλακεος, bald.) A more aromatic than any other part of the surgical instrument, with a blunt smooth plant, and manifest considerable bitter- top; as a probe. ness. The roots are said to be aperient Phalanges. See Phalanx.

thin scale.) is by Hippocrates applied to and diuretic, and have been employed in The seeds possess aromatic and carmina-

PETROSELINUM MACEDONICUM.

Petroselizum vulgare. See Petrose-

linum.

Petrosilex. A species of coarse flint, a flea-bite, because they resemble the bites of a deep blue or yellowish green colourof fleas.) A red or purple spot that mostly
It is interspersed in veius through rocks;
appears in contagious diseases, and reand from this circumstance derives its

PEUCEDANUM. (From TEURN, the pine-tree; so called from its leaves resembling those of the pine-tree.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan Petreeleum. (From 76762, a rock, and system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Diskator, oil.) An oil or liquid bitumen which gynia. 2 The pharmacopæial name of the hog's fennel and sulphur-wort. Mara-PETROLEUM. (From petra, a rock, thrum sylvestre. Marathrophyllum. Pinasand oleum, oil.) The name of petroleum tellum. Herialeum porcinum. The plant is given to a liquid bituminous substance which bears these names in the pharmawhich flows between rocks, or in different copaias is the Peucedanum officinale of places at the surface of the earth. The Linnaus:-foliis quinque partitis, filiformimore fluid species are distinguished by bus linearibus. The root is the officinal the name of naphtha, and the thicker by part; it has a strong fetid smell, somethose of pissaphaltum and pissellum. See what resembling that of sulphureous solutions, and an acrid, unctuous, bitterish Barbadoes taste. Wounded, when fresh in the spring ployed externally in paralytic diseases.

Petroleum nunum. Oleum gabianum. juice, which soon dries into a solid gummy Red petroleum. A species of rock-oil of resin, which retains the taste and strong

PEUCEDANUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the hog's fennel. See Peu-

Percenanum silaus. The systematic asthmas, and other affections of the chest. name of the meadow saxafrage. See Sux-

PEYRHI GLANBULE. Peyer's glands. Brunnier's glands. Small glands situated

PEZIZA AURICULA. See Auricula juda. PHENOMENA. Phenomenon. (From oziva,

PHAGEDÆNA. (From caya, to eat.)

PHACEDENICS. (Phagedenica, sc. me-

PHALANGOSIS. (From \$\phi \alpha \alpha \gamma \gamma \beta \sigma \text{ a row of soldiers.) 1. An affection of the eye-lids, where there are two or more rows of hairs upon them.

2. A morbid inversion of the eyelids.

PHALANX. (From φαλανξ, a battalion.) The small bones of the fingers and toes, which are distinguished into the

first, second, and third phalanx.

PHALARIS CANARIENSIS. (From \$\phi aloss, white, shining; so named from its white, shining seed, and canariensis, from its being the principal food of the canary-birds.) Canary-grass. The seed of this plant is well known to be the common food of canary-birds. In the Canary islands, the inhabitants grind it into meal, and make a coarse sort of bread with it.

PHALLUS ESCULENTUS. The systematic name of the morel fungus. See Morel.

PHANTASMA. (From φανταζω, to make appear.) Imagination. Depraved vision.

PHARICUM. (From Pharos, the island from whence it was brought.) A violent

kind of poison.

PHARMACEUTICA. (From φαςμακευω, to exhibit medicines.) Pharmaceutics, or the doctrine of compounding and dosing medicines. See *Pharmacy*.

Pharmacochymia. (From φαζμακον, a medicine, and χυμια, chemistry.) Pharmacentic chemistry, or that part of chemistry which respects the preparation of medicines.

PHARMACOPCEIA. (From φαςμαιον, a medicine, and σοιεω, to make.) A dispensatory, or book of directions for the composition of medicines approved of by medical practitioners, or published by authority. The following are the most noted, viz.

P. Amstelodamensis.

P. Argentoratensis.

P. Auget oratensis.

P. Bataana.

P. Brandenburgensis.
P. Brandenburgica.

P. Bruxellensis.

P. Edinburgensis.

P. Hafniensis.

P. Londinensis.
P. Norimbergensis.

P. Pariscensis.

P. Ratisbonensis.
P. Regia.

PHARMACOPOLA. (From \$\phi agu \text{280}\text{07}, a medicine, and \$\pi \omega \text{280}\text{280}\text{, to sell.}) An apothecary, or vender of medicines.

PHARMACOPOLIUM. (From φαςμακον, a medicine, and σωλεω, to sell.) A druggist's or apothecary's shop.

PHARMACOPSIA. (From paguanov, a medicine, and meous, a potion.) A liquid medicine.

PHARMACOTHECA. (From φαζμακόν, a medicine, and τιθημι, to place.) A medicine-chest.

PHARMACY. The art of preparing remedies for the treatment of diseases.

The articles of the Materia Medica, being generally unfit for administration in their original state, are subjected to various operations, mechanical or chemical. by which they become adapted to this purpose. Herein consists the practice of pharmacy, which therefore requires a previous knowledge of the sensible and chemical properties of the substances operated on. The qualities of many bodies are materially changed by heat, especially in conjunction with air and other chemical agents; the virtues of others reside chiefly in certain parts, which may be separated by the action of various menstrua, particularly with the assistance of heat; and the joint operation of remedies on the human body is often very different from what would be anticipated, from that which they exert separately; hence, in the preparations and compositions of the Pharmacopæias, we are furnished with many powerful as well as elegant forms of medi-

Pharringæus. (From φαςυγξ, the pharryux.) Belonging to or affecting the pharrynx; thus cynanche pharyngæa, &c.

PHARYNGETHRON. paguy sedgev. The

pharynx, or fauces.

PHARINGOSTAPHYLINUS. A muscle originating in the pharynx and terminating in the septum, above the uvula.

PHARYNGOTOMIA. (From φαςυγέ, the pharynx, and τεμνω, to cut.) The opera-

tion of cutting the pharynx.

PHARYNX.  $(A\pi_0 \tau 8 \phi \epsilon g \epsilon \omega)$ , because it conveys the food into the stomach.) The muscular bag at the back part of the mouth. It is shaped like a funnel, adheres to the fauces behind the larynx, and terminates in the æsophagus. Its use is to receive the masticated food, and to convey it into the æsophagus.

Phaseolus vulcaris. (From φασηλος, a little ship, or galliot, which its pods were supposed to resemble.) The systematic name of the kidney-bean. See Bean,

kidney.

Phasganium. (From φασγανον, a knife; so called because its leaves are shaped like a knife, or sword.) The herb sword-grass.

PHATNIUM. (From parvn, a stall.) The socket of a tooth.

PHELLANDRIUM AQUATICUM. (Phellandrium; from \$\phi\_{\phi\lambda}\epsilon\_{\text{s}}\$, the cork-tree, and and \$\phi\_{\phi\lambda}\epsilon\_{\text{s}}\$ male; so called because it floats upon the water like cork.) The systematic name of the water-fennel. See Faniculum aquaticum.

PHEMOS. (From φιμοω, to shut up.) A

medicine against a dysentery.

PHILADELPHUS. (From φίλεω, to love, and αθελφος, a brother; so called because, by its roughness, it attaches itself to whatever is near it.) See Aperine.

PHL PIII

Philantheores. (From φιλεω, to love, In some it is owing to gonorrhæa, where and ανθζωτος, a man; so called from its the matter lodged between the prepuce uses.) I. Medicines relieving the pain of and the glans occasioned the same excorithe stone.

sticks to the garments of those who touch

it. See Aperine.

Philonium. (From Philo, its inventor.) A warm opiate.

l'HILTHUM. (From φιλεω, to love.) 1. A philtre, or imaginary medicine, to excite

2. The depressure on the upper lip. where lovers salute.

PHILYRIA. (The name of the daughter

ly.) Mock privet.

PHIMOSIS. (From φιμω, to bind up.) A constriction or straitness of the extre- φλεψ, a vein, and τεμιω, to cut.) The mity of the prepuce, which, preventing the glans from being uncovered, is often the occasion of many troublesome complaints. It may arise from different causes both in children and grown persons. Children have naturally the prepuce very long; and as it exceeds the extremity of the glans, and is not liable to be distended, it is apt to contract its orifice. This often occasions a lodgment of a small quantity of urine between that and the glans, which if it burn.) An inflammation grows corrosive, may irritate the parts so PHLEGMASIA DOL as to produce an inflammation. In this case, the extremity of the prepuce becomes more contracted, and consequently the urine more confined. Hence the whole inside of the prepuce excoriates and suppurates; the end of it grows thick and swells, and in some months becomes cal-At other times it does not grow thick, but becomes so strait and contracted as hardly to allow the introduction of a probe. The only way to remove this disorder is by an operation. A phimosis may affect grown persons from the same cause as little children; though there are some grown persons who cannot uncover their glans, or at least not without pain, and yet have not the extremity of the prepuce so contracted as to confine the urine from passing, we notwithstanding find them sometimes troubled with a phimosis, which might be suspected to arise from a venereal taint, but has in reality, a much more innocent cause. There are, we know, sehaceous glands situated in the prepuce, round the corona, which secrete an unctuous humaur, which sometimes becomes acrimonious, irritates the skin that covers the glans, and the irritation extending to the internal membrane of the prepuce, they both become inflamed, and yield a purulent serum, which cannot be discharged, because the glans is swelled, and monly begins with coldness and rigors; the orifice of the prepuce contracted. We these are succeeded by heat, thirst, and find also some grown persons, who, though other symptoms of pyrexia; and then pain, they never uncovered the glans, have been stiffness, and other symptoms of topisubject to phimosis from a venereal cause. cal inflamination supervene. Sometimes

ation as the discharge before mentioned 2. The herb goose-grass, because it from the sebaceous glands. In others, it proceeds from venereal chancres on the prepuce, the glans, or the frænum; which producing an inflammation either on the prepuce or glans, or both, the extremity of the fore-skin contracts, and prevents the discharge of the matter. The parts, in a very little time, are greatly tumefied, and some times a gangrene comes on in less than two days.

Phlebornhagia. (From φλεψ, a vein, of Chiron, who first applied it medicinal- and gnavous, to break out.) A rupture of

PHLEBOTOMY. (Phlebotomia; from opening of a vein.

Phleom. (From pleyw, to burn, or to excite.) In chemistry it means water from distillation, but, in the common acceptation of the word, it is a thick and tenacious mucus secreted in the lungs.

Phleemagoga. (From oxeyuz, phlegm, and aya, to drive out.) Medicines which promote the discharge of phlegm.

PHLEGMASIA. (From preyer, to

PHLEGMASIA DOLENS. A disease noticed by some of the French writers, under the name of L'enflure des jambes et des cuistes de la femme accouchée; whilst others have called it depôt du lait, from its supposed cause. By the Germans it is ealled Œdema lacteum, and by the English the white leg. This disease principally affects women in the puerperal state; in a few instances it has been observed to attack pregnant women; and, in one or two cases, nurses on losing their children, have been affected by it. Women of all descriptions are liable to be attacked by it during and soon after childhed; but, those whose limbs have been pained or anasareous during pregnancy, and who do not suckle their offspring, are more especially subject to it. It has rarely occurred oftener than once to the same female. It supervenes to easy and natural, as well as to difficult and preternatural, births. It sometimes makes its appearance in twenty-four or forty-eight hours after delivery, and at other times, not till a month or six weeks after; but in general, the attack takes place from the tenth to the sixteenth day of the lying-in. It has in many instances, attacked women who were recovering from puerperal fever; and, in some cases, has supervened, or succeeded to thoracie inflammation. It not uncom-

the local affection is from the first accom- swelling of the limb varies both in degree panied with, but is not preceded by, febrile and in the space of time requisite for its symptoms. Upon other oceasions, the to-full formation. In most instances, it arrives pical affection is neither preceded by puer- at double the natural size, and in some peral fever, nor rigors, &e. but soon after cases at a much greater. In lax habits, and it has taken place, the pulse becomes more in patients whose legs have been very much frequent, the heat of the body is increased, affected with anasarea during pregnancy. and the patient is affected with thirst, the swelling takes place more rapidly than head ache, &c. The pyrexia is very vari- in those who are differently eircumstanous in degree in different patients, and ced; it sometimes arrives, in the former sometimes assumes an irregular remittent class of patients, at its greatest extent in or intermittent type. The complaint generally takes place on one side only at first, and the part where it commences is various; but it most commonly begins in the upper part of the limb, and descending to lumbar, hypogastrie, or inguinal region. on one side, or in the hip, or top of the thigh, and corresponding labium pudendi. In this case the patient first perceives a sense of pain, weight, and stiffness, in some of the above-mentioned parts, which are increased by every attempt to move the pelvis, or lower limb. If the part be carefully examined, it generally is found rather fuller or hotter than natural, and tender to the touch, but not discoloured. The pain increases, always becomes very se- eight, the febrile symptoms diminish, and vere, and, in some cases, is of the most exerueiating kind. It extends along the thigh, and when it has subsisted for some time longer or shorter in different patients, the top of the thigh and the labium pudendi become greatly swelled, and the pain is then sometimes alleviated, but accompanied with a greater sense of distention. The pain next extends down to the knee, and is generally the most severe on the inside and back of the thigh, in the direction of the internal cutaneous and the crural nerves; when it has continued for some time, the whole of the thigh becomes swelled, and the pain is somewhat relieved. The pain then extends down the leg to the foot, and is commonly the most severe in the direction of the posterior tibial nerve; after some time, the parts last attacked begin to swell, and the pain abates in violence, but is still very considerable, especially on any attempt to move the limb. The extremity being now swelled throughout its whole extent, appears perfectly or nearly uniform, and it is not perceptibly lessened by an horizon- reduced, and the limb feels stiff, heavy, betal position, like an adematose limb. It numbed and weak. When the finger is is of the natural colour, or even whiter; is pressed strongly against it for some time, hotter than natural; excessively tense, and in different points, it is found to be less exquisitely tender when touched. When elastic than at first, in some places retainpressed by the finger in different parts, it ing the impression of the finger for a is found to be elastic, little, if any, impres- longer, in other places for a shorter time, sion remaining, and that only for a very or scareely at all. And, if the limb be short time. If a puncture, or incision, be suffered to hang down, or if the patient made into the limb, in some instances, no walk much, it is found to be more swelled fluid is discharged; in others, a small in the evening, and assumes more of an quantity only issues out, which eoagulates odematose appearance. In this state the soon after; and in others, a larger quan-limb continues for a longer or shorier tity of fluid escapes, which does not eoa- time, and is commonly at length reduced gulate; but the whole of the effused mat- wholly, or nearly to the natural size. ter cannot be drawn off in this way. The

twenty-four hours, or less, from the first attack.

Instead of beginning invariably at the the lower, this complaint has been known to begin in the foot, the middle of the leg, the ham, and the knee. In which soever of these parts it happens to begin. it is generally soon diffused over the whole of the limb, and, when this has taken place, the limb presents the same phenomena, exactly, that have been stated above, as observable when the inguen, &c. are first affected.

After some days, generally from two to the swelling, heat, tension, weight, and tenderness of the lower extremity, begin to abate, first about the upper part of the thigh, or about the knee, and afterwards in the leg and foot. Some inequalities are found in the limb, which, at first, feel like indurated glands, but, upon being more nicely examined, their edges are not so well defined as those of conglobate glands; and they appear to be occasioned by the effosed matter being of different degrees of consistence in different points. The conglobate glands of the thigh and leg are sometimes felt distinctly, and are tender to the touch, but are seldom materially enlarged; and as the swelling subsides, it has happened, that an enlargement of the lymphatie vessels, in some part of the limb, has been felt, or been supposed to be

The febrile symptoms having gradually disappeared, the pain and tenderness of the limb being much relieved, and the swelling and tension being eonsiderably diminished, the patient is debilitated and much

Hitherto the disease has been described

PIIO

as affecting only one of the inferior extremities, and as terminating by resolution, or the effusion of a fluid that is moved by the absorbents; but, unfortunately, it sometimes happens, that after it abates in one limb, the other is attacked in a similar way. It also happens, in some eases, that the swelling is not terminated by resolution; for sometimes a suppuration takes place in one or both legs, and ulcers are formed which are difficult to heal. In a few eases, a gangrene has supervened. In some instances, the patient has been destoyed by the violence of the disease, before either suppuration or gangrene have happened.

The predisposing canses of this disease, when it occurs during the pregnant or puerperal state, or in a short time afterwards, appear to be, 1st, The increased irritability and disposition to inflammation which prevailed during pregnancy, and in a still higher degree for some time after par-2dly, The over-distended, or returition. laxed state of the blood-vessels of the inferior part of the trunk and of the lower extremities, produced during the latter months of

utero-gestation.

Amongst the exciting causes of this discase may be enumerated, 1st, Contusions, or violent exertions of the lower portions of the abdominal and other muscles inserted in the pelvis, or thighs, or of the museles of the inferior extremities, and contusions of the cellular texture conneeted with these muscles, during a tedions labour. 2dly, The application of cold and moisture, which are known to act very powerfully upon every system in changing the natural distribution of the circulating fluids, and, consequently, in a system predisposed by parturition, may assist in producing the disease, by occasioning the fluids to be impelled, in unusual quantity, into the weakened vessels of the lumbar, hypogastric, and inguinal regions, and of the inferior extremities. Sdly, Suppression, or diminution of the lochia, and of the secretion of milk, which, by inducing a plethoric state of the sanguiferous system, may occasion an inflammatory diathesis, may favour congestion, and the determination of an unusual quantity of blood to the vessels of the parts just mentioned, and thus contribute to the production of an inflammation of these parts. 4thly, Food taken in too large quantity, and of a too stimulating quality, especially when the patient does not give suck. This cause both favours the production of plethora, and stimulates the heart and arteries to more frequent and violent action; the effects of which may be expected to be particularly felt in the lumbar, hypogastrie, or ingninal regions, and in the lower extremities, from the state of their blood-vessels. 5thly. Standing, or walking too much, before the

arteries and veins of the lower half of the body have recovered sufficiently from the effects of the distention which existed during the latter months of pregnancy. This must necessarily occasion too great a de-termination of blood to these parts, and consequently too great a congestion in them; whence they will be more stimulating than the upper parts of the body, and inflammation will sometimes be exeited in them.

From an attentive consideration of the whole of the phenomena observable in this disease, and of its remote causes and cure, no doubt remains, Dr. Hull thinks, that the proximate cause consists in an inflammatory affection, producing suddenly a considerable effusion of serum and coagulating lymph from the exhalents into the cellular membrane of the limb.

PHLEGMASIÆ. Inflammations. The second order in the class pyrexiæ of Cullen's nosological arrangement, character-

ised by pyrexia, with topical pain and inflammation; the blood, after venesection,

exhibiting a buffy coat.

PHLEGMATORRHAGIA. (From pheyma, mueus, and gnyyuui, to break out.) A discharge of thin mucous phlegm from the nose, through cold.

PHLEGMON. (From φλερω, to burn.) Phlegmone. An inflammation of a bright red colour, with a throbbing and pointed

umour, tending to suppuration.

Phlodiston. (From φλογίζω, to burn.) The inflammable principle. Staal gave this term to a principle which he imagined was pure fire, or the matter of fire fixed in combustible bodies, in order to distinguish it from fire in action, or in a state of liberty.

Phlogisticated air. See Nitrogen gas. (From φλογοω, to in-PHLOGOSIS.

flame.) Inflammation.

PHLYCTÆNÆ. (Φλαταιται, small bladders.) Phlyctis. Phlysis. Small pellucid vesicles, that contain a serous fluid. Linnæus and Vogel use this term as synonymous with hydates

Phlezacium. (From φλυζω, to be hot.) A pustule on the skin, excited by fire, or

heat. See Pustule.

PHENIX DACTYLIFERA. (Phanix; from Phanecia, its native soil.) The systematic name of the date-tree. See Dactylus.

PHOSPHATS. (Phosphas; from phosphorus.) Salts formed by the union of phosphorie acids with different bases; thus, phosphat of ammonia, phosphat of lime, &c.

PHOSPHITES. Phosphis. Salts formed by the combination of phosphorus acid with different bases; thus, aluminous phosphite, ammoniacal phosphite, &c.

Phosphorated hydrogen gas. See Hydro-

gen gas, phosphoruted.

PHOSPHORIC ACID. Acidum phosphoricum. This acid may be obtained from 4 K

bones, in the following manner:-Three and suffered to stand undisturbed; when parts of diluted sulphuric acid are to be the precipitate is fully subsided, the clear effused upon four parts of pulverised fluid is to be separated. The precipitate ashes of bones, while continually stirred. is then formed into a paste, with char-By this means the sulphuric acid com- coal powder, and the mass is to be dried bines with the calcareous earth, and disengages the phosphoric acid. The mass is then to be repeatedly washed in water, and the ley slowly evaporated: the sulphate of lime, which still adheres, will be thus gradually expelled; and at last, phosphoric acid, in a dry and vitreous form, will be obtained.

PHOSPHORUS. (From out, light, and φιζω, to carry.) Autophosphorus. Phosphorus has never been found pure in nature. It is always met with united to oxygen, or in the state of phosphoric acid. In that state it exists very plentifully, and is united to different animal, vegetable,

and mineral substances.

Properties .- Phosphorus is a flesh-coloured or yellowish semi-transparent substance, of the consistence of wax, but brittle during frost. In atmospheric air, it is luminous at common temperatures without emitting heat. It has a rough disagreeable taste, and its odour resembles that of garlic. Its specific gravity is 2.033, water being 1.000. Phosphorus crystallises in laminæ, in needles, or elongated octahedra. Exposed to the light, it becomes covered with a crust, which is first white, next orange, and at last red. It becomes liquid at a temperature of 99° Fahr. It takes fire spontaneously, and burns rapidly in the open air, at 122° Fahr. with a brilliant white flame, and becomes converted into phosphoric acid. It is volatilised at 554° Fahr. It is soluble in caustic alkalies, by the assistance of heat. Expressed and essential oils take up a small quantity, and are rendered luminous. Sulphuric ether, nitric ether, and ardent spirit, dissolve it sparingly in the cold. It combines with lime, strontia, barytes, sulphur, and with metals. It is soluble in hydrogen gas, and decomposes nitric acid, and metallic solutions. It acts strongly, and frequently like poison, on living ani-

Methods of obtaining Phosphorus.-For some time, phosphorus was made in very inconsiderable quantities, and by a tedious porating considerable quantities of urine, and decomposing them by various means.

The following processes, now employed,

are more easy and expeditions.

Giobert's Process .- According to this method, phosphorus may be obtained very economically, and without any offensive preparation. It consists in pouring a concentrated solution of nitrate of lead, by a little at a time, into a quantity of urine, until no more cloudiness is produced by a further addition of the solution. The mix- liquor. The charcoal, at an elevated tem-ture in then to be diluted with soft water.

gradually in an earthen pan, and submitted to distillation.

In this process the phosphoric acid of the urine, unites to the lead of the nitrate of lead, and the nitric acid joins to the ammonia and soda of the urine; hence phos. phate of lead, and nitrate of soda and am. monia are formed. The former, being insoluble, falls to the bottom, and the latter salt remains in the super-natant fluid. On adding charcoal to the phosphate of lead, and exposing it to a high temperature, the union is again broken; the phosphoric acid becomes decomposed, its oxygen unites to the charcoal, and forms carbonic acid gas, which flies off during the distillation; the phosphorus appears in its simple state, and the metal is left behind in the retort, together with the super-

abundand quantity of charcoal.

Nicola's Process .- Take a quantity of bones of adult animals, burn them to whiteness in an open fire, and reduce them to a fine powder. Upon three pounds of this powder, after having been put into a matrass, there may be poured two pounds of concentrated sulphuric acid of commerce; four or five pounds of water must be afterwards added by degrees, to assist the action of the acid. During the whole process, the operator must place himself and the vessel, so that the fumes of the mixture may be blown from him. The whole is then to be left in a gentle-heated sand-bath, for about twelve hours, or more, taking care to supply the loss of water which happens by evaporation. The next day, a large quantity of water must be added, the clear water afterwards decanted, and the rest strained through a cloth or sieve. The residuary matter is to be edulcorated by repeated effusions of hot water, till it passes tasteless. water which has been used to wash out the adhering acid, is mixed with the before decanted or strained liquor, and the whole fluid is gradually evaporated in a flat earthern basin, to the consistence of syrup. It is then to be mixed with an and dis. greeable process, consisting in eva- equal weight of charcoal powder, and submitted to distillation in an iron or earthen retort. Instead of applying a receiver, the neck of the retort may be immersed in a basin of water, to a small depth, and the phosphorus, as it comes over, will fall in drops to the bottom.

In this process, the sulphuric acid unites with the calcareous earth of the bones, and forms sulphate of lime; and the phosphoric acid of the bones becomes disengaged, and remains dissolved in the

phosphorus passes over.

Method of purifying Phosphorus .- Phosphorus obtained in either manner is of a dirty blackish colour, and soiled with a certain quantity of charcoal and half-burnt phosphorus, which gives it that appearance. In order to purify it, it must be put into a piece of chamois leather, and closely tied up in it. The whole is then immersed in a vessel of boiling water, the phosphorus melts, and may be pressed through the leather, taking care to keep it under the water.

It is better, however, to purify phos-

phorus by a second distillation.

Dr. Higgins purified it by means of hy-

drogen gas.

Methods of moulding Phosphorus into Cylinders.-In order to form phosphorus into sticks, a finnel with a long neck may be used, the lower orifice of which is closed with a cork; the funnel is then to be filled with water, and phosphorus put in it, and this being plunged into boiling water, the heat communicated to the funnel melts the phosphorus, which runs into the neck and acquires that form. The funnel is then removed into a vessel of cold water, and when it is thoroughly cooled, the cork is taken out and the phosphorus thrust out of its mould with a piece of wood, and then preserved in water.

Pelletier invented another method,

which is as follows:

Take a few tubes of any length, the apertures of which are of such a size that they can be exactly closed with the extremity of the finger. Melt the phosphorus in boiling water, and apply to it one of the ends of the tube, while you hold the other in your mouth; make a short inspiration, that the phosphorus may ascend a little way in the tube; stop the inspiration when the phosphorus has risen a sufficient height, and close the extremity of the tube with the fore finger, and immerse it in a basin of cold water. The phosphorus will soon become fixed, and by a slight shake may be separated from the tube.

The earliest account we have concerning the medicinal use of phosphorus, is in the seventh volume of Haller's Collection of Theses, relating to the history and cure of diseases. The original dissertation is entitled, De Phosphori Loco Medicamenti adsumpti virtute medica, aliquot casibus singularibus confirmata, Auctore J. Gabi Mentz. There are three cases of singular cures performed by means of phosphorus, narrated in this thesis; the history of these cases and cures was sent to Dr. Gabi

Mentz, by his father. The first instance is of a man who laboured under a putrid fever; for whom the best alexipharmic medicines, as they are called, together with a proper regimen,

and carbonic acid gas is formed, and were prescribed. A diarrhæa, however, ensued, accompanied with great anxiety about the præcordia, delirium, and general prostration of the powers of life. Proper remedies were tried to stop the diarrhæa, and check the disease, but in vain. three days the patient had been insensible and exhausted. In this extremity the physician had recourse to phosphorus; two grains of which were exhibited, together with a sufficient quantity of theraica, to make them into a bolus. This occasioned a gentle sweat, and general quiet. dose was twice repeated in the evening, and again towards morning, with the addition of another grain. The sweat became copious, and the memory and the use of the external senses were restored. The patient, thus revived, was afterwards completely re-established by other remedies.

> The second case, is that, of a man who laboured under a bilious fever. Although various remedies appear to have been judiciously employed, yet the disease gained ground, until at last the patient was almost quite exhausted. Three grains of phosphorus were exhibited at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, which produced a little quiet; but the patient became so thirsty that he could not refrain from drinking. After this he was quiet for two hours, and a profuse sweat broke out all over his body. The physician seeing this, ordered him another dose in the evening. He slept and perspired the whole evening, and by means of proper remedies, was afterwards completely cured.

> The third case is entitled a malignant catarrhal fever, with petechia. It seems to have been the common typhus putridus of Cullen, accompanied with cough and catarrhal symptoms in the beginning. We are informed, that on the third day of the disease, the patient was deprived of the use of his external senses; that he became delirious and exceedingly exhausted. Two grains of phosphorus were given to him at two o'clock, and two more in the evening, which restored him to his senses, and occasioned a copious sweat. Proper remedies were afterwards employed, which ac-

complished his recovery.

Dr. Mentz appears to have been one of the first practitioners who tried this heroic remedy internally. Dr. Morgenstern and Dr. Hatman seem both to have afterwards

employed it.

The following twelve cases, relating to this interesting subject, are translated from a thesis which is very little known in this country. It is the inaugural dissertation of one Dr. Wolff, who graduated at Gottingen in the year 1791: and who states that the cases are extracted from the private diary of his father, a physician of eminence in Poland, who practised physic with to receive some antiphlogistic and emol-

of thirty years.

Case I-In the month of August, 1763. I was called to a woman twenty-five years old, whom I found in a state of low delirium. Her pulse was small, weak, and tremulous, almost vanishing, as it were, under the finger. Her whole chest and arms were disfigured with livid spots. Her neighbours and attendants informed me that she had been seized with a fever about cleven days before I saw her : and that she had been attended by some ignorant practitioner, who, finding that his remedies did not succeed, had deserted her the day before, declaring that God alone could cure

The case appeared to me one of those desperate states of disease, in which a practitioner either ought to refrain from doing any thing, or to make trial of some new, bold, and powerful remedy, which might act as an uncommon stimulus to the nerves, and rouse their suppressed energy. Such a remedy I expected to find in phosphorus, and accordingly I ordered my patient five drops of its solution, in æther, which contained three grains of phosphorus. They were exhibited in a spoonful of Rhenish wine, and the patient swallowed a few cupfuls of an infusion of the flores tilizafter them. I visited the patient three hours afterwards, and, not finding any change, I repeated the dose. Two hours were scarce elapsed when the pulse began to rise, and the whole body to be diffused with an equal heat; immediately afterwards, the pulse became undulatory, a breathing sweat (sudor halituosus) broke out, and at the same time the delirium subsided.

I exhibited a third dose at the end of sixteen hours; a number of red spots then appeared on the skin, and the patient complained very much of a sense of oppression and pain at the præcordia, and in the abdomen. These symptoms I endeavoured to allay by diluents and frequent emollient clysters, which brought away a great quantity of foul faces. The Peruvian bark completed the cure.

Case II .- A young woman, twenty-two years of age, was, for the first time, delivered of a healthy child. She recovered perfectly well for the first nine days; but being then greatly frightened by some sudden noise in the house, she was seized with a chilly fit, afterwards with flushes of heat, and soon became delirious. I was called to her on the third day, after various remedies had been tried in vain by another physician. Finding that she had a hard pulse, with great oppression in her chest, and a foul tongue, I ordered her to be blooded, to take a solution of Glauber's salts, and

great success and reputation for upwards lient clysters. Theother physician strongly opposed this advice, contending strenuously for his heating diaphoretic plan; and I therefore returned home. He continued to administer his alexipharmics and cardiac remedies to the unhappy patient. Three days elapsed before I heard any thing of her; but some of her friends then waited on me, entreating me with great earnestness to visit her, as her physician had deserted her, declaring that it was impossible for any one to save her.

I found her with a tremulous intermittent pulse, cold extremities, and wandering in her intellects. Of the solution of phosphorus I immediately gave her five drops, in a little Rhenish wine; and in about two hours after, an equal degree of heat diffused itself over her body, and her senses returned. Upon repeating the dose. a sweat broke out, which relieved her so much that I afterwards could proceed with the proper remedies for the further cure

of the complaint.

Case III .- A young man, twenty two years old, was seized with a putrido-gastric fever, which was accompanied with a white miliary eruption. On the seventh day of the disease, while under the influence of a profuse sweat, he was taken from his bed, at his own desire, and had his linen changed. An hour was scarcely elapsed when he was seized with great anxiety, the miliary eroption almost totally disappeared, and he began to grow Being called to him, I gave delirious. him the solution of phosphorus, with an infusion of elder flowers and Rhenish wine. In about an hour afterwards, the sweat and eruption returned, and he was snatched from the jaws of death.

Case IV -A youth sixteen years old, was seized with a putrid fever, on the seventh day of which he was affected with diarrhœa of so severe a kind, that he had forty-eight stools in the course of a day. Being sent for the day after, I found him with an hippocratic countenance, and subsultus tendinum. Having exhibited the phosphorus twice to him, a general breathing sweat broke out, and the diarrhoa subsided. Afterwards, proper remedies were exhibited, and he was restored to health

in fifteen days.

Seven Cases .- During the years 1770 and 1771, while the war was carried on upon the borders of our remotest provinces between the Turks and Russians, a putrid fever took its rise in the camps, and spread itself to us. It was then that I ordered this divine remedy, with the happiest effects, to seven sick who laboured under the putrid fever, some of whom had eruptions, with great prostration of strength.

Case XII.—A young lady of quality,

twenty-five years old, endowed with such likely to follow the injudicious administraan exquisite degree of nervous sensibility, tion of phosphorus, cannot be impressed that she used frequently to be affected on the mind more strongly than by the rewith spasms and convulsive motions with- lation of a few cases and experiments out any apparent cause, became pregnant which are mentioned by Wackard, in the in the year 1774, which was the seventh of fourth part of his miscellaneous writings, her marriage. On the third day preced- (Vermischte Medicinche Schrifften, von ing delivery, she was seized with a disease M. A. Wackard.) These cases and exwhich might be justly said to be somewhat periments I literally translated from the between catalepsy and coma vigil. She original German; a work from which the lay stretched out upon her back, her eyes medical practitioner may reap much inop, ii and fixed, her legs and arms were qui e flexible, and remained in any pos- marks made by a very attentive and accuture in which they were put; her pulse rate observer. and respiration were entirely natural, and she swallowed whatever fluid was put in- with apoplexy. He was speechless and to her mouth.

spasmodic and nervous remedies exhibit- three grains were given to him, and it was ed, both by the mouth and anus, embroca- my intention to have increased the dose tions and liniments, produced such a salu- to five or six. The first dose was given in tary change, that in fifteen days the pa- a conserve, but the following day in honey. tient was able to leave her bed, and the His excrements were luminous. Suddenly, greatest hope was therefore entertained about the middle of the third night, he of her complete recovery. But, on the was seized with violent vomiting, during twenty-eighth day after delivery, when I which he was very ill; but, after the vowent again to visit my patient, (who lived miting had ceased, he found himself betat a considerable distance from me,) I ter. The pulse was small and quick. I did found her complaining of rigour and chil- not venture to give any more phosphorus, liness of the inferior extremities, her pulse particularly as his relations were afraid of was frequent and small, and her face was it. A blister was applied, and cooling and was frequent and small, and her face was more flushed than usual. Frictions, elysters, the pediluvium, and antispasmodies, were all tried, but without producing any looked very ill, seemed quite exhausted, were all tried, but without producing any and appeared to suffer pain in the abdomen, which was a little tumefied. He took of the night, she became totally rigid; yet some nourishment every day; but what she had complete possession of her mind, although all the external senses, the sight excepted, were abolished. I gave to her three drops of the solution of phosphorus in a spoonful of wine. Scarcely had an hour clapsed when a warm sweat broke out, and, together with it, a white miliary eruption. Afterwards, other remedies were exmany large gangrenous spots. This case tion. Afterwards, other remedies were ex- many large gangrenous spots. This case hibited, which effected her recovery.

ciently interesting to awaken and arrest describe his sufferings. the attention of the practitioners of this country. A medicine of greater powers fessor Zessler exhibited the phosphorus to cannot be named, if the facts which have his two patients, the intelligence was combeen related are correctly true. Little municated to a man who had a tendency doubt can be entertained that many trials to apoplexy and to palsy. He had read in will soon be made with it in this country; Mellin's Materia Medica all that was said but it is to be hoped they will be made in praise of phosphorus, and he was, in with caution, and under as favourable cir- consequence, desirous of making trial of cumstances for the reception of such a it; but, before he began to take it, he was powerful stimulus as the nature of the disseized with a kind of apoplectic fit, in eases in which it is to be given will admit which he lay as if deprived of all power. of. The following particulars concerning He caused three grains of phosphorus to this subtle remedy, will serve as a salutary be rubbed with a little oil, and to be given caution against the too free exhibition of it to him; he took his dose morning and in the time of making experiments :-

formation, being replete with practical re-

A Jew, of a phlegmatic habit, was struck lame, and could not void his faces except After she had remained three days in this he was assisted by art; his appetite, howstate, she was delivered of a dead child, ever, was good. Mineral baths, and many which, from the marks of putrescency on remedies, were tried to restore him, but its body, must have died some days before. in vain. I was at last tempted to make a Evacuations carefully employed, anti- trial of phosphorus. At first, from two to caused me a great deal of uneasiness. The Such are the cases related by Dr. Wolff, patient could not speak for some time be-which it is presumed will be found suffi- fore his death, and could not therefore

Almost about the same time that Pro-

continued to take this medicine several days, upon which he became feverish, and was affected with nausea and loss of appetite. A gentle emetic was given him. Two days after this I saw him for the first time; he told me that he had been violently affected with pain in the abdomen, particularly towards the evening. He was very dry, and his eyes were yellow. When I pressed my hand on the abdomen it did not give him pain. I ordered him whey, nitre, acid drinks, cream of tartar, and clysters. The third day after this he grew worse. I happened to be out of town, and another physician was sent for, who gave him musk, and various other remedies. I visited him in the evening and found him gangrenous. His hands were applied to his head, as if he suffered acute pain there; his screams were loud and unremitting; he was delirious and spoke unintelligibly, and there was not any pulse at the wrist. He died about midnight. Upon inspecting the body, the liver appeared obstructed, and the stomach was gangrenous near the cardia. Is it not to be feared that the phosphorus had occasioned this? or was that organ. "For two hours," the Prothis the effect of a gouty or rheumatic ac- fessor observes, "I found myself extrarimony thrown upon that part? It was af- ordinarily incommoded; I drank frequentterwards remarked, that a number of peo- ly little draughts of cold water. After ple were seized at this time with vomit- some hours had elapsed the uneasiness ing and violent pains in the bowels, and ceased. My urine was high-coloured; but also with the iliac passion. Two months the following day my muscular force was were scarcely elapsed when I met with a doubled, and I felt an insupportable venecase in which all the circumstances of the real irritation. I afterwards gave thisrecomplaint were similar to those narrated medy to the young man whose case is rein the above mentioned case, but where lated in the Gazette de Santé, for the the patient had not swallowed a single 29th of August, 1779. It was truly owing grain of phosphorns.

which Dr. Weickard made with phospho- tration of strength was so great as not to

rus on dogs :-

year since six grains of phosphorus were M. Leroi then proceeds to inform us, offered to a hungry dog. The phosphorus that he has frequently employed phosphoexhibiting much anxiety, and seemed de- "He puts the phosphorus into warm wasirous to go out. He grew sick, and vo- ter, and agitates it violently; it divides mited the bolus, which seemed to be on itself like oil, into a great number of little fire; upon this, the dog again appeared globules, and, if cold water be now adimpatient to get out. The smell of the ded, it is precipitated to the bottom in phosphorus, however, ceased to be emitted the form of a powder. Of this powder one by the vomited matter. The dog smelt it or two grains are to be taken, and rubbed again, and ate it. He immediately became with a little sugar, a drop or two of oil, extremely lively, springing quickly from and some yolk of an egg. A quarter of a one table to another. ought to have stopped here; but some one duce great effects." brought another piece of meat, in which there were eight grains of phosphorus en- a mixture of oil, syrup, and some aromatic closed. This was also forced down the distilled water. He asserts, that Kunkle dog's throat, and he again vomited it on gave phosphorus internally in England in fire; he did not, however, exhibit the the form of pills, which were luminous; same anxiety to leave the room which he and he informs us that he himself has found had done the first time, but waited pa- out the manner of composing them; but tiently, until the disagreeable fector which they require so nice a manipulation that

arose and filled the apartment, had escaped from his morsel, after which he ate it greedily. His inclination to leap and run about was now uncommonly great: nothing was too high or too distant for him; but as we were afraid he might do some injury by this kind of exercise, he was dismissed the apartment. He again vomited once or twice; but since that time has remained perfectly well."

Such are the principal facts related by Weickard. We now come to the latest publication on the subject of phosphorus. It is a letter on its medicinal virtues by M. Alphonso Leroi, and is printed in the only volume of Memoirs which the Society of Emulation at Paris has yet published. One of the first experiments which M. Leroi made was upon himself; he swallowed three grains of phosphorus with some theraica. It is a wonder, he says, that he was not killed by it; for phosphorus does not require more air than is commonly contained in the stomach, in order to take fire, and burn in such a manner as to have eaten through to phosphorus that his life was saved in a The following are some experiments most malignant fever, in which the pross on dogs:-- leave many other resourses but this re"It is now," he observes, "upwards of a medy."

was enclosed in a piece of meat; the dog rus since that time. He at first prescribed smelt it, and refused to take it; it was it in the form of a lohoch. It is always therefore forced down his throat. He im- difficult to pulverize it; but this difficulmediately began to run about the room, ty he overcame in the following manner: The experiments grain every day is quite sufficient to pro-

At other times, he says, he has given it in

he has intrusted the secret only to Messrs. be dangerous even to try it. Thus much Pelletier, the brothers, being warned by his own experience of the mischief which arises from giving it improperly prepared. Each pill contains the eighth of a grain of phosphorus. They are endowed with a soporific and calming property. Professor Leroi has frequently employed them in cases of rhenmatismus, in a great number of nervous diseases, pituitous diseases, and in many acute and chronic complaints. He believes that this remedy is capable of prolonging life beyond the natural period; and after having spoken of its great restorative power, he related the following case in confirmation of this opinion :-

" I was one day called to an old man, aged eighty-seven, the uncle of Madame de Fonrqueux, in whom life seemed to be almost totally extinguished. I composed for him a mixture of six ounces of different distilled aromatic waters, one ounce of oil containing three grains of phosphorus, and two ounces of syrup. Of this he took three table spoonfuls every day; and besides this, he took eight drops of volatile alkali, in a glass of sweet aromatic water, twice a day, before his meals. By these means I illuminated the dying emhers of life, and he survived seven years after an attack of weakness in which it must have appeared like madness to attempt to interfere.

"I may safely affirm, that I have been as much occupied in seeking out the cases in which this medicine proves hurtful, as in detecting those in which it is serviceable; and I can assert, not only from my own experience, but also from that of the late M Lecointre, my pupil, who was physician to the hospital at Nambouillet, that we have not found it hurtful in any one case: that it has only been useful in some, and that only in such cases in which life was already extinct is some parts of such patients as had not a sufficient portion of living principle in them to reanimate the whole frame."

Mr. Leroi affirms, that the divisibility of phosphorus is almost infinite; and, in proof of this assertion, he states, that "the body of a woman who died of a putrid fever, and who had taken one grain of phosphorus, was entirely luminous within. The hands of the late Rielle, the anatomist, who opened the body, were luminous some hours after they had been washed!!"

Upon maturely considering all the facts which have been brought forward concerning it, little room for doubt will be left in the mind, as to its uncommon powers; but, although this be granted, expe- or fence; so called from their being set rience it still wanting to point out the diseases, and various stages of disease, in which it may be employed with equal safety and utility, as also to determine

may doubtless be asserted concerning it, that it is one of the highest stimuli which we have in the catalogue of the materia medica; and that, although it is affirmed by M. Leroi, and others, to be "calming and sedative," it is only so in such cases as wine, ather, Hoffman's anodyne liquor, and opium, are also found to be calming and sedative, that is, in cases where the arterial action of the whole frame is nearly exhausted, although still quick. Every practitioner should be cautioned against exhibiting it in any inflammatory disease, where much strength exists; and in all cases, very small doses should be first exhibited, and those with the utmost circumspection.

Phosphuret. See Phosphuretum.

PHOSPHURETUM. (Phosphuretum, from phosphorus.) A combination of phosphorus not oxygenated, with different bases; as, phosphuret of copper, phosphuret of iron, &c.

РИОТОРНОВІА. (From our, light, and pose, to dread.) Such an intolerance of light, that the eye, or rather the retina, can scarcely bear its irritating rays Such patients generally wink, or close their eyes in light, which they cannot bear without exquisite pain, or confused vision. The proximate cause is too great a sensibility in the retina. The species are,

1. Photophobia inflammatoria, or dread of light from an inflammatory cause, which is a particular symptom of the internal ophthalmia.

2. Photophobia, from the disuse of light, which happens to persons long confined in dark places or prisons; on the coming out of which intolight the pupil contracts, and the persons cannot bear light. depression of the cataract occasions this symptom, which appears as though fire and lightening entered the eye, not being able to bear these stong rays of light.

3. Photophobia nervea, or a nervous photophobia, which arises from an increased sensibility of the nervous expansion and optic nerve. It is a symptom of the hydrophohia, and many disorders, both acute and nervous.

4. Photophobia, from too great light, as looking at the sun, or at the strong light of modern lamps.

PHOTOPSIA. (From que, light, and ofic, vision.) Lucid vision. An affection of the eye in which the patient perceives luminous rays, ignited lines, or corusca-

PHRAGMUS. (From cravow, to enclose round like a fence of stakes.) The rows of teeth.

PHRENES. (Phren. from cany, the mind, because the ancients imagined it was the circumstances under which it would the seat of the mind.) The diaphragm.

PHRENESIS. See Phrenitis.

cus, from openes, the diaphragm). Dia- or substance of viscera, exhibits, at least phragmatic nerve. It arises from a union commonly, a more chronic inflammation. of the branches of the third, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs, on each side, passes times it seems to occupy the whole head; between the clavicle and subclavian artery, and descends from thence by the it is deep-seated, and ill defined. In other pericardium to the diaphragm.

PHR

PHRENICÆ ARTÉRIÆ. ries going to the diaphragin.

PHRENICÆ VENÆ. The veins com-

ing from the diaphragm.

mind). Phrenisis. mismus. Cephalitis. Sphacelismus. Cepatient begins to talk incoherently, and phalalgia inflammatoria. By the Arabians to shew other marks of delirium. Some-karabitus. Phrensy or inflammation of times, however, Saalman observes, delirithe brain. A genus of disease in the class um did not come on till the fifth, sixth, or pyrexia, and order phlegmasia of Cullen; seventh day. The delirium gradually incharacterised by strong fever, violent creases, till it often arrives at a state of headache, redness of the face and eyes, phrensy. The face becomes turgid, the impatience of light and noise, watchful- eyes stare, and seem as if bursting from ness, and furious delirium. It is symp- their sockets, tears, and sometimes even tomatic of several diseases, as worms, blood, flowing from them; the patient in hydrophobia, &c. Phrenitis often makes many cases resembling a furious maniac, its attacks with a sense of fulness in the from whom it is often impossible to dishead, flushing of the countenance, and tinguish him, except by the shorter dura-redness of the eyes, the pulse being full, tion of his complaint. The delirium asbut in other respects natural. As these sists in distinguishing phrenitis and symptoms increase, the patient becomes cha, as it is not a common symptom in the restless, his sleep is disturbed, or wholly latter. When delirium does attend synoforsakes him. It sometimes comes on, as cha, however, it is of the same kind as in in the epidemic, of which Saalman gives an account, with pain, or a peculiar sense of uneasiness of the head, back, loins, considerable derangement in the different and joints; in some cases, with tremor of organs of sense, which so immediately dethe limbs, and intolerable pains of the pend on the state of the brain. The eyes hands, feet, and legs. It now and then attacks with stupor, and rigidity of the false vision, particularly that termed musca a sense of tension referred to the breast, dart before the eyes, are frequent sympsense of weight in the stomach, are among the earliest symptoms. In other cases, the patient is attacked with vomiting, or complaints of the heart-burn, and griping pains in the bowels. When the intimate connexion which subsists between the brain and every part of the system is considered, the variety of the symptoms attending the commencement of phrenitis is not so surprising, nor that the stomach in symptoms assist in forming the diagnosis between phrenitis, and synocha. The pain of the head soon becomes more con-

mark inflammations of membraneous parts, PHRENIC NERVE. (Nervus phreni- and that an inflammation of parcnellyma,

The seat of the pain is various: somcsometimes, although more circumscribed, cases it is felt principally in the forehead The arte- or occiput. The redness of the face and eyes generally increases with the pain, and there is often a sense of heat and throbbing in the head, the countenance acquiring a PHRENITIS. (Operates, from open, the peculiar fierceness. These symptoms for Phrenetiasis. Phre- the most part, do not last long before the phrenitis.

We should, a priori, expect in phrenitis are incapable of bearing the light, and whole body, sometimes with anxiety and volitantes, and flashes of light seeming to often accompanied with palpitation of the toms. The hearing is often so acute, that heart. Sometimes nausea and a painful the least noise is intolerable; sometimes, on the other hand, the patient becomes deaf; and the deafness, Saalman observes, and morbid acuteness of hearing, sometimes alternate. Affections of the smell, taste, and touch, are less observable.

As the organs of sense are not frequently deranged in synocha, the foregoing symptoms farther assist the diagnosis between this complaint and phrenitis.

The pulse is not always so much disturbparticular should suffer, which so remark- ed at an early period, as we should expect ably sympathises with the brain. These from the violence of the other symptoms, compared with what we observe in idiopathic fevers. When this circumstance is distinctly marked, it forms, perhaps, the siderable, and sometimes very acute. 'If best diagnosis between phrenitis and synothe meninges,' says Dr. Fordyce, 'are cha, and gives to phrenitis more of the affected, the pain is ascute; if the substance only, obtuse, and sometimes but however, the fever runs as high as the dejust sensible.' And Dr. Cullen remarks, lirium; then the case often almost exactly I am here, as in other analogous cases, resembles a case of violent synocha, from of opinion, that the symptoms above men- which it is the more difficult to distinguish tioned of an acute inflammation, always it if the pulse be full and strong. In general, however, the hardness is more re-paralysis of the tongue, general convul-markable than in synocha, and in many sions, much derangement of the internal cases the pulse is small and hard, which functions, and the symptoms of other vismay be regarded as one of the best diag- ceral inflammations, particularly of the nostics between the two complaints, the pneumonia, supervening, are enumerated pulse in synoclia being always strong and by Saalman as affording the most unfavourfull. In phrenitis it is sometimes, though able prognosis. The delirium changing to rarely, intermitting. The respiration is coma, the pulse at the same time becoming generally deep and slow, sometimes diffi- weak, and the deglutition difficult, was cult, now and then interrupted with hic- generally the forerunner of death When, cough, seldom harried and frequent; a very on the contrary, there is a copious haunfavourable symptom. In many of the morrhagy from the hæmorrhoidal vessels, cases mentioned by Saalman, pneumonia from the lungs, month, or even from the supervened.

times convulsive. The stomach is frequent- his dreams, when the sweats are free and ly oppressed with bile, which is an unfa- general, the deafness is diminished or revonrable symptom; and complete jaun- moved, and the febrile symptoms become dicc, the skin and urine being tinged milder, there are hopes of recovery, yellow, sometimes supervenes. Worms In almost all diseases, if we except in the stomach and bowels are also frequent which kill suddenly, as the fatal terminaattendants on phrenitis, and, there is reason tion approaches, nearly the same train of to believe, may have a share in producing symptoms supervenes, viz. those denoting it. The hydrocephalus internus, which is extreme debility of all the functions. Saalmore allied to phrenitis than dropsy of the man remarks that the blood did not always brain, properly so called, seems often, in shew the buffy coat. part at least, to arise from derangement of the prime vie, particularly from has sometimes assumed an intermitting for the frequent occurrence of these com- every second day. When phrenitis termiplaints.

of a white colour, and a black cloud in from synochathe urine, are regarded by Lobb as fatal unmixed with blood, the urine is generally

pale.

to the worst species of hamorrhages, been mentioned. Hæmorrhagy from the intestines also, tinging the stools with a lt will be of use to present at one view black colour. is not uncommon. These the circumstances which form the diagnosis hæmorrhages are never favourable; but between phrenitis and synocha. the hæmorrhages characteristic of synocha, particularly that from the nose, somethe same manner; its symptoms are few times occur at an earlier period, and, if coand little varied. The symptoms at the pious, generally bring relief. More frequently, however, blood drops slowly from the nose, demonstrating the violence of the disease, without relieving it. In other cases there is a discharge of thin mucus from the in synocha. In phrenitis it almost con-

sweat of the head, neck, and shoulders, very suddenly loses its strength, the worst

urinary passages, when the delirium is re-The deglutition is often difficult, some- lieved by sleep, and the patient remembers

In almost all diseases, if we except those

Phrenitis, like most other complaints, We cannot otherwise account form, the fits coming on daily, sometimes nates favourably, the typhus, which snc-Instead of a superabundance of bile in ceeds the increased excitement, is gencthe prima via, there is sometimes a de-rally less in proportion to that excitement, ficiency, which seems to afford even a than in idiopathic fevers; a circumstance worse prognosis. The alvine faces being which assists in distinguishing phrenitis

The imperfect diagnosis between these symptoms. The black cloud in the urine complaints is further assisted by the effects is owing to an admixture of blood: when of the remedies employed. For in phrenitis in removing the delirium and other local symptoms, the febrile symptoms in There is often a remarkable tendency general soon abate. Whereas in synocha, although the delirium and head-ache be towards the fatal termination of phrenitis. removed, yet the pulse continues frequent, Hamorrhagy from the eyes has already and other marks of indisposition remain

for a much longer time.

It will be of use to present at one view

Synoclia generally makes its attack in commencement of phrenitis arc often more complicated, and differ considerably in different cases. Derangement of the internal functions are comparatively rare Tremors of the joints, convulsions of carly. The same observation applies to the muscles of the face, grinding of the the derangement of the opening florid and the becomes pale, involuntary tears, a mucus ment, is frequent, slow, and rapid. In from the nose, the urine being of a dark phrenitis, symptoms denoting the local red or yellow colour, or black, or covered affection often became considerable before with a pollicle, the faces being either the pulse is much disturbed. In phrenitis bilious or white, and very feetid, profuse we have seen that the pulse sometimes

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species of hamorrhages, and other symp- rosy complexion, large veins, thick upper tonis denoting extreme debility, shewing themselves; such symptoms are generally the forerunner of death. But that when the termination is favourable, the degree of typhus which succeeds it is less in proportion to the preceding excitement in synocha. Lastly, if we succeed in removing the delirium and other symptoms affecting the head, the state of the fever is found to partake of this favourable change more immediately and completely than in synocha, where, although we succeed in relieving the head-ache or delirium, the fever often suffers little abatement.

With regard to the duration of phrenitis, Eller observes, that when it proves fatal, the patient generally dies within six or seven days. In many fatal cases, however, it is protracted for a longer time, especially where the remissions have been considerable. Upon the whole, however, the longer it is protracted, providing the symptoms do not become worse, the better

is the prognosis.

PHRENETIASIS. See Phrenitis.

Phrensy. See Phrenitis.

(From pleig, a louse.) PHTHEIRIASIS. See Phthiriasis.

PHTHEIRIUM See Phtheiroctonum.

PHTHIRIASIS. (From obeig, a louse.) Morbus Pediculosus. Pediculatio. Phtheiriasis. A disease in which several parts of the body generate lice, which often puncture the skin, and produce little sordid ulcers.

PHTHEIROCTONUM. (From obeie, a louse, and areiva, to kill, because it destroys lice.) Phtheirium. The herb staphis-agra, or Staves-acre.

PHTHISIS. (From φθιω, to consume.) Tabes Pulmonalis. Polmonary consumption. A genus of disease in the class pyrexie, and order hemorrhagie of Cullen; known by emaciation, debility, cough, hectic fever, and purulent expectoration.

Species: 1. Phthisis incipiens, incipient, without any expectoration of pus.

2. Phthisis humida, with an expectoration of pus

3. Phthisis scrophulosa, from scrophulous tubercles in the lungs, &c.

4. Phthisis hemoptoica, from hæmop-

5. Phthisis exanthematica, from exanthe-

6. Phthisis chlorotica, from chlorosis.

7. Phthisis syphilitica, from a venereal ulcer in the lungs.

The causes which predispose to this disease are very numerous. The following are, however, the most general: hereditary disposition; particular formation of body, and obvious by a long neck, prominent shoulders, and narrow chest; scrophulous diathesis, indicated by a fine clear skin, fair hair, delicate

lip, a weak voice, and great sensibility; certain diseases, such as syphilis, scrophula, the small-pox, and measles; particular employments exposing artificers to dust, such as needle pointers, stone-cutters, millers, &c. or to the fumes of metals or minerals under a confined and unwholesome air; violent passions, exertions or affections of the mind, as grief, disappointment, anxiety, or close application to study, without using proper exercise; frequent and excessive debaucheries, late watching, and drinking freely of strong liquors: great evacuations, as diarrhea, diabetes, excessive venery, fluor albus, immoderate discharge of the menstrual flux, and the continuing to suckle too long under a debilitated state; and, lastly, the application of cold, either by too sudden a change of apparel, keeping on wet clothes, lying in damp beds, or exposing the body too suddenly to cool air, when heated by exercise; in short, by any thing that gives a considerable check to the perspiration. The more immediate or occasional causes of phthisis are, hæmoptysis, pneumonic inflammation proceeding to suppuration, catarrh, asthma, and tubercles, the last of which is by far the most general. The incipient symptoms usually vary with the cause of the disease; but when it arises from tabercles, it is usually thus marked: It begins with a short dry cough, that at length becomes habitual, but from which nothing is spit up for some time, except a frothy mucus that seems to proceed from the fauces. The breathing is at the same time somewhat impeded, and upon the least bodily motion is much hurried: a sense of straitness, with oppression at the chest, is experienced; the body becomes gradually leaner, and great languor, with indolence, dejection of spirits, and loss of appetite, prevail. In this state the patient frequently continues a considerable length of time, during which he is, however, more readily affected than usual by slight colds, and upon one or other of the occasions the cough becomes more troublesome and severe, particularly by night, and it is at length attended with an expectoration, which towards morning is more free and copious. By degrees the matter which is expectorated becomes more viscid and opaque, and now assumes a greenish colour and purulent appearance, being on many occasions streaked with blood. In some cases, a more severe degree of hamoptysis attends, and the patient spits up a considerable quantity of florid, frothy blood. The breathing at length becomes more difficult, and the emaciation and weakness goes on increasing. With these, the person begins to be sensible of pain in some part of the thorax, which, however, is usually

felt at first under the sternum, particularly has the appearance of a walking skeleton; on coughing. At a more advanced period his countenance is altered, his cheeks are of the disease a pain is sometimes felt on prominent, his eyes look hollow and lanone side, and at times prevails in so high guid, his hair falls off, his nails are of a a degree, as to prevent the person from livid colour, and much incurvated, and his lying easily on that side: but it more fre- feet are affected with adematous swellings. quently happens, that it is felt only on To the end of the disease the senses remain making a full inspiration, or coughing, entire, and the mind is confident and full Even where no pain is felt it often hap- of hope. It is, indeed, a happy circumpens, that those who labour under phthisis stance attendant on phthisis, that those cannot lie easily on one or other of their who labour under it are seldom apprehensides, without a fit of coughing being excited, or the difficulty of breathing being much increased. At the first commencement of the disease, the pulse is often natural, or perhaps is soft, small, and a little quicker than usual: but when the symptoms which have been commerated have subsisted for any length of time, it then some cases a delirium precedes that event, becomes full, hard, and frequent. At the same time the face flushes, particularly after eating, the palms of the hands and lungs may possibly be mistaken for purusoles of the feet are affected with burning lent matter, and may thereby give us heat; the respiration is difficult and labores rious; evening exacerbations become obvious, and by degrees, the fever assumes the hectic form. This species of fever is evidently of the remittent kind, and has exacerbations twice every day. The first occurs usually about noon, and a slight remission ensues about five in the after- the experiment to be made in the follownoon. This last is, however, soon succeeded by another exacerbation, which increases gradually until after midnight; but about two o'clock in the morning a remission takes place, and this becomes more apparent as the morning advances. During the exacerbations the patient is very sensible to any coolness of the air, and often complains of a sense of cold when his skin is, at the same time, preter- on the properties of pus, informs us of a naturally warm. Of these exacerbations, that of the evening is by far the most considerable. From the first appearance of animal muchs. The property, he obthe hectic symptoms, the urine is high coloured, and deposits a copious branny red sediment. The appetite, however, is not is, its being composed of globules, which greatly impaired, the tongue appears clean, are visible when viewed through a microsthe mouth is usually moist, and the thirst cope; whereas animal mucus, and all is inconsiderable. As the disease advances, chemical combinations of animal subthe fauces put on rather an inflamed ap-stances appear in the microscope to be pearance, and are beset with aphtha, and made up of fl kes. This property was the red vessels of the tunica adnata be- first noticed by the late Mr. John Hunter, come of a pearly white. During the exacerbations, a florid circumscribed redness to be considered as attended with much appears on each cheek; but at other times danger; but it is more so when it proceeds the face is pale, and the countenance somewhat dejected. At the commence-ment of hectic fever, the belly is usually costive; but in the more advanced stages the risk will be greater where the abscess of it, a diarrhaa often comes on, and this breaks inwardly, and gives rise to empyecontinues to recur frequently during the remainder of the disease; colliquative by the mouth. Even cases of this nature sweats likewise break out, and these alter- have, however, been known to terminate nate with each other, and induce vast in immediate death. The impending dandebility. In the last stage of the disease ger is generally to be judged of, however, the emaciation is so great, that the patient by the hectic symptoms; but more parti-

sive or aware of any danger; and it is no uncommon occurrence to meet with persons labouring under its most advanced stage, flattering themselves with a speedy recovery, and forming distant projects under that vain hope. Some days before death the extremities become cold. and continues until life is extinguished.

As an expectoration of mucus from the under a confirmed phthisis, it may not be amiss to point out a sure criterion, by which we shall always be able to distinguish the one from the other. The medical world are indebted to the late Mr. Charles Darwin for the discovery, who has directed

ing manner:

Let the expectorated matter be dissolved in vitriolic acid, and in caustic lixivium. and add pure water to both solutions. If there is a fair precipitation in each, it is a certain sign of the presence of pus; but if there is not a precipitate in either, it is

certainly mucus.

Mr. Everard Home, in his dissertation curious, and apparently a decisive mode of distinguishing accurately between pus and serves, which characterises pus, and distinguishes it from most other substances,

Pulmonary consumption, is in every case from tubercles, than when it arises in consequence either of hamoptysis, or pneumonic suppuration. In the last instance ma, than when its contents are discharged

the degree of emaciation and debility, the Linnean system. Class, Pentandria. Orcolliquative sweats, and the diarrhea. der, Monogynia. The disease has, in many cases, been PHYSALIS ALKEKENGI. The found to be considerably retarded in its name of the winter cherry. process by pregnancy; and in a few has been alleviated by an attack of mania.

to be met with on the dissections of those dies. Enlargement of the abdomen. A who die of phthisis, is the existence of tubercles in the cellular substance of the order intumescentia of Cullen; known by have the appearance of indurated glands, are of different sizes, and are often found sonorous nor fluctuating. Species: 1. Hein clusters. Their firmness is usually in patica. 2. Splenica. 3. Renalis. 4. Uterina. proportion to their size, and when laid open in this state they are of a white eo- 8. Visceralis. lour, and of a consistence nearly approaching to cartilage. Although indolent sesis. A windy tumour. at first, they at length become inflamed, and lestly form little abscesses or vomica, which breaking, and pouring their contents into the bronchia, give rise to a purulent expectoration, and thus lay the foundation of phthisis. Such tubereles or vomicæ are most usually situated at the upper and back part of the lungs; but in some instances they occupy the outer part, and then adhesions to the pleura are often formed.

When the disease is partial, only about a fourth of the upper and posterior part of the lungs is usually found diseased; but in some cases life has been protracted till not one twentieth part of them appeared, on dissection, fit for performing their function. A singular observation, confirmed by the morbid collections of anatomists, is, that the left lobe is much

oftener affected than the right.

PHTHISIS ISCHIADICA. A wasting of the thigh and leg from an abscess or other cause in the hip.

PHTHISIS PUPILLE. An amaurosis.

PHTHORIA. (From ploga, an abortion.) Medicines which promote abortion.

(\$\phi\_8\$, or \$\phi\_{90}\$, from phua, Arab.) PHU. See Valeriana major.

PHYGETHLON. (From \$vo, to grow.) A red and painful tubercle in the arm pits, neck and groins.

PHYLACTERIUM. (From ρυλασσω, to preserve.) An amulet or preservative against

infection.

PHYLLANTHUS EMBLICA. The systematic name of the Indian tree from which the emblic mirobalan is obtained. .

PHYLLITIS. (From quanto, a leaf; so called because the leaves only appear.) Sce Scolopendrium.

PHYMA. (From φυω, to produce.) small tubercle on any external part of the

body.

PHYSALIS. (From ovoaw, to inflate; 30 called because its seed is contained in a kind of bladder, and alkekengi, alkakangi, Arab, the halicacabus or winter cherry.)

cularly by the fetor of the expectoration, The name of a genus of plants in the

Physalis alkekengi. The systematic Sec Alke-

kengi.

PHYSCONIA. (From quonwr, a big. The morbid appearance most frequently bellied fellow.) Huposarca. Hypersarchigenus of disease in the class cachexia, and These are small tumours which a tumour occupying chiefly one part of the abdomen, increasing slowly, and neither 5. Ab ovario, 6. Mesenterica. 7. Omentalis.

PHYSEMA. (From φυσαω, to inflate.) Phy-

PHYSETER MACROSEPHALUS. (Physeter, from φυσαω, to inflate; so named from its action of blowing and discharging water from its nostrils, and macrocephalus, from μακεος, long, and κεφαλη, the head; from the length of its head.) See Ambergris.

PHYSIOGNOMY. (Physiognomia, from φυσις, nature, and γινωσκω, to know.) The art of knowing the disposition of a person

from the countenance

PHYSIOLOGY. (Physiologia, from quois, nature, and xoyos, a discourse.) The seience which treats of the actions and powers of an animated body.

Physocele. (From φυσα, wind, and απλη, a tumour.) A species of hernia, whose contents are distended with wind.

PHYSOCEPHALUS. (From φυσα, wind, and κεφαλη, the head.) Emphysema of the

head. See Pneumatosis.

PHYSOMETRA. (From ovoda, to inflate, and Metpa, the womb.) Hysterophysc. A windy swelling of the uterus. A tympany of the womb. A genus of disease in the elass cachexiæ and order intumescentiæ of Cullen; characterised by a permanent elastic swelling of the hypogastrium, from flatulent distention of the womb. It is a rare disease, and seldom admits of

PHYTEUMA. (From outeuw, to generate; so called from its great iherease and

growth.) The herb rocket.

PHYTOLACCA DECANDRIA. (Phytolacca. From outer, a plant, and hanna, gum lac; so called because it is of the colour of lacca, and decandria, from its Linnæan arrangement ) Solanum magnum virginianum rubrum Pork-physie. Pork-weed. Pokeweed. Red weed of Virginia. Red night. shade. The systematic name of the Ameriean night-shade. Solanum racemosum Americanum. In Virginia and other parts of America, the inhabitants boil the leaves, and cat them in the manner of spinach. They are said to have an anodyne quality, and the juice of the root is violently cathartic. The Portuguese

had formerly a trick of mixing the juice quality, and are deemed serviceable in lax-of the berries with their red wines, in order to give them a deeper colour; but it PIGMENTUM. (From pingo, to paint.) was found to debase the flavour. This Pigment. This name is given by anatowas represented to his Portuguese majesty, who ordered all the stems to be cut down yearly before they produced flowers, thereby to prevent any farther adulteration. rior and posterior surface of the iris, This plant has been used as a cure for caneers, but to no purpose.

PHYTOLOGY. (Phytologia. From quitor, an herb, and xoyos, a discourse.) That part of the science of natural history

which treats on plants.

PHYTOMINESALIA. (From outer, a plant, and mineralis, a mineral.) Substances of a vegetable and mineral nature; as amber

and coral.

PIA MATER. (Pia mater, the natural mother; so called because it embraces the brain, as a good mother folds herehild.) Localis membrana. Meninx tenuis. A thin membrane, almost wholly vascular, that is ccrebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla spinalis. Its use appears to be, to distribute the vessels to, and contain from the surface of the body after birth is so the substance of, the cerebrum.

PICA. (Pica, the magpie; so named because it is said the magpie is subject to Picatio. Malacia. Allothis affection.) triophagia. Citta. Cissa. Longing. Depraved appetite, with strong desire for unnatural food. It is very common to pregnant women and ehlorotic girls, and by some it is said in men who labour under

suppressed hamorrhoids.

Pices. (Hittes, pitch.) The common or red fir or pitch tree is so termed. The cones, branches, and every part of the tree, affords the common resin called frankincense. See Terebinthina vulgaris.

PICHURIM. See Pecharim.

PICKIS ECHIOIDES. (From muxpos, bitter, and echioides, from exice, from exic, a viper, and edos, resemblance.) The systematic name of the common ox-tongne; the leaves are frequently used as a pot-herb by the country people, who esteem it good to relax the bowels.

PICTONIUS. (From the Piets, who were subject to this disease.) Applied to a species of colie. It should be rather ealled colica pictorum, the painter's colic, because from their use of lead they are much afflicted with it.

Piestrum. (From \( \pi\_{\alpha} \alpha\_{\alpha}\), to press.) An instrument to compress the head of a dead fixtus, for its more easy extraction from

Pig-NUT. Earth-nut. Ground-nut. The of Linnaus. Pignuts, so called because afterwards, for if the mass then become that animal is very fond of them, and will hard and dry it is unfit for that division dig with its snout to some depth for them, for which it was originally intended; and are of a dirty brown colour, a little big- this is in many instances such an objection ger than a hazel-nut, and flavoured like the to the form that it is doubtful whether for

ntists to a mucous substance found in the eye, which is of two kinds. The pigment of the iris, is that which eovers the anteand gives the beautiful variety of colour in the eyes. The pigment of the choroid membrane, is a black or brownish mucus which covers the anterior surface of the choroid membrane, configuous to the retina and the interior surface of the eiliary processes.

PILA HYSTRICIS. The bezoar hystricis. PILA MARINA. A species of alcyoni-

um found on sea-coasts amongst wrack. It is said to kill worms, and when calcined to be useful in scrophula.

Piles. See Hamorrhois.

Pile-wort. See Cheledonium minus.

PILI CONGENITI. The hair of the head, firmly accreted to the convolutions of the eyebrows, and eyelids, are so termed, be-

cause they grow in ntero.

PILI POSTGENITI. The hair which grows termed, in contradistinction to that which appears before birth; as the hair of the head, eyebrows, and eyelids.

PILOSELLA. (From pilus, hair, because its leaves are hairy.) Auricula muris. Myosotis. Mouse ear. This common plant, Meracium pilocella of Linnæus, contains a bitter lactescent juice, which has a slight degree of adstringency. The roots are more powerful than the leaves. They are very seldom used in this country.

Pills, aloetic, with myrrh. See

aloeticæ cum myrrha.

Pills, compound aloetic. See Pilnlæ aloes compositæ. Pills, compound gamboge. See Pilulx

gambogie composite. Pills, compound galbanum. See Pilula

galbani composita. Pills, compound squill. See Pilula scilla

Pills of iron with myrrh. See Pilnlæ ferri cum myrrha.

Pills, soap, with opium. See Pilule sapo-

Pills, mercury. See Pilulæ hydrargyri. Pills, submuriate of mercury. See Pilula

hydrargyri submuriatis.

PILULA. A pill. A small round form of medicine the size of a pea. The consistence of pills is best preserved by keeping the mass in bladders, and oceasionally moistening it, In the direction of masses to be thus divided, the proper consistence is to be lookbulbous root of the Bunium bulbocastanum ed for at first, as well as its preservation phesnut. They are said to possess a styptic the purposes of the pharmacopæia the

greater number of articles had not better be kept in powder, and their application to the formation of pills, left to extemporaneous direction.

PILULE ALOES COMPOSITE. Compound aloetic pills. " Take of Spike aloe, powdered, an ounce; extract of gentian, half an ounce; oil of caraway, forty minims; syrup, as much as is sufficient." Beat them together, until they form an uniform mass. From fif een to twenty-five grains prove moderately purgative and stomachic.

pills with myrrh "Take of spike-aloe, moval of the venereal disease, and theretwo ounces; saffron, myrrh, of each an ounce; syrup, as much as is sufficient." Powder the aloe and myrrh separately; grains of the mass contain one of mercury. then beat them all together until they form an uniform mass. From ten grains to a cellent expectorant and alterative, calcuscruple of this pill, substituted for the lated to assist the removal of dropsical pilula Ruft, prove stomachic and laxative, diseases of the chest, and asthmas attendand are calculated for delicate females, ed with visceral obstruction. epecially where there is uterine obstruction.

PILULE CAMBOGIE GOMPOSITE. Compound gamboge pills. "Take of gamboge, powdered, extract of spike aloe, powdered, compound cinnamon powder, of each a drachim; soap, two drachms." Mix the powders together; then having added the soap, beat the whole together until they are thoroughly incorporated. These pills are now first introduced in the London Pharmacopæia, as forming a more active purgative pill than the pil. aloes cum myrrha, and in this way supplying an article very commonly necessary in prac-The dose is from ten grains to a scruple.

PILULE CUPRI. An excellent tonic and diaphoretic pill, which may be given with advantage in dropsical diseases, where mercury. tonics and divretics are indicated.

PILULE FERRI CUM MYRRHA. iron and myrrh. "Take of myrrh, pow- nacez. "Take of hard opium, powdered, dered, two drachms; subcarbonate of half an ounce; hard soap, two ounces." soda, sulphate of iron, sugar, of each a Beat them together until they are thodrachm." Rub the myrrh with the sub- roughly incorporated. The dose is from carbonate of soda; add the sulphate of three to ten grains iron, and rub them again; then beat the mass contain one of opium. whole together until they are thoroughly incorporated. scruple.

PILULE GALBANI COMPOSITE. Compound galbanum pills. Formerly called pilula gunmoss. "Take of galbanum resin, an ounce; myrrh, sagapenum, of each an ounce and half; assafætida gum resin, half an ounce; syrup, as much 'as is sufform an uniform mass. . A stimulating grains to a scruple. antispasmodic and emmenagogue. From a scruple to half a drachm may be given three times a day in nervous disorders of the stomach and intestines, in hysterical affections and hypochondriasis.

PILULE HYDRARGYRI. Mercurial pills. Often from its colour called the blue pill. "Take of purified mercury, two drachms, Confection of red roses, three drachms; liquorice root, powdered a drachm " Rub the mercury with the confection, until the globules disappear; then add the li-quorice-root, and beat the whole together, until they are thoroughly incorporated.

An alterative and antivenereal pill, which mostly acts on the bowels if given PILULE ALOES CUM MYRRHA. Aloetic in sufficient quantity to attempt the refore requires the addition of opium. The dose is from five grains to a scruple. Three Joined with the squill pill, it forms an ex-

PILULE HYDRARGYRI SUBMURIATIS. Pills of submuriate of mercury. "Take of submuriate of mercury, precipitated sulphuret of antimony, of each a drachm; guaiacum gum resin, powdered, two drachms." Rub the submuriate of mercury first with the precipitated sulphuret of antimony, then with the guaiacum gum resin, and add as much copaiba as may be requisite to give the mass a proper consistence. This is intended as a substitute for the famed Plummer's pill. It is exhibited as an alterative in a variety of diseases, especially cutaneous eruptions, pains of the venereal or rheumatic kind, cancerous and schirrous affections, and chronic ophthalmia. The dose is from five to ten grains. In about five grains of the mass there is one grain of the submuriate of

PILULE SAPONIS CUM OPIO. Pills of soap Pills of and opium. Formerly called pılulæ sapo-Five grains of the

PILULE SCILLE COMPOSITE. Compound These pills answer the squill pills. "Take of squill root fresh, same purpose as the mistura ferri compo- dried and powered, a drachm; gingersita. The dose is from ten grains to one root, powdered, hard soap, of each three drachms; ammoniacum, powdered, two drachms." Mix the powders together: then beat them with the soap, adding as much syrup as may be sufficient to give a proper consistence.

An attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic pill, mostly administered in the cure of ficient." Beat them together until they asthma and dropsy. The dose is from ten

> PILUS. (Ilinos, wool carded) short hair which is found all over the body. See Capillus.

> PIMENTA. (From Ramienta. pepper.) Piper caryophyllatum. Cocculi

indi aromatici. Piper chiapæ. Amomum pimenta Caryophyllus aromaticus. Caryophyl- tree; so called because its leaves resemlus Americanus. Piper odoratum Jamaicense. ble those of the pine-tree.) Hog's fennel. Jamaica pepper, or allspice. The berries See Peucedanum. of the Myrtus pimenta of Linnaus:-floribus trichotomo paniculatis, foliis oblongo-lanceo. fresh fruit of this plant, Pinus pinea of latis. This spice, which was first brought Linnaus, are eaten in some countries in over for dietetic uses, has been long employed in the shops as a succedaneum to the more costly oriental aromatics: it is tritive, demulcent, and laxative. moderately warm, of an agreeable flavour, somewhat resembling that of a mixture of pinea, a pine apple, from its supposed recloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs. Both pharmacopæias direct an aqueous and spirituous distillation to be made from these berries; and the Edinburg College orders the oleum essentiale piperis Jamaicensis.

sometimes so called. See Anagallis.

Pimpernel, water. See Becabunga.

PIMPINELLA. (Quasi bipinella bipenula, from the double penate order of its leaves.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Digynia. Pimpinella.

species of pimpinella were formerly used racensis. Viola palustris. Liparis. Cuofficinally; but the roots which obtain a cullata. Dodecatheon Plinii. Butter-wort.
place in the materia medica of the Edin- Yorkshire fanicle. The remarkable unctuburg Pharmacopecia, are those of the osity of this plant, Pinguicula vulgaris of Burnet saxifrage, the Pimpinella saxifraga Linnxus, has caused it to be applied to of Linnaus .- foliis pinnatis, foliolis radi- chaps, and as a pomatum to the hair, calibus subrotundis, summis linearibus. They Decoctions of the leaves in broths are have an unpleasant smell; and a hot, pun- used by the common people in Wales as a gent, bitterish taste: they are recommended by several writers as a stomachic: in the way of gargle, they have been employed for dissolving viscid mucus, and to stimulate the tongue when that organ becomes paralytic.

PIMPINELLA ALBA. A variety of the pimpinella magna, whose root is indifferently used with that of the greater pimpinell, called radix pimpinelle nigra. See also

Pimpinella.

The systematic PIMPINELLA ANISUM. name of the anise plant. See Anisum.

PIMPINELLA ITALICA. The root which bears this name in some pharmacopæias is that of the Sanguisorba officinalis of Linnæus. It is now fallen into disuse.

PIMPINELLA MAGNA. The systematic name of the greater pimpinella. See Pim-

pinella nigra.

PIMPINELLA NIGRA. The root of this plant, Pimpinella magna of Linnæus, has been lately extolled in the cure of erysipelatous ulcerations, timea capitis, rheumatism, and other diseases

PIMPINELLA NOSTRAS. See Pimpinella.

PIMPINELLA SAXIFRAGA. The systematic name of the Burnet saxifrage. See Pimpinella.

PINASTELLUM. (From pinus, the pine-

PINEA. The stone-pine. The young and the same manner as almonds here, either alone, or mixed with sugar. They are nu-

PINEAL GLAND. (Called pineal from semblance to that fruit.) Glandula pinealis. Conarium. A small heart-like substance, about the size of a pea, situated immediately over the corpora quadrigemina, and hanging from the thalami nervo-PIMENTO. See Pimenta. rum opticorum by two crura or peduncles. Pimpernel. The Anagallis arvensis is Its use is not known. It was formerly supposed to be the seat of the soul.

Pine-apple. See Ananas. Pine-thistle. See Carlina gummifera. PINEUS PURGANS. See Ricinus major. PINGUEDO. (From pinguis, fat.) Fat.

See Fat.

PINGUICULA. (From pinguis, fat, so 2. The systematic name of the Pimpi- called because its leaves are fat to the Pimpinella nostras. Several touch.) Sanicula montana. Sanicula ebocathartic.

PINHONES INDICI. See Ricinus major.

Pink, Indian. See Spigelia.

PINNA. (Hivva, a wing.) The name of the lateral and inferior part of the nose, and the broad part of the ear.

PINNACULUM. (Dim. of pinna, a wing.)
A pinnacle. A name of the uvula from

its shape.

PINUS. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Monoecia. Order, Monadelphia. The pine-tree.

PINUS ABIES. The Norway spruce fir, which affords the pix Burgundica. See

Burgundy pitch.

PINUS BALSAMEA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the Canada bal-

sam. See Balsamum Canadense.

PINUS LARYX. The systematic name of the tree which gives us the agaric and Venice turpentine. See As icus albus, and Terebinshina veneta.

PINUS PICEA. The systematic name of the silver fir. See Terebinthina communis. PINUS PINEA. The systematic name of the stone pine tree. See Pinea.

PINUS SYLVESTRIS. The systematic name

of the Scotch fir. See Pix liquida.

(From metra, to concoct,

because by its heat it assists digestion.) Pepper. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Trizynia.

PIPER ALBUM. Leucopiper. See Piper ni-

PIPER BRASILIANUM. Guinea pepper. PIPER CALECUTICUM. Guinea pepper. PIPER CARYOPHYLLATUM. Jamaica pep-

PIPER CAUDATUM. Sec Cubebæ.

PIPER CUBEBA. The plant whose ber-

ries are called cubebs. See Cubebæ.

Piper Decorticatum. White pepper. PIPER FAVASCI. The clove-berry tree. PIPER GUINCENSE. See Piper indicum.

PIPER HISPANICUM. See Piper indicum. · PIPER INDICUM. Capsicum. Lada chilli. Capo molago. Solanum urens. Si. Piliquastrum Plinii. Piper Brazilianum. per Guincense. Piper Calecuticum. Piper Hispanicum. Piper Lusitanicum. Cayenne pepper. Guinea pepper. This species of pepper is obtained from the Capsicum annum of Linnxus:-caule herbaceo, pe-dunculis solitariis. As an aromatic of the stimulant kind, it is efficacious in some paralytic and gouty cases, or to promote excitement where the bodily organs are languid and torpid.

Piper indicum. Guinea or Indian pep-

per.

PIPER JAMAICENSE. See Pimenta.

PIPER LONGUM. Macropiper. Acapatli. Catu tripali. Pimpilim. Long pep- species of fir, extracted by incisions made per. Piper longum of Linnaus:-foliis cor- in the bark of the tree. It is sometimes datis petiolatis sessilibusque. The berries used as a detergent by surgeons. or grains of this plant are gathered while green, and dried in the heat of the sun, when they change to a blackish or dark grey colour. They possess precisely the same qualities as the piper indicum, only pitch plaster. in a weaker degree.

PIPER MURALE. See Illecebra.

Molago PIPER NIGRUM. Melanopiper. Piper aromaticum. Black codi. Luda. pepper. This species of pepper is obtamed in the East Indies, from the Piper nigrum of Linnaus :- foliis ovatis septemnerviis glabris, petiolis simplicissimis. Its virtues are similar to those of the other peppers. The black and white pepper are both obtained from the same tree, the difference depending on their preparation and deg ees of maturity.

Puperirus. (From piper, pepper, so called because its leaves and roots are biting like pepper to the taste.) The herb

dittany or lepidium.

PIQUETI RECEPTACULUM. The thoracic

PIRAMIDALIA CORPORA. See Corpora pyra-

PISIFORME OS. The fourth bone of the first row of the carpus.

Pismire. See Formica.

Piss-a-bed. See Taraxacum.

PISSASPHALTUS. (From miora, pitch. and asaxtos, bitumen.) The thicker kind of rock out.

PISTACIA. (Пітакія, supposed to be a Syrian word.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Dioc. cia. Order, Pentandria.

PISTACIA LENTISCUS. The systematic name of the tree which affords the mastick.

See Mastiche.

PISTACIA NUX. Pistachio-nut. An ob. long pointed nut, about the size and shape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greenish colour, covered with a yellow or greenish skin. It is the produce of a large tree, the Pistacia vera of Linnaus : -foliis imparipennatis; foliolis subovatis recurvis. Pistachio-nuts have a sweetish unctuous taste, resembling that of sweet almonds, and, like the latter, afford an oil, and may be formed into an emulsion.

PISTACIA TEREBINTHUS. The systematic name of the tree which gives out the Cyprus turpentine. See Chio turpentine.

PISTACIA VERA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the nuces pistacia. See Pistacia nux.

Pistachio-nut. See Pistacia nux.

PISTOLOCHIA. (From 72505, faithful, and λοχεια, parturition, so called because it was thought to promote delivery.) wort.

PITCH. Pix. Pix sicca. The juice of a

Pitch, Burgundy. See Pix avida. Pitch, Jews. See Bitumen judaicum.

Pitch-tree. See Picea.

PITTACIUM: (From mirra, pitch.) A

PITTOTA. (From mirra. pitch.) Medi-PIPER LUSITANICUM. See Piper indicum. cines in which pitch is the principal ingredient.

PITUITA. Phlegm, or viscid and glu-

tinous mucus.

PITUITARY GLAND. Glandula petuitaria. A gland situated within the cranium, between a duplicature of the dura mater, in the sella turcica of the sphænoid

PITUITARY MEMBRANE. Membrana pituitaria. Schneiderian membrane. The mucus membrane that lines the nostrils and sinuses, communicating with the nose, is so called, because it secretes the mucus of those parts, to which the ancients have assigned the name of pituita.

PITYRIASIS. (From mirugov, bran, so named from its branny-like appearance.) A genus in the second order, or scaly diseases, of Dr. Willan's cutaneous dis-The pityriasis consists of irregular patches of small thin scales, which repeatedly form and separate, but never collect into crusts, nor are attended with redness or inflammation, as in the lepra and scaly tetter. Dr. Willan distinguishes pityriasis over the sternum, or along the spine of from the porrigo of the Latins, which has a more extensive signification, and comprehends a disease of the scalp, terminating in ulceration; whereas the former is, by the best Greek authors, represented as always dry and scaly. Thus, according to Alexander and Paulus, pityriasis is characterised by "the separation of slight furfuraceous substances from the surface of the body,"

The pityriasis versicolor is not acuticular the head, or other parts of the body, The pityriasis versicolor is not a cuticular without ulceration." Their account of disease; for when the cuticle is abraded this appearance is conformable to expe- from any of the patches, the sallow colour rience; and the two varieties of it which remains as before in the skin or retemuthey have pointed out may be denominate cosum. This singular appearance is not ed, Pityriasis capitis, and Pityriasis versi. attended with any internal disorder, nor

Pityriasis capitis, when it affects very young infants, is termed by nurses the into bed, and after strong exercise, or dandriff: of the forchead and temples, as a slight cases a slight exanthema, partially distri-whitish sourf set in the form of a horse- buted among the discoloured patches; and shoe; on other parts of the head there are sometimes an appearance like the lichen large seales, at a distance from each other, pileus; but eruptions of this kind are not flat and semipellucid. Sometimes, however, they nearly cover the whole of the change in the original form of the comhairy scalp, being close together, and im- plaint. bricated. A similar appearance may take place in adults; but it is usually the effects of lepra, scaly tetter, or some general dis- some persons for four, five, or six years. ease of the skin.

tis in nearly the same form as infants; the only difference is, that this complaint in old

cuticle.

the arms, breast, and abdomen. It is individuals, who had an irritable skin, diffused very irregularly; and being of a and occasionally used violent exercise, the different colour from the usual skin colour, complaint has been produced, or at least it exhibits a singular chequered appearance. These irregular patches, which are to the skin. It is likewise often observed at first small, and of a brown or yellow in persons who had resided for a length of hue, appear at the scrobiculus cordis, time in a tropical climate. about the mammæ, clavicles, &c. Enform; in other cases they are branched, abies of Linnaus :- folis solitariis subieso as to resemble the foliaceous lichens tragonis acutiuscults distichis, ramis infra tinuous, they suggest the idea of a map reddish brown colour, and not disagreeable being distributed on the skin like islands, smell. It is used externally as a stimulant continents, peninsulas, &c. All the disinform of plaster in catarri, pertussis, and coloured parts are slightly rough, with dyspnæa. minute scales, which soon fall off, but are constantly replaced by others. This seurf, or sealiness, is most conspicuous on the PIX LIQUIDA. Tar. Tar is produced sides and epigastric region. The cuticular from the Pinus sylvestris of Linnxus: lines are somewhat deeper in the patches foliis geminis rigidis, conis ovato conicis than on the contiguous parts; but there is longitudine, foliorum subgemnis basi rotunno elevated border, or distinguishing boundaris, by cutting it into pieces, which dary between the discoloured part of the are enclosed in a large oven constructed skin, and that which retains its natural for the purpose. It is well known for its colour. The discolouration rarely extends over the whole body. It is strongest and impregnated with the more soluble parts fullest round the umbilieus, on the breasts, of tar, was sometime ago a very fashion-

with any troublesome symptom, except a little itching or irritation felt on getting It appears at the upper edge drinking warm liquors. There is in some permanent, neither do they produce any The duration of the pityriasis versicolor is always considerable. Willan has observed its continuance in It is not limited to any age or sex. Its Elderly persons have the pityriasis capi- causes are not pointed out with certainty. Several patients have referred it to fruit taken in too great quantities; some have people occasions larger exfoliations of the thought it was produced by eating mushticle. rooms; others by exposure to sudden.
The pityriasis versicalor chiefly affects alterations of cold and heat. In some In some much aggravated, by wearing flannel next

PIX ARIDA. Formerly called Pix Burlarging gradually, they assume a tesselated gundica. The prepared resin of the Pinus growing on the bark of trees; and some- nudis coni scylindraceis. It is of a solid times, when the discolouration is not con- consistence, yet somewhat soft, of a

> PIX BURGUNDICA. Burgundy pitch. See Pix arida.

> PIX LIQUIDA. Tar. Tar is produced economical uses. Tar-water, or water

able remedy in a variety of complaints, but is in the present practice fallen into disuse.

PLACEBO. I will please: an epithet given to any medicine adapted more to please

than benefit the patient.

PLACENTA. (From Thanks, a cake, so called from its resemblance to a cake.) The placenta is a circular, flat, vascular, and apparently fleshy substance, different in its diameter in different subjects, but usually extending about six inches, or upwards, over about one-fourth part of the outside of the ovum in pregnant women. It is more than one inch in thickness in the middle, and becomes gradually thinner towards the circumference from which the membranes are continued. The placenta is the principal medium by which the communication between the parent and child is preserved; but though all have allowed the importance of the office which it performs, there has been a variety of opinions on the nature of that office, and of the manner in which it is executed.

That surface of the placenta which is attached to the uterus by the intervention of the connecting membrane, is lobulated and convex; but the other, which is covered with the amnion and chorion, is concave and smooth, except the little eminences made by the blood-vessels. It is seldom found attached to the same part of the uterus in two successive births; and, though it most frequently adheres to the anterior part, it is occasionally fixed to any other, even to the os uteri, in which state it becomes a cause of a dangerous hæmorrhage at the time of parturition. The placenta is composed of arteries and veins, with a mixture of pulpy or cellular substance. Of these there are two orders, very curiously interwoven with each other. The first is a continuation of those from the funis, which ramify on the internal surface of the placenta, the arteries running over the veins, which is a circumstance peculiar to the placenta; and then, sinking into its substance, anastomose and divide into mnumerable small branches. The second order proceeds from the uterus; and these ramify in a similar manner with those from the funis, as appears when a placenta is injected from those of the parent. The veins, in their ramifications, accompany the arteries as in other parts. There have been many different opinions with respect to the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child, during its continuance in the uterns. For a long time it was believed that the intercourse between them was uninterrupted, and that the blood propelled by the powers of the parent pervaded, by a continuance of the same compressed immediately after the birth of force, the vascular system of the fœtus;

without success to inject the whole placenta, funis and fœtus, from the vessels of the parent, or any part of the uterus, from the vessels of the funis, and it is now generally allowed, that the two systems of vessels in the placenta, one of which may be called maternal, the other fætal, are It is also admitted, that the blood of the fœtus is, with regard to its formation, increase, and circulation, un-connected with, and totally independent of the parent; except that the matter by which the blood of the fœtus is formed must be derived from the parent. It is thought that which has probably undergone some preparatory changes in its passage through the uterus, is conducted by the uterine or maternal arteries of the placenta to some cells or small cavities, in which it is deposited; and that some part of it, or something secreted from it, is absorbed by the feetal veins of the placenta, and by them conveyed to the fœtus for its nutriment. When the blood which circulates in the fœtus requires any alteration in its qualities, or when it has gone through the course of the circulation, it is carried by the arteries of the funis to the placenta, in the cells of which it is deposited, and then absorbed by the maternal veins of the placenta, and conducted to the uterus, whence it may enter the common circulation of the parent. appears, according to the opinion of Harvey, that the placenta performs the office of a gland, conveying air, or secreting the nutritious juices from the blood brought from the parent by the arteries of the uterus, and carried to the fætus by the veins of the funis, in a manner probably not unlike to that in which milk is secreted and absorbed from the breasts. The veins in the placenta are mentioned as the absorbents, because no lymphatic vessels have yet been found in the placenta.or funis; nor are there any nerves in these parts; so that the only communications hitherto discovered between the parent and child, is by the sanguineous system. The proofs of the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child are chiefly drawn from observations made upon the funis. When it was supposed that the child was supplied with blood in a direct stream from the parent, it was asserted that, on the division of the funis, if that part next to the placenta was not secured by a ligature, the parent would be brought into extreme danger by the hæmorrhage which must necessarily follow. But this opinion, which laid the foundation of several peculiarities in the management of the funis and placenta, is proved not to be true : for, if the funis be the child, and whilst the circulation in it but repeated attempts having been made is going on, the arteries between the part

compressed and the child throb violently, fleshy origin, from the upper and back but those between the compression and the part of the outer condyle of the os femoplacenta have no pulsation; but the vein ris. It adheres to the capsular ligament between the part compressed and the pla- of the joint, and, after running obliquely centa swells, and that part next to the fœtus becomes flaccid. But if, under the same circumstances, the funis be divided, and that part next the child be not secured, the child would be in danger of losing its nates in a long, thin, and slender tendon, life by the hæmorrhage; yet the mother would suffer no inconvenience if the other part was neglected. It is moreover proved, that a woman may die of an hæmorrhage occasioned by a separation of the placenta, and the child be nevertheless born, after either by the rupture of the vessels which pass upon its inner surface, or in any other way, the child being deprived of its proper blood, would perish, yet the parent might escape without injury. See also Secundines.

PLACENTULA. (Dim. of placenta.) A small

PLADAROTIS. (From maasagos, moist, flaeeid.) A fungous and flaecid tumour

within the eye-lid.

(From planta, the sole PLANTAGO of the feet; so called from the shape of its leaves, or because its leaves lie upon the ground and are trodden upon.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Tetandria. Order, Monogynia. The plantain.

2. The pharmaeopocial name of the cen- plastrum Galbani compositum. tinervia. Polyneuron. Plantago latifolia. Plantago major of Linnaus :- foliis ovatis trum picis compositum. glabris, scapo tereti, spica flosculis imbrica-This plant was retained until very lately in the materia medica of the Edinburgh College, in which the leaves are drargyri. mentioned as the pharmaceutical part of the plant; they have a weak herbaceous smell, an austere, bitterish, subsaline taste; and their qualities are said to be refrigerant, attenuating, substyptie, and diuretic. PLANTAGO LATIFOLIA. See Plantago.

PLANTAGO MAJOR. The systematic name of the broad-leaved plantain. See Plan-

tago.

PLANTAGO PSYLLIUM. The systematic name of the branching plantain. See Psyl-

Plantain. See Plantago.

Plantain-tree. See Masa paradisiaca.

(Plantaris, sc. muscu-PLANTARIS. lus. From planta, the sole of the foot, to which it belongs.) Tibialis gracilis vulgo plantaris of Winslow. Extensor tarsi minor vulgo plantaris of Douglas. A musele of the foot, situated on the leg, that assists the soleus, and pulls the capsular ligament of the knee from between the bones. It is sometimes, though s ldom, found wanting on both sides. This long and slender muscle, which is situated under the gas- unknown in Europe before the year 1748. trocnemius externus, arises, by a thin Don Antonio Ulloa then gave the first in-

downwards and outwards, for the space of three or four inches, along the second origin of the gastrocnemius internus, and under the gastrocnemius externus, termiwhich adheres to the inside of the tendo Achillis, and is inserted into the inside of the posterior part of the os calcis. This tendon sometimes sends off an aponeurosis that loses itself in the capsular ligament, but it does not at all contribute to form her death, in perfect health. But if the the aponeurosis that is spread over the placenta be injured, without separation, sole of the foot, as was formerly supposed, and as its name would seem to imply. Its use is to assist the gastroenemii in extending the foot. It likewise serves to prevent the eapsular ligament of the knee from being pinched.
PLANUM os. (Planus, soft, smooth;

applied to a bone whose surface is smooth or flat.) The papyraceous or orbital portion of the ethmoid bone was formerly so

called.

Plaster, ammoniacum. See Emplastrum ammoniaci.

Plaster, ammoniacum, with mercury. See Emplastrum ammoniaci cum hydrargyro.

Plaster, blistering fly. See Emplastrum

Plaster, compound Galbanum. See Em-

Plaster, compound pitch. See Emplas-

Plaster, common. See Emplastrum cumini. Plaster, lead. See Emplastrum plumbi. Plaster, mercurial. See Emplastrum hy-

Plaster of opium. See Emplastrum opii. Plaster, resin. See Emplastrum resinæ. Plaster, soap. See Emplustrum saponis. Plaster, wax. See Emplastrum ceræ.

PLATA. (From mastus, broad.) shoulder-blade.

PLATIASMUS. (From Thatus, broad.) A defect in the speech in consequence of too broad a mouth.

PLATINA. A metal so called. (The name platina was given to this metal by the Spaniards from the word plata, which signifies silver in their language, by way of comparison with that metal, whose colour it imitates; or from the river Plata, near which it is found.) It exists in nature, only in a metallie state in small grains, combined with iron, copper, plumbago, &c. The largest mass of which we have heard, is one of the size of a pigeon's egg, in the possession of the Royal Society of Bergara. It is found in the parishes of Novita and Citaria, north from Choco in Peru, and near Carthagena in South America. It was

narrative of his voyage with the French academicians to Peru.

Properties .- Platina purified from all extraneous mixture is of a white colour, intermediate between that of silver and tin. It is the hardest of all metals. specific gravity being from 20.6 to 23, makes it by far the heaviest body known. It is hard, malleable, ductile, laminable like gold; but to what degree is not yet ascertained. We have seen platina drawn into a wire of a smaller diameter than the two-thousandth part of an inch. It is the most infusible of all the metals. It cannot be melted (in a considerable quantity at least,) by the most violent heat of our furnaces, but may be fused by the heat of a burning lens, or by the assistance of oxigen gas. When pure, its parts may be made to combine or weld, by hammering in a white heat; a property confined to this metal and iron. It suffers no alteration from the action of air; neither water, the eartlis, nor the salino-terrene substances have any power of re-action upon it. Potash acts upon it at high temperature. It is not oxidated when exposed red-hot to the air, for a very long time. It may however be oxidated by the galvano-electric spark, and by the nitro-muriatic acid. This acid dissolves it and assumes first a yellow and afterwards a deep orange co- of equal thickness, heat them under a lour. The solution tinges animal substan- muffle to volatilize the arsenious acid, and ces with a dark colour, and may be decom- maintain them in this state, without in-posed by alkalies and by muriate and ni- crease of heat, for the space of six hours. trate of ammonia, which have no effect on Heat them, next, in common oil, till the solutions of gold. No other acid exerci- oil shall have evaporated to dryness. Then ses any action upon it. The oxid of pla- immerse them in nitric acid, boil them in tina which is a triple compound, consist- water, heat them to redness in a crucible, ing of ammonia, muriatic acid, and platina, may be reduced by the action of a violent heat. Platina combines with phosphorus and sulphur with considerable fa- of commerce. cility. It unites with the greater number of the metals by fusion. Of these alloys, that with copper is the most valuable, as it is ductile, susceptible of a fine polish, and does not tarnish on exposure to air; the rest of them are very little known.

Method of obtaining Platina .- The processes most commonly employed to obtain

pure platina, are as follows:

1. Take equal parts of platina in grains, and acidulous tartrite of potash, put the mixture into a well luted crucible, and expose it for two hours to a violent heat. The platina fuses, but it becomes brittle and whiter than platina is in common; then expose it to a very strong heat under a muffle, by which means all the arsenic combined with it will be disengaged, and the platina remain behind in a malleable state.

pure, by decomposing the nitro-muriatic eye.) Antimony.

formation concerning its existence in the solution of common platina, by muriate of ammonia, heating the precipitate intensely, and stamping it when of a white heat into one mass: or, by assisting the fusion with a stream of oxigen gas.

3. Jannetty's process, which is considered as the best, and which is generally used for obtaining malleable platina, is as fol-

Triturate common Platina with water, to wash off every contaminating matter that water can carry away. Mix the platina with about one-fifth part of arsenious acid and one-fifteenth part of potash; putting the whole in a proper crucible, in the following manner: having well heated the crucible and the furnace receiving it, put in one-third of the mixture, apply to this a strong heat, and add one-third more: after a renewed application of heat, throw in the last portion. After a thorough fu-sion of the whole, cool and break the mass. Then fuse it a second time, and, if necessary, even a third time, till it ceases to be magnetic. Break it into small pieces, and melt those pieces in separate crucibles, and in portions of a pound and a half of the platina to each crucible, with an equal quantity of arsenious acid and half a pound of potash. After cooling the contents of the different crucibles in a horizontal position, in order to have them throughout and hammer them into a dense mass. They are now fit to be heated in a naked fire, and hammered into bars for the purposes

Mr. Richter directs, in order to purify platina, and render it malleable, the following process: dissolve platina of commerce in nitro muriatic acid, and let fall into this solution potash, until a precipitate begins to appear; then add a solution of sulphate of potash, till the whole is Wash the precipitate till precipitated. the water that passes do not change itso colour by adding to it prussiate of potash. Dry the precipitate, and mix with it 1.5 times it weight of soda, freed from its water of crystallization; press it into a crucible, but not so as to fill it, heat it gradually, and raise the heat till it fuses.

PLATYCORIA. (From maarus, broad, and nogn, the pupil of the eye.) An enlarged

pupil.

PLATYOPHTHALMOM. (From maatus, broad, and οφθαλμος, the eye; so called 2. Platina may likewise be obtained because it is used by women to enlarge the

immediately under the skin, that assists tinues to perform its functions as usual. in drawing the skin of the cheek downwards; and when the mouth is shut, it brane lining the lungs.) Pleurisy, or in-draws all that part of the skin to which flammation of the pleura A species of it is connected below the lower jaw up- pneumonia of Cullen. See Pneumonia. In wards.

PLECTANE.

The horns of the uterus.

so named from their resemblance to a throughout its whole extent. The disease drum-stick.) A drum-stick. The styloid is occasioned by exposure to cold, and by process of the os petrosum and the uvulæ. all the causes which usually give rise to

PLEROSIS. See Plethora.

PLESMONE. See Plethora.

PLETHORA. of vessels, or a redundance of blood.

PLEUMONIA. See Pulmonia.

lines the internal surface of the thorax, foundation of future pneumonic complaints, and covers its viscera. It forms a great or render the patient more susceptible of process, the mediastinum, which divides the thorax into two cavities. Its use is to render the surface of the thorax moist by the vapour it exhales. The cavity of side, which is much increased by making the thorax is every where lined by this a full inspiration, and is accompanied smooth and glistening membrane, which by flushing in the face, increased heat is in reality two distinct portions or bags, over the whole body, rigors, difficulty which by being applied to each other la- of laying on the side affected, together terally, form the septum called mediasti- with a cough and nausea, and the pulse num: this divides the cavity into two is hard, strong, and frequent, and viparts, and is attached posteriorly to the brates under the finger when pressed vertebræ of the back; and anteriorly upon, not unlike the tense string of a mu-to the sternum. But the two laminæ sical instrument. If blood is drawn, and of which this septum is formed, do not allowed to stand for a short time, it will every where adhere to each other; for exhibit a thick sizy or buffy coat on its at the lower part of the thorax they are surface. If the disease be neglected at separated, to afford a lodgment to the its onset, and the inflammation proceeds heart; and at the upper part of the cavity with great violence and rapidity, the lungs they receive between them the thymus themselves becomes affected, the passage gland. The pleura is plentifully supplied of the blood through them is stopped, and with arteries and veins from the internal the patient is suffocated; or from the mammary, and the intercostals. Its nerves, combination of the two affections, the inwhich are very inconsiderable, are derived flammation proceeds on to suppuration, chiefly from the dorsal and intercostal and an abscess is formed. The prognostic nerves. The surface of the pleura, like in pleurisy must be drawn from the seve-that of the peritoneum and other mem-rity of the symptoms. If the fever and that of the peritonaum and other memrity of the symptoms. It the lever and
branes lining cavities, is constantly be inflammation have run high, and the pain
dewed with a serous mixture, which prevents adhesions of the viscera. The mediastinum, by dividing the breast into two
cavities, obviates many inconveniences to
which we should otherwise be liable. It
prevents the two lobes of the lungs run gradually, if respiration is performed with
prevents the two lobes of the lungs on conjours expectoration ensures a speedy reconverse in mean, other when we lie on conjours expectoration ensures a speedy recompressing each other when we lie on copious expectoration ensues, a speedy reone side, and consequently contributes to covery may be expected.

PLATIFIPILEM. (From THATUS, broad, the freedom of respiration, which is disand GUALOV, a leaf.) Broad leaved.

PLATYSMA MYOIDES. (From THATUS) If the point of a sword penetrates between the ribs into the cavity of the thoblance.) Musculus cutaneus of Winslow. rax, the lungs on that side cease to perquadratus genæ vel Latissimus colli of Albinus. Latissimus colli of Albinus. Quadratus genæ, seu tetragonus of Winslow, and thoraco-maxilli facial of Dumas. A thin muscle on the side of the neck, mediastinum, remains unhurt, and conimmediately under the skin, that assists tinues to perform its functions as usual.

PLEURITIS. (From masuga, the memsome instances the inflammation is partial, (From maeura, to fold.) or affects one place in particular, which is commonly on the right side; but in gene-Plectrum. (From πλεττα, to strike, ral, a morbid affection is communicated all inflammatory complaints; and it attacks chiefly those of a vigorous constitu-(From πληθω, to fill.) tion and plethoric habit. In consequence Plesmone. Plerosis. An excessive fulness of the previous inflammation, it is apt at its departure to leave behind a thickening of the pleura, or adhesions to the ribs and PLEURA. (Prevea.) A membrane which intercostal muscles, which either lay the the changes in the state of the atmosphere than before.

It comes on with an acute pain in the

The appearances on dissection are much the same as those mentioned under the head of pneumonia, viz. an inflamed state of the pleura, connected with the lungs, having its surface covered with red vessels, and a layer of coagulated lymph lying upon it, adhesions too, of the substance of the lungs to the pleura. Besides these, the lungs themselves are often found in an inflamed state, with an extravasation either of blood or coagulated lymph in their substance. Tubercles and abscesses are likewise frequently met with.

PLEUROCOLLESIS. (From Theuga, the pleura, and κολλαω, to adhere.) An adhesion of the pleura to the lungs or some

neighbouring part.

PLEURODYNIA. (From Theupa, and odurn, pain.) A pain in the side, from a rheumatic affection of the pleura.

PLEURO-PNEUMONIA. (From mheupa, and mveu movia, an inflammation of the lungs.) An inflammation of the lungs and pleura.
PLEURORTHROPNEA. (From πλευζα, the

pleura, and ogoos, upright, and ween, to breathe.) A pleurisy in which the patient cannot breathe without keeping his body upright.

PLEUROSTHOTONOS. (From Theugoy, the side, and reive, to stretch.) A spasmodic disease in which the body is bent

to one side.

PLEXUS. (From plector, to plait or knit.) A nct-work of vessels. The union of two or more nerves is also called a stone.

PLEXUS CARDIACUS. The cardiac plexus of nerves is the union of the eighth pair of nerves and great sympathetic.

PLEXUS CHOROIDES. The choroid plexus is a net-work of vessels situated in the lateral ventricles of the brain.

PLEXUS PAMPINIFORMIS. The plexus of vessels about the spermatic chord.

PLEXUS PULMONICUS. The pulmonic plexus is formed by the union of the eighth pair of nerves with the great sympathetic.

PLEXUS RETICULARIS. vessels under the fornix of the brain.

PLICA. (From plico, to entangle. This disease is commonly distinguished by the adjective Polonica, it being peculiar to the inhabitants of Poland and Lithuana.) Helo-Rhopalosis. Plica Polonica. hairs, in which they become long and are used as mild refrigerants in fevers and coarse, and matted and glued into inextri- other hot indispositions. cable tangles. It is peculiar to Poland and Tartary, and generally appears during and laxative; they are often taken by the autumnal season.

gether in one mass.) club moss.

PEINTHIUS, PAINTBIOG. The fourfold bandage.

Plum, Malabar. See Malabar plum.

PLUMBAGO. (From plumbum, lead; so called because it is covered with lead-coloured spots.) 1. Lead-wort. See Per.

2. An ore of a shining blue black colour, a greasy feel, and tuberculated when fractured. It is by many erroneously taken for molybdena, from which it is easily distinguished by its fracture, that of the latter being always lamellated.

PLUMBAGO EUROPÆA. The systematic name of the tooth-wort. See Dentaria.

PLUMBI CARBONAS. Subcarbonate of lead called cerusse, or white lead. It is sometimes employed medicinally in form of powder and ointment, to children whose skin is fretted. It should however be cautiously used, as there is great reason to believe that complaints of the bowels of children originate from it's absorption.

Plumbi, oxydum semivitreum.

tharge.

PLUMBI SUPERACETAS. See Superacetus plumbi.

PLUMBI SUBCARBONAS. Sce Plumbi carbonas.

PLUMBUM. See Lead.

PLUMBUM CANDIDUM. See Stannum.

PLUMBUM CINEREUM BISMUTH.

PLUMBUM NIGRUM. Black lead.

PLUMBUM RUBEUM. The philosopher's

PLUMBUM USTUM. Burnt lead.

PLUMMERI PILULE. Plummer's pills. A composition of calomel antimony, guaiacum and balsam of copaivi. Sec Pilula

hydrargyri submuriatis.

Plums. Three sorts of plums are ranked amongst the articles of the materia medica; they are all met with in the gardens of this country, but the shops are supplied with them moderately dried, from abroad. 1. The pruna brignolensia. The Brignole plum, or prune, brought com Brignole in Provence; it is of a reddish yellow colour, A net-work of and has a very grateful, sweet, subacid the brain. taste. 2. The pruna Gallica; the common or French prune. 3. The pruna damascena, or damson. See Damson. All these fruits possess the same general qualities with the other summer fruits. The prunelloes, in which the sweetness has a great-Trichoma. Plaited hair. A disease of the er mixture of acidity than in the other sorts, The French primes and damsons are the most emollient themselves to gently move the belly, where Peternia. (From plico, to entangle; so there is a tendency to inflammations. Decalled because its leaves are entangled to- coctions of them afford a useful basis for Wolf's-claw, or laxative or purgative mixtures, and the pulp in substance for electuaries.

PLUNKET'S CANCER REMEDY. "Take crows' foot, which grows in low grounds, either common or tubulated, are employed, one handful; dogs' fennel, three sprigs; and placed in a sand-bath, or heated by both well pounded; crude brimstone in the fire of a lamp. Earthen, or coated powder, three middling thimbles full; glass retorts, are put in the naked fire white arsenic, the same quantity; incor- if necessary, they are joined with a meporated all in a mortar, and made into tallic or glass conveying pipe. When, besmall balls the size of a nutmeg, and dried sides the aëriform, other fluids are to be in the sun." These balls must be powdered collected, the middle or intermediate and mixed with the yolk of an egg, and bottle finds its use; and to prevent, after laid over the sore or cancer upon a piece cooling, the rising of the water from the of pig's bladder, or stripping of a calf trough into the disengaging vessels, the when dropped, which must be cut to the tube of safety is employed. For the exsize of the sore, and smeared with the trication of gases taking place in soluyolk of an egg. This must be applied tions, for which no external heat is recautionaly to the lips or nose lest any part quired, the bottle called disengaging botof it get down; nor is it to be laid on too tle, or proof, may be used. For receivbroad on the face, or too near the heart, ers, to collect the disengaged airs, various nor to exceed the breadth of half-a-crown; cylinders of glass are used, whether grabut elsewhere as far as the sore goes. The plaster must not be stirred until it or open at both; and, in this last case, drops off of itself, which will be in a week. Clean bandages are often to be put on.

PNEUMATIC APPARATUS. The discovery of aëriform fluids has, in modern chemistry, occasioned the necessity of some peculiar instruments, by means of which those substances may, in distillations, solutions, or other operations, be caught, collccted, and properly managed. The proper instruments for this are styled the pneumatic apparatus. Any kind of air is specifically lighter than any liquid; and therefore, if not decomposed by it, rises through it in bubbles. On this principle rests the essential part of the apparatus, adapted to such operations. Its principal part is the pneumatic trough, which is a kind of reservoir for the liquid, through which the gas is con- by a collection of air in the cellular texveyed and caused to rise, and is filled either with water or with quicksilver. Some inches below its brim an horizontal shelf is fastened, in dimension about half or the third part of the trough, and provided on its foremost edge with a row of holes, into which, from underneath, shortnecked funnels are fixed. The trough is filled with water sufficient to cover the shelf, to support the receivers, which being previously filled with water or mercury, are placed invertedly, their open end turned down upon the above-mentioned holes, through which afterwards the gases, conveyed there and directed by means of the funnels, rise in the form of air-bubbles.

In some cases the trough must be filled with quicksilver, because water decomposes some kinds of air by absorbing their basis. The price and specific gravity of that metal make it necessary to give to the quicksilver-trough smaller dimensions. It is either out in marble, or made of wood well joined. The late Karsten has contrived an apparatus, which, to the advantage of saving room, adds that of great conveniency.

To disengage gases, retorts of glass, duated or not, either closed at one end, they are made air tight by a stopper fitted by grinding. Besides these, glass bells and common bottles are employed.

To combine with water, in a commodious way, some gases that are only gradually and slowly absorbed by it, the glass apparatus of Parker is serviceable.

PNEUMATOCELE. (From Treuma, wind, and kehn, a tumour.) Any species of her-nia, that is distended with flatus.

PNEUMATOMPHALUS. (From Treuma, wind, and ompanos, the navel.) A flatulent, umbilical hernia.

PNEUMATOSIS. (From TVEUMATOW, to Emphysema. Windy swelling. inflate.) A genus of disease in the class cachexic, and order intumescentiæ of Cullen, known ture under the skin, rendering it tense, elastic, and crepitating. The species of pneumatosis are:

1. Pneumatosis spontanea, without any manifest cause.

2. Pneumatosis traumatica, from a wound. 3. Pueumatosis venenata, from poisons.

4. Pneumatosis hysterica, with hysteria. PNEUMONIA. (From @rev,uwr, a lung.) Pneumonitis. Peripneumonia. Peripneumonia vera. Inflammation of the lungs. A genus of disease in the class pyrexiæ and order phlegmasie of Cullen; characterised by pyrexia, difficult respiration, cough, and a sense of weight and pam in the thorax. The species of pneumoma, according to the above nosologist, are,

The pulse not al-1. Peripneumonia. ways hard, but sometimes soft : an obtuse pain in the breast: the respiration always difficult; sometimes the patient cannot breathe, unless in an upright posture; the face swelled, and of a livid colour; the cough for the most part moist, frequently bloody.

2. Pleuri . The pulse hard: a pungent pain in one side, aggravated during the time of inspiration; an uneusiness

when lying on one side; a very painful day; but it may likewise prove fatal, by cough, dry in the beginning of the disease, afterwards moist, and frequently bloody. See Pleuritis.

With respect to pneumonia, the most general cause of this inflammation, is the application of cold to the body, which gives a check to the perspiration, and determines a great flow of the blood to the lungs. It attacks principally those of a robust constitution and plethoric habit, and occurs most frequently in the winter season and spring of the year; but it may arise in either of the other seasons, when there are sudden vicissitudes from heat to cold.

Other causes, such as violent exertions in singing, speaking, or playing on wind instruments, by producing an increased action of the lungs, have been known to Those who have occasion peripneumony. laboured under a former attack of this complaint, are much predisposed to returns of it.

The true peripneumony comes on with an obtuse pain in the chest or side, great difficulty of breathing, (particularly in a recumbent position, or when lying on the side affected,) together with a cough, dryness of the skin, heat, anxiety, and thirst. At the first commencement of the disease the pulse is usually full, strong, hard, and frequent; but in a more advanced stage it is commonly weak, soft, and often irre-In the beginning, the cough is frequently dry and without expectoration; but in some cases it is moist even from the first, and the matter spit up is various both in colour and consistence, and is often streaked with blood.

If relief is not afforded in time, and the inflammation proceeds with such violence as to endanger suffocation, the vessels of the neck will become turgid and swelled; the face will alter to a purple colour; an effusion of blood will take place into the cellular substance of the lungs, so as to impede the circulation through that organ, and the patient will soon be deprived of

If these violent symptoms do not arise, and the proper means for carrying off the cate.) inflammation have either been neglected, or have proved ineffectual, although adopt- cated. ed at an early period of the disease, a suppuration may ensue, which event is to be known by frequent slight shiverings, and an abatement of the pain and sense of fulness in the part, and by the patient not being able to lay on the side which was affected, without experiencing great uneasiness.

so as to occasion suffocation, which usually are commonly disturbed. Species: happens between the third and seventh

terminating either in suppuration or gangrene.

When it goes off by resolution, some very evident evacuation always attends it: such as a great flow of urine, with a copious sediment, diarrhoa, a sweat diffused over the whole body, or a hæmorrhage from the nose; but the evacuation which most frequently terminates the complaint, and which does it with the greatest effect. is a free and copious expectoration of thick white or yellow matter, slightly streaked with blood, and by this the dis. ease is carried of generally in the course

of ten or twelve days. Our opinion as to the event, is to be drawn from the symptoms which are present. A high degree of fever, attended with delirium, great difficulty of breathing, acute pain, and dry cough, denote great danger: on the contrary an abatement of the febrile symptoms, and of the difficulty of breathing, and pam, taking place on the coming on of a free expectoration, or the happening of any other critical evacuation, promises fair for the recovery of the patient. A termination of the inflammation in suppuration, is always to be considered as dangerous.

On dissection, the lungs usually appear inflamed, and there is often found an extravasation, either of blood, or of coagulable lymph in their cellular substance. The same appearances likewise present themselves in the cavity of the thorax and within the pericardium. The pleura, connected with the lungs, is also in an inflamed state, having its surface every where crowded with red vessels. Besides these, abscesses are frequently found in the substance of the lungs, as likewise tubercles and adhesions to the ribs are formed. A quantity of purulent mat. ter is often discovered also in the bron-

PNEUMOPLEURITIS. (From @veumay, the lungs, and wasvertes, an inflamination of the pleura.) An inflammation of the lungs and pleura.

PNIGALIUM. (From σνιγω, to suffo-The night-mare. A disorder in which the patient appears to be suffo-

PNIX. (From Triza, to suffocate.) An

hysterical sense of suffocation.

PODAGRA. (From ore, the foot, and alex, a taking, or seizure.) Febris podugri-Arthritis. Dolor podagricus. gout. A genus of disease in the class pyrexie and order phlegmasie of Cullen; known by pyrexia, pain in the joints, chiefly When peripneumony proves fatal, it is of the great toe, and especially the hands generally by an effusion of blood taking and feet, returning at intervals : previous to place into the cellular texture of the lungs, the attack, the functions of the stomach

1. Podagra regularis. Arthritis podagra

Arthrine rachialgica. Arthritis astiva of then, that substances act as poisonous only San age. The regular gout.

2. Podagra atonica. Arthritis melancho- they are applied to, and the subject lica, hiemalis, chlorotica, and asthmetica of Sanvage. The atomic gont.

3. Podagra retrograda. The retrocedent gout.

4. Podagra aberrans. Misplaced or wandering gont. See Arthritis.

Podaguania. (From podagra, the gout; so called because it was thought to expel the gont.) Gont-weed. A species of zgo- either whole, ulcerated, cut, or torn. podium.

PODONIETRUM, (From wee, a foot, and riale, to wash, or bathe.) A bath for the

PODOPHYLLUM. (From wes, a foot, and φυλλον, a leaf; so nanicel from its shape.)

A species of wolf's-bane.

Ponorneca. (From 885, a foot, and ribnat, to put.) A shoe, or stocking. An anatomical preparation, consisting of a kind of shoe of the scarf-skin, with the subject.

POISON. Venenum. That substance which, when applied externally, or taken into the human body, uniformly effects such a derangement in the animal economy as to produce disease, may be defined a poison. It is extremely difficult, however, to give a definition of a poison; and the above is subject to great inaccuracy. Poisons are divided, with respect to the kingdom to which they belong, into animal, vegetable, mineral, and halituous, or aërial.

Poisons are only deleterious in certain doses; for the most active, in small doses, form the most valuable medicines. There are, nevertheless, certain poisons, which are really such in the smallest quantity, and which are never administered medicinally; as the poison of hydrophobia, the plague. There are likewise substances which are innocent when taken into the stomach, but which prove deleterious when taken into the lungs, or when applied to an abraded surface; thus carbonic acid is continually swallowed with fermented liquors, and thus the poison of the viper may be taken with impunity; whilst inspiring carbonic acid kills, and the poison of the viper inserted into the flesh, often proves fatal.

Several substances also act as poisons when applied either externally or inter-

nally, as arsenic.

When a substance produces disease, not only in mankind, but in all animals, it is distinguished by the term common poison, as arsenic, sublimate, &c. whilst that which this country, promises to be as efficacious is poisonous to man only, or to animals, as those in greater repute. It has been and often to one genus, is said to be a re- given freely in phthisis pulmonalis, and, lative poison; thus aloes are poisonous to like other remedies, failed in producing a dogs and wolves; the phellandrium aqua- cure: yet, as a palliative, it claims attenticum kills horses, whilst oxen devour it tion. Its virtues are balsamic, demulcent, greedily, and with impunity. It appears, and corroborant.

in regard to their dose, the part of the body

Poisons enter the body in the following

ways:

- 1. Through the esophagus alone, or with the food.
  - 2. Through the anus by clysters.

3. Through the nostrils

4. Through the lungs with the air.

5. Through the absorbents of the skin,

Poison oak. See Rhus toxicodendron. POLEMONIUM. (From Polemon, its in-

ventor.) Wild sage. Poley mountain. See Polium creticum,

and Polium montanum,

POLICM. (From woxies, white; so called from its white cap llaments.) Tencrium of Linnaus; of which botanists

commerate several species.

Polium crericum. Candy poley-moun-Tencrium creticum of Linnxus. The nails adhering to it, taken from a dead tops and whole herb enter the antiquated compounds mithridate and theriaca. plant is obtained from the island of Candy; has a moderately aromatic smell, and a nauscous bitter taste. It is placed amongst the aperients and corroborants.

Polium Montanum. Poley-mountain of Montpellier. This plant, Tencrium capitatum of Linnxus, bears the winter of our climate, and is generally substituted for

the candy species

POLLEY, The thumb, or great-toe.

Polyconnesses. (From colue, much, and xgnsoc, useful.) Many virtues, or uses. Applied to many medicines from their ex-

tensive usefulness.

VOLVEIPSIA. (!.om @ohus, much, and Sin, thirst.) Excessive thirst. A genus of disease in the class locales and order dysorexie of Cillen. symptomatic of fever, dropsy, excessive d scharges, or poisons.

POLYGALA. (From woxes, much, and yaxa, milk; so named from its abundance of its milky juice.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class,

Diadelphia. Order, Octandria.

2. The pharmacopoial name of Polyga-Common milk-wort. The root of lon. this plant, Polygula vulgaris of Linnaus, is somewhat similar in taste to that of the seneka, but much weaker. The leaves are very bitter, and a handful of them, infused in wine, is said to be a safe and gentle purge.

This is a remark-POLYGALA AMARA. ably bitter plant, and, though not used in

POLYGALA SENECA. The systematic name bones which form the internal surface of the

POLYGALA VULGARIS. The systematic name of the common milk-wort. See

Polygala.

POLYGONATUM. (From @onus, many, and yovu, a joint; so named from its numerous joints or knots.) Sigillum Solomonis. Solomon's seal. The Convallaria polygonatum of Linnæus.

POLYGONUM. (From @odus, many, and yove, a joint; so named from its numerous joints.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Octandria. Order, Trigynia. Knot-grass.

POLYGONUM AVICULARE. The systematic name of the knot-grass. See Centumnodia.

POLYGONUM BACCIFERUM. A species of equisetum, or horse-tail.

The systematic POLYGONUM BISTORTA. name of the officinal bistort. See Bistorta.

POLYGONUM DIVARICATUM. The systematic mame of the eastern buck-wheat

plant. See Buck-wheat, eastern.

POLYGONUM FAGOPYRUM. The systematic name of the buck-wheat. See Buck-

POLYGONUM HYDROPIPER. The systematic name of the poor man's pepper. See

POLYGONUM LATIFOLIUM. Common knotgrass.

POLYGONUM MAS. Common knot-grass. POLYGONUM MINUS. Rupture-wort.

POLYGONUM PERSICARIA. The systematic name of arsmart. See Persicaria.

Polygonum selenoides. Parsley break.

POLYPODIUM. (From wolve, many, and wus, a foot; so called because it has many roots.) The name of a genus of cervix, or from the lower edge of the osplants in the Linnaan system. Class, uteri. The first case is the most frequent, Cryptogamia. Order, Filices. Fern, or polypody.

POLYPUS. (From woxue, many, and wes, a foot; from its sending off many ramifications, like legs.) 1. The name of minated fleshy, hardly ever being schirrous,

a genus of zoophytes.

2. In Cullen's Nosology, a synonym with sarcoma. A kind of tumour, which is generally narrow where it originates, and then becomes wider, somewhat like a pear; which most commonly is met with in the nose, uterus, or vagina; and which received its name from an erroneous idea, that it is usually had several roots, or feet, like polypi, or zoophytes.

Polypi vary from each other according to the different causes that produce them, and the alterations that happen in them.  $\sigma\omega\mu\alpha$ , a body.) See Polysarchia. Sometimes a polypus of the nose is owing to a swelling of the pituitary membrane, σπαω, to draw.) A forcible instrument which swelling may possess a greater or less space of the membrane, as also its cellular substance, and may affect either one or both nostrils. Atothertimes, it arises from an ul- blance to a woman's hair, or because, in

of the rattlesnake milk-wort. See Seneka. nostrils. Polypuses are sometimes so soft, that upon the least touch they are lacerated, and bleed; at other times they are very compact, and even scirrhous. Some continue small a great while; others increase so fast as, in a short time, to push out at the nostrils, or extend backwards towards the throat. Le Dran mentions, that he has known them fill up the space behind the uvula, and, turning towards the mouth, have protruded the fleshy arch of the palate so far forwards as to make it parallel with the third dentes molares. There are others which, though at first free from any malignant disposition, become afterwards carcinomatous, and even highly cancerous. Of whatever nature the polypus is, it intercepts the passage of the air through the nostril, and when large, forces the septum narium into the other nostril, so that the patient is unable to breathe, unless through the mouth. A large polypus pressing in like manner upon the spongy bones, gradually forces them down upon the maxillary bones, and thus compresses and stops up the orifice of the ductus lachrymalis; nor is it impossible for the sides of the canalis nasalis to be pressed together. In which case the tears, having no passage through the nose, the eye is kept constantly watering, and the saccus lachrymalis, not being able to discharge its contents, is sometimes so much dilated as to form what is called a flat fistula. The above writer has seen instances of polypuses so much enlarged as to force down the ossa palati.

The polypus of the uterus is of three kinds, in respect to situation. It either grows from the fundus, the inside of the the last the most uncommon. Polypi of the uterus are always shaped like a pear, and have a thin pedicle. They are almost invariably of that species which is deno-

cancerous/or ulcerated.

The coagulable substance which is found in the cavities of the heart of those who are some time in articulo mortis, is impro-

perly called a polypus.

POLYSARCHIA. (From συλυς, much, and σαζξ, flesh.) Polysomatia. Obesitas. Corpulentia.. Steatites of Vogel. Troublesome corpulency, or fatness. A genus of disease in the class cachexia and order intumescentiæ of Cullen.

POLYSOMATIA. (From wodus, much, and

POLYSPASTUM. (From wohus, much, and for reducing luxations:

POLYTRICHUM. (From wodus, many, and θgiξ, air; so called from its resemcer produced by a caries of some of the ancient times, women used to dye the hair

with it, to keep it from shedding.) Polytricon. 1. The name of a genus of plants cause of the multitude of its shoots.) in the Linnaan system. Class, Crytogamia. The name of a genus of plants in the Lin-Order, Musci.

2. The systematic name of the golden Octandria.

maidenhair. See Adianthum aureum.

name of the golden maidenhair. Adianthum aureum.

POLYURICA ISCHURIA. (From Toxue, much, and \*eo, urine.) Strangury, from long retention of urine.

Ponaceum. (From pomum, an apple.) Cider, or the fermented juice of apple.

Pomegranate. See Granatum.

Pompholygones. (From σομφολυξ, a bubble.) Urine, with bubbles on the surface.

Pompholix. (From σομφος, a bladder)

1. A bubble. 2. The whitish powder called tutty, a kind of zinc, which adheres to the covers of the crucibles in making brass, in muliebre, the form of small bubbles. See Tntia. PORT I POMPHOS. (From σεμφω, to put forth.) ducts, the

A bladder, or watery pustule.

POMUM. An apple. See Apples. POMUM ADAMI. (Pomum, an apple; so called because it was thought to have originated in consequence of a whimsical testicle. supposition that part of the forbidden apand thus became the cause.) The protu- of the navel becance in the anterior part of the neck, PORRIGO. (A porrigendo, from its formed by the fore-part of the thyroid car- spreading abroad.) A disease very comtilage.

num lycopersicum.

Corpus annulare. combing the head-inentia annularis. PORRUM. Po PONS VAROLII. Processus annularis. Eminentia annularis. PORRUM. Porret, or common leek. Varolius's bridge. An eminence of the medulla oblongata, first described by Varothis plant, but more particularly the root,

tarous wine.

PONTICUM MEL. honcy.

Poorman's pepper. Lepidium.

Poplar. See Populus.

POPLES. Igrye. Ignys. The ham, or

joint of the knee.

hollow of the ham.

cle lying across the back part of the knee-

joint.

Poppy, white. See Papaver album.

bccause its leaves resemble those of the supplied with nerves. See Facial nerve.

Popular ) Marsh marigold. PORTIO MOLLIS. Auditory nerve.

POPULUS. (From monus, many; be-Order, næan system. Class, Dioecia.

POR

2. The pharmacopæial name of the Po-POLYTRICUM COMMUNE. The systematic pulus nigra of Linnaus, the black poplar; me of the golden maidenhair. See called also Ægerros. The young buds, oculi, or rudiments of the leaves, which appear in the beginning of the spring; were formerly employed in an officinal ointment. At present they are almost entirely disregarded, though they should seem, from their sensible qualities, to be applicable to purposes of some importance. They have a yellow, unctuous, odorous, balsamic juice.

Populus Balsamifera. See Tacamahaca. POPULUS NIGRA. The systematic name of the black poplar. See Populus.

Porcus. A name for the pudendum

PORI BILIARII. The billiary pores or ducts, that receive the bile from the penicilli of the liver, and convey it to the hepatic duct. See Liver.

Porocele. (From wwees, a callus, and жили, a tumour.) A hard tumour of the

POROMPHALUM. (From wages, a callus, ple which Adam eat, stuck in the throat, and oupaxos, the navel.) A hard tumour

mon among children, in which the skin of POMUM AMORIS. A name for the sola- the hairy part of the head becomes dry and callous, and comes off like bran upon

lius. It is formed by the two exterior abounds with a peculiar odour. The excrura of the cerebellum becoming flattened pressed juice possesses diuretic qualities, and passing over the crura of the cerebrum. and is given in the cure of dropsical dis-PONTICA VINA. Acid, feculent, and tar- eases, and calculous complaints.

PORTA. (A portando, because through A sort of poisonous it the blood is carried to the liver.) That part of the liver where its vessels enter.

PORTE VENA. See Vena portæ. PORTAIGUILLE. The acutenaculum.

PORTIO DURA. (One branch of the seventh pair of nerves is called portio dura, POPLITEAL ARTERY. (Arteria po- the hard portion, either from its being plitea; from poples, the ham.) The conti-more firm than the other, or because it runs nuation of the crural artery, through the into the hard part of the skull; and the other the portio mollis, or soft portion.) Facial POPLITEUS. (Popliteus musculus; from nerve. This nerve arises near the pons, from poples, the ham.) A small triangular mus- the crus of the brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, gives off a branch into the tympanum, which is called Poppy, red corn. See Papaver erraticum. the chorda tympani, and then proceeds to form the pes anserinus on the face, from POPULAGO. (From populus, the poplar; whence the integuments of the face are

This nerve arises from the medulla oblongata and fourth ventricle of the brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and is distributed on the internal ear, by innumerable branches, not only to the coch- phuretum lea, but also to the membrane lining the vestibulum and semicircular canals, and is super-sulphas. the immediate organ of hearing.

PORTLAND POWDER. A celebrated gout remedy It consists of various bitters; principally of horehound, birthwort, of the tops and leaves of germander, ground- vessels in which it was first made.) Potash. pine, and centaury, dried, powdered, and Kali. Vegetable alkali. This alkali may sifted. It is now fallen into disusc.

PORTORARIUM. (From porta, a door; because it is, as it were, the door or en- ashes of wood and some plants. trance of the intestines.) The right ori- is calcined, and by this means disengaged

fice of the stomach.

PORTULACA. (From porto, to carry, and lac, milk; because it increases the ani- according to the nature of the wood which mal milk.) 1. The name of a genus of affords them. In general, hard woods conplants in the Linnzan system. Class, Do- tain the most. The ashes of beech afford

decandria. Order, Digynia.

The plant which is so called in dietical and from 12 to 14lb. Wormwood affords a medical writings, is the Portulaca oleracea good quantity. of Linnæus; it abounds with a watery and somewhat acid juice, and is often put into necessary than to wash the ashes, and to soups, or pickled with spices. It is said concentrate the solution in boilers of cast to be antiseptic and aperient.

tic name of the eatable purslane. See ums used by laundresses, or bleachers.

Portulaça.

PORUS. A pore, or duct.

Posca. Vinegar and water mixed.

Possetum. Posset. Milk curdled with wine, treacle, or any acid.

POST BRACHIALE. (From post, after, and brachinm, the arm.) The metacarpus.

lus posterior annularis.) An external in-single purpose, terosseal muscle of the hand, that extends 2. The lees and draws the ring-finger inwards.

terior indicis.) muscle of the hand, that extends the sidered as very purc. fore-finger obliquely, and draws it out-

POSTERIOR MEDII.

of a genus of plants in the Linnaan tion as they precipitate, and a very pure system. Class, Tetrandria. Order, Te-alkali is at last obtained, which is known

Potash. acetate of. See Acetas potassæ.

Potash, fused. See Potassa fusa.

Potash, subcarbonate of, solution of. See Liquor potassæ subcarbonutis.

Potash, sulphate of See Potassæ sulphas. Potash, sulphuret of. See Potasse sul-

Potash, super-sulphate of. See Potasse

Potash tartrate of. See Potassa tartras. Potash with lime See Potassa cum calce.

Potash. See Potassa. POTASSA. (So called from the pots, or

be obtained from several substances

1. By evaporating the lixivium of the from all the blackening principles.

The ashes are more or less rich in alkali. from 11 to 13lb. per quintal, according to 2. The pharmacopolial name of the the experiments which have been made, Andrachne, Allium gallicum, in the large way; those of box afforded

To extract this alkali, nothing more is iron. It is on account of the alkalies PORTULACA OLERACEA. The systema- that wood-ashes are employed in the lixivi-The use of alkali, in this case, is to combine with the fat substances, and to render them soluble in water.

Almost all the pot-ash sold in commerce for the use of our glass-houses, our soapmakers, our bleaching-grounds. &c. is fabricated in the north, where the abundance POSTERIOR ANNULARIS. (Muceu- of wood admits of its being applied to this

2. The lees of wine is almost totally converted into this alkali by combustion. POSTERIOR INDICIS. (Musculus pos- This salt is called cendres gravelées; it has An internal interosseal almost always a greenish colour, and con-

3. The combustion of tartar of wine likewise affords an alkali of considerable An external purity. It is usually burned wrapped up interosseal muscle of the hand, that ex- is paper, in small packets, which are dipped tends the middle finger, and draws it out- in water, and afterwards exposed upon burning coals. In order to purify it, the POTAMOGEITON. (From Totamos, a residue of the combustion is dissolved river, and γειτων, adjacent; so named be- in water, the solution concentrated by cause it grows about rivers.) The name fire, the foreign salts separated in proporby the name of salt of tartar. To procure salt of tartar more speedily, as well as more Potash, carbonate of. See Carbonas po- economically, a mixture of equal parts of nitrate of pot-ash, or common nitre, and tartar, may be burned. The residue, after Potash, solution of See Liquor potassæ. lixiviation affords a beautiful salt of tartar. Potash, subcarbonate of. See Potassæ Salt of tartar is the alkali most commonly employed for medical uses.

the acid is decomposed and dissipated, requisite. When the fluid is concentrated while the alkali remains alone and disen- to a certain degree, any sulphate of potash gaged; this is called extemporaneous al- that may be present will crystallize, and kali.

When the salt has been brought to the greatest state of purity, it attracts the humidity of the air, and is resolved into a liquor. In this state it is known by the very improper name of Oil of tartar per deliquium.

From all these salts, which are impure and imperfect earbonates of potash, the

pure alkalı may be extracted.

Methods of obtaining pure Potash -It has long been a des deratum with chemists to possess a method of preparing potash in a state of absolute purity; the strong tendency which it has to combination, renders this extremely difficult. The following arc the methods now made use of.

1. Bouillon la Grange's apparatus consists of several boxes of common deal. At the bottom put river-sand, which must be well washed, and over it add another stratum, but of a finer kind, and cover the whole with a cloth, besprinkled with wood-In the bottom of each box a hole is made, into which is fitted a glass tube, for the purpose of affording a passage to the liquor as it filters through the sand,

Having arranged the apparatus in this manner, take equal parts of quick-lime and pot-ash of commerce, if the lime is very caustic; but in the contrary case, it requires twenty-parts of lime to fifteen of pot-ash : put water into an iron kettle, bring it nearly to a state of chullition, and then add lime, which, by its slaking, will bring the water to that state compleiely. When it is slaked, mix the potash, and form of the whole a thick liquid, which must be suffered to cool a little. immediately throw water over it; but, to prevent the water from making holes, when added, place over it a small board, which will rise with the water.

pans, or other vessels, to receive the liquor which runs through the tubes; and, that the ley may not absorb carbonic acid from the atmosphere, the vessels must be closed with care, in such a manner as to tals, the fluid, which is very brown, is to exclude the external air. It will be neces- be decanted, and the salt, after being sary also to keep water always over the suffered to drain, must be re-dissolved in mixture, which must be collected till it passes tasteless from the tubes.

The liquors obtained are nearly of the same degree of strength till towards the end of the process; when they grow weak

suddenly

made of east-iron pots, beginning with the last portions, which are a little weaker; tions perfectly limped. These solutions and to prevent the necessity of keeping are to be preserved in well-closed bottles, the strongest a long time in contact with to defend them from the access of air.

4. If salt-petre be fused upon charcoal, the air when boiling, a strong ebullition is be precipitated.

> To obtain dry potash, pour the concentrated liquor into a small basin, and proceed with the evaporation, till a little of it, poured on an iron plate, or a marble slab,

becomes solid.

POTASSA.

Then put the concrete potash into a jar, and pour over it very strong alcohol; the potash alone dissolves in it; the sulphate and muriate of potash, with the portions of earth and even of earbonic acid, which it obstinately retains, or which it may have acquired from the air during the evaporation, remain at the bottom of the solution. Afterwards decant the pure liquor, and distil it in a recort till it becomes colourless. It must then be evaporated in a silver basin. On cooling, it crystallizes in white laminæ, which are sometimes three-tenths of an inch in length: or, instead of suffering it to crystallize, it may be evaporated to dryness.

2. Lowitz has given another method. According to this chemist, the whole of the operation for obtaining potash of the greatest purity, and without the least colour, consists in this: A lixivium of potash, freed from earbonic acid in the usual manner, is evaporated to a thick pellicle. After the cooling, the foreign salt which has crystallized is to be separated, and the evaporation of the lixivium continued in an iron pot. During this second evaporation, the pel-licle of foreign salts, particularly of earbonate of potash, which continues to be formed, must be carefully taken off with an iron skimmer. When no more pellicle is formed, and the matter ceases to boil up, it is removed from the fire, and suffered to Then pour the mixture into the boxes, and cool, continually stirred with an iron spatula. It is then to be dissolved in double the quantity of cold water, and the solution filtered, and evaporated in a glass retort, till it begins to deposit regular crys-Care must be taken to place earthen tals. If the mass should consolidate ever so little by cooling, a small quantity of water is to be added, and it must be heated again to render it fluid. After the formation of a sufficient quantity of regular crysthe same quantity of water. eanted fluid must be kept in a well-closed bottle, and suffered to become clear by subsiding during several days. It must then be decanted for a second evaporation and crystallization. The process must be To evaporate the water, use should be repeated as long as the crystals afford, with the least possible quantity of water, solu646

The greatest difficulty of this process arises from the facility with which the fluid assumes a solid form. To obviate this inconvenience, a small portion of it may be concentrated to the point at which it becomes converted into a solid mass by cooling. The saturation of a lixivium considerably evaporated, may be ascertained by throwing small pieces of this mass into it during its cooling. When these are no longer dissolved, it is a proof that it is at the required point.

With regard to the foreign salts which are mixed with the potash, the greatest portion separates by crystallization, after the first evaporation. The rest is separated during the second concentration, by the continual skimming of the pellicle. little which may remain with the potash must precipitate for want of water of solution, in a lixivium, wherein the alkali itself is no longer dissolved but by its own

water of crystallization.

Remarks.-The property of alkalies, to dissolve in highly rectified alcohol, with the exclusion of every foreign salt, would afford an excellent means of obtaining potash very pure, if their mutual action did not afford a new source of impurity. For when an alkali, absolutely pure and chrystallized, is dissolved in spirit of wine, even without heat, the fluid assumes a very brown colour, which becomes still deeper after being decanted from the saline mass.

ferent, accordingly as the crystals are form- do not yield their acid unless to barytes. ed with cold or heat. In the first case, the It changes blue vegetable colours green, crystals obtained are octahedra in groups, and possesses all the general properties of which contain 0.43 water of crystallization, alkalies. and excite, by their solution in water, even in the summer, a degree of cold very near the point of aqueous congelation. In the second case, very thin crystalline transparent blades of extraordinary magnitude are formed, which, by an assemblage of lines crossing each other in infinite directions, present an aggregate of cells or cavities, most commonly so perfectly closed that the vessel may be inverted without the escape of the smallest drop of lixivium, though sometimes included to the amount of an ounce or two. For this reason, it is necessary to break this fine crystallization, that the fluid may run off. The crystals present, in their regular formation, rectangular tetragonal blades, which, as they contain little water of crystallization, produce a considerable degree of heat when dissolved in water.

By exposing such alkaline crystals to a red heat, in a silver crucible, they become fused; and, after cooling, afford a mass as white as snow, extremely caustic and deli-

quescent.

As the crystals and the lixivium, during the length of time required to drain the salt, may frequently become charged with a portion of carbonic acid, it is advisable. in order to avoid this inconvenience as much as possible, that the lixivium, as soon as it is brought to the requisite point of concentration, should be poured into a narrow-necked bottle, and well closed therein to crystallize. After the crystals are formed, the bottle is to be reversed without opening, and kept in a temperature rather warm until the crystals are well dried. During the winter, the liquor, after the first crystallization, continues to crystallize without being submitted to a new evaporation, provided only that it be exposed to a temperature somewhat colder than that wherein the first crystals were formed.

Properties of pure Pot-ash .- Pot-ash, in a crystallized form, consists of soft, quadrangular, compressed prisms, which are extremely caustic and deliquescent. It dissolves all soft animal matters when brought into contact with it. It liquifies by a gentle heat, and rises in fumes at high temperatures. It does not unite in a direct manner with phosphorus. It easily combines with sulphur and metallic oxids. solves alumine in the humid way, and even a small quantity of silex; but it does not act on glucine, or zircon, nor on magnesia, or lime. It contracts no union with barytes. It absorbs water and carbonic acid rapidly. It fuses into glass with silex, by the aid of fire. It combines with the The crystallization of potash is very dif- acids, and forms salts, which in general

Decomposition of Potassa.

Potassa, from its analogy to ammonia, has often been conjectured to be a compound body; but nothing satisfactory had ever been proved. Its decomposition, however, has since been effected by the labours of Mr. Davy, and the discovery of its constituents will ever be regarded as the most important in chemistry. Mr. Davy was led to institute experiments, with a view to decompose the fixed alkalies by his previous discovery, that, by the powers of galvanism, the principles of bodies were separated, according to a certain law, some being attracted to the one galvanic pole, others to the other; and that the strength of these attracting forces are proportional to the energies of the opposite electricities in the galvanic circle, and to the conducting power and the degree of concentration of the substances submitted to their action.

In his first attempts, he exposed the alkali, dissolved in water, to the action of the galvanic battery, but the water alone of the solution was decomposed. Potassa, in fusion, was then placed in the galvanic circuit; a vivid light, and appearances of

the production of combustible matter oxygen. And this Mr. Davy soon con-were observed; on submitting the solid firmed, by synthetic experiments. alkali, rendered a conductor of electrici- He found that the metallic lustre of this

the complete decomposition.

had been exposed a few seconds to the at- the whole disappeared, and had formed a mosphere, so as to give conducting power saturated alkaline solution. When the gloto the surface, was placed upon an insu- bules were placed in tubes containing lated disc of platina, connected with the atmospheric air, or oxygen gas, an abnegative side of the battery in a state of sorption of oxygen took place, and a crust intense activity; and a platina wire, com- of alkali was formed. When they were municating with the positive side, was brought in contact with the upper surface of the alkali. Under these circumstances brilliant white flame, was produced, and The potash began to fuse at both its points mass, which was found to be potassa; oxyof electrization. There was a violent effervescence at its upper surface; at the lower, or negative surface, there was no liberation of elastic fluid; but small globules having a high metallic lustre, and being precisely similar in visible characters to quicksilver, appeared; some of which burnt, with an explosion and bright flame, as soon as they were formed, and others remained, and were merely tarnished, and finally covered with a white film, which formed on their surfaces. These globules numerous experiments soon shewed to be the substance I was in search of, and a peculiar inflammable principle the basis of potash."

The platina, Mr. Davy found, had no share in its production; as it was equally produced when even charcoal, and other metals, were used for completing the electrical circuit. The phanomena too were quite independent of the presence of air.

As, in the decomposition of compound substances by galvanism, Mr. Davy had found that when combustible bases had by causing a substance to act on it having been developed at the negative side, oxy- a strong attraction for oxygen. They put gen is evolved at the positive side, it was clean iron filings into a gun barrel, bent so reasonable to conclude that this happen- that the filings in the curvature could be ed in the above experiment, and that the raised to a sufficient heat, by the barrel effervescence observed at the part of the being placed across a furnace. With one potassa in immediate contact with the extremity of it, a tube is connected conpositive wire, was due to the disengage- taining solid potassa. When the iron filings ment of oxygen gas. found, performing the experiments in glass the alkali in the tube which has been pretubes, so as to collect the acrial product viously kept cold by a freezing mixture, given out at the positive surface, that this, is melted by applying heat to it by a poron the most delicate examination, proved table furnace; and it is allowed to run to be pure oxygen; and, unless an excess through, by a small aperture, upon the of water was present, no gas was evolved iron filings. It suffers decomposition, from the negative surface, nothing being the iron attracts its oxygen, and the in-produced there but the inflammable glo- flammable base is sublimed to the other bules.

ty by being very slightly moistened, to inflammable substance immediately bethe galvanic action, these appearances came destroyed in the atmosphere, and a were still better marked; and it was in white crust formed upon it which was pure this way Mr. Davy succeeded in effecting potassa. This was soon dissolved by attracting humidity from the air; a new " A small piece of pure potash, which quantity was formed on the surface, until strongly heated, confined in given portions of oxygen, a rapid combustion, with a a vivid action was observed to take place. they were converted into a white and solid gen was absorbed, and nothing emitted which affected the purity of the residual air. From subsequent experiments, Mr. Davy endeavoured to determine the proportions of these elements. From the products of the combustion of the base, compared with the quantity of oxygen absorbed, he inferred taking the mean of two experiments, that potassa consists of 86.1 of base, and 13.9 of oxygen. From the results of the decomposition of water by the base, the proportions indicated were 84 of base and 16 of oxygen. The mean of these will be 85 and 15.

The decomposition of potassa may be effected, without difficulty, with a galvanic battery of not very high powers. One of 100 plates, of six inches square, is sufficient.

An important confirmation of the discovery is that which has been received from an experiment performed by Guy-Lussac and Thenard. It occurred to these chemists, that potassa might be decomposed He accordingly in the barrel are brought to a white heat, end of the tube, which is kept cold, so By these analytic experiments, there- as to condense it; a tube of safety, confore, potassa is proved to be a compound taining a little mercury, being connected of a peculiar substance, highly inflamma- with the extremity, to allow of the disen-ble, and having a metallic lustre, with gagement of any aerial matter, and at the

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same time exclude the air. Hydrogen gas inflames in other gases which can afford is disengaged during the process, which ap- oxygen, as the oxymuriatic acid gas. pears to be derived from the decomposition so liable to oxygenation, that it is difficult of water contained in the alkali, and the to preserve it unchanged; the best method result is most successful when the alkali is in the driest state. The base of the alkali is obtained in the form of brilliant lamina, adhering to the side of the gun-barrel. There is also found in the curvature where the filings were contained, an alloy of it with iron. According to Mr. Davy, who performed the experiment with success, the base thus obtained is rather heavier than that procured by electricity, probably from containing a little iron.

searches, as the base of potassa, Mr. Davy

has given the name of

## POTASSIUM;

the termination of this name being that assigned to metals, and this substance be-

ing presumed to be metallic.

Potassium, at the temperature of 60° of Fahrenheit, appears in the form of small globules, possessing the metallic of this substance on water, that it discolustre and opacity, and having the general appearance of quicksilver, so that by the the smallest quantity of water in other eye it is not easy to distinguish between them. At this temperature, however, it is rather imperfectly fluid, so that it does not easily recover its globular form. At 70° it is more liquid and mobile; and at the temperature of 100° is so completely so, that different globules can be easily run into one. At 50° it becomes a soft and malleable solid, which has the lustre of polished silver, and at 32° it becomes harder and brittle, displaying, when broken, a crystallized texture. Though so fusible, it is not very volatile, but requires a temperature approaching a red-heat to convert it into vapour. It condenses unchanged. It is a perfect conductor of electricity, and is also an excellent conductor

It is the lightest substance known; it is therefore lighter than ether, or alcohol Mr. Davy found that it did not even sink iron, is formed, a little sulphuretted hyin naphtha twice distilled, the specific gra-drogen being evolved. When the union is vity of which was about 770. Its specific gravity he estimates, compared with that of water, is as 6 to 10, at 62° of Fahrenheit. In its solid form it is rather heavier, but dily into combination. With moreury it still, when cooled to 40°, it swims in dis-

tilled naphtha.

Its chemical relations are not less sin-

gular than its physical properties.

without flame, at all temperatures below has less coherence; for small portions of it that of its volatilization; but, at this tem- appear like flattened spheres. When a perature, combustion of it takes place, globule is made to touch a globule about the heat is intense, and the light white and twice as large, they combine with convivid. It appears to combine with diffe- siderable heat; the compound is fluid at rent proportions of oxygen; at least an the temperature of its formation; but, oxide of it, in a lower state of oxydation when cold, it appears as a solid metal, than potassa, can be obtained. Potassium similar in colour to silver. If the quantity

is to keep it in naphtha; for, although it does not sink in that fluid, it is enveloped by a film of it, which protects it from the action of the air.

When heated in hydrogen gas, at a degree below its point of vaporization, it diminishes in volume, and the gas explodes with the production of alkaline fumes, when it is allowed to pass into the air, a portion of the potassium appears, therefore, to have been dissolved; but, by cool-To the matter discovered by these re- ing, this is in a great measure deposited, as the gas loses its property of detonating,

spontaneously.

Potassium, when brought into contact with water, decomposes it with great violence, an explosion is produced, with flame, and potassa is formed. Placed on ice, it instantly burns with a bright flame, melting the ice. So strong is the action vers, by the decomposition it produces, liquids, as in alcohol, or in ether. Potassium, thrown into solutions of the mineral acids, inflames and burns on the surface, and the compound of potassa, with the acid employed, is formed.

Potassium combines with the primary inflammables. When brought in contact with phosphorus, under exposure to air, both bodies become fluid, burn, and phosphate of potassa is formed. When the phate of potassa is formed. experiment is made under naphtha, so as to exclude the air, they combine, and form a compound less fusible that either of its ingredients. It has the lustre of po-

lished lead.

When potassium is brought in contact with sulphur in fusion, under the vapour of naphtha, they combine rapidly with the evolution of heat and light, and a grey substance, in appearance like sulphuret of effected in the atmosphere, inflammation

takes place.

With the metals, potassium enters reaproduces some singular results. When one part of it is added to eight or ten parts of mercury in volume, at 60° Fahrenheit, they constantly unite and form a substance ex-It combines with oxygen slowly and actly like mercury in colour, but which of the basis of potassa is still further increased, so as to be about one-thirtieth the Kali purum. Alkali vegetabile fixum causweight of mercury, the amalgam increases ticum. "Take of solution of potash, a in hardness, and becomes brittle. The gallon." Evaporate the water, in a clean solid amalgam, in which the basis is in the smallest proportion, seems to consist of ebullition has ceased, the potash remains in about one part in weight of base, and a state of fusion; pour it upon a clean iron seventy parts of mercury, and is very soft and malleable.

When these compounds are exposed to air, they rapidly absorb oxygen; potassa, which deliquesces, is formed, and, in a few minutes, the mercury is found pure and unaltered. When a glabule of the amalgam is thrown into water, it rapidly decomposes it, with a hissing noise; potassa is formed, pure hydrogen is discugaged, and the inercury remains free.

The fluid amalgam of mereury and potassium dissolves all the metals; and, in in water, and filter; then pour the solution this state of union, mercury acts on pla-

tina and iron.

When potassium is heated with gold, or silver, or copper, in a close vessel of pure glass, it rapidly acts upon them; and when the compounds are thrown into water, the fluid is decomposed, potassafarmed, and the metals appear to be separated un- prepared in the same manner from tartar, altered. It reduces the metallic oxides when heated with them, and when the potassium is in excess, it combines with the reduced metal. In consequence of this property, it decomposes flint glass and green glass, reducing the metallic oxides solves the glass. At a red heat, it acts even on the purest glass, attracting part of the oxygen of the alkari in the glass, the patash than the carbonic, serzes it and forming the substance which is patassium in the first degree of oxygenation.

used in medicine, are

1. Potassa fusa.

2. Liquor potassæ.

- 3. Potassa cum calce.
- 4. Subcarbonas potassæ. 5. Carbonas patassæ.
- 6. Sulphas potassæ.
- 7. Super-sul; Las potassæ.
- 8. Tartras potassæ. Acetas porassæ.
- 10. Citras potassa.
- 11 Oxymurias potassæ. 12 Sulphuretum potassæ.

potussie. and mix them together intimately. abscesses.

POTASSA FUSA. Fused potash. iron pot, over the fire, until when the plate, into pieces of convenient form. This preparation of potash is violently caustic, destroying the living animal fibre with great energy.

POTASSÆ ACETAS. See Acetas pot-

POTASSÆ SUBCARBONAS. carbonate of potash, formerly called Kali præparatum. Sal absynthii. Sal Tartari. Sal plantarum "Take of impure potash, powdered, three pounds; boiling water, three pints and a half." Dissolve the potash into a clean iron pot, and evaporate the water over a moderate fire until the liquor thickens; then let the fire be withdrawn, and stir the liquor constantly with an iron rod, until the salt concretes into granular crystals

A purer subcarbonate of potash may be which must first be burnt, until it becomes

ash-coloured.

This preparation of potash is in general use to form the citrat of potash for the saline draughts. A scruple is generally directed to be saturated with lemon juice. they contain, forming potassa, which dis- In this process, the salt which is composed of potash and carbonic acid is decomposed. The citric acid having a greater affinity for and forms the citrat of potash, whilst the carbonic acid flics off in the form of air. The preparations of this alkali that are The subcarbonate of potash possesses antacid virtues, is an antidote against white arsenic, and may be exhibited with advantage in convulsions and other spasms of the intestines arising from acidity, in calculous complain s, leucorrhoa, scrophula, and aphthous affectiors. The dose is from ten grains to half'a drachm.

POTASSÆ SULPHAS. Formerly called Kali vitriolatum. Alkali vegeta. bile vitriolatum. Sal de duobus. Arcanum duplicatum. Sal polyclirestus Nitrum vi-triolatum. Tavtarum vitriolatum. "Take of salt which remains after the distillation POTASSA CARBONAS. See Carbonas of nitric acid, two pounds; boiling water, tussee. two gallons." Mix them, that the salt POTASSA CUM CALCE. Patash with may be dissolved; next add as much car-Calx cum kali puvo. Cansticum com- bonate of potash as may be requisite for mune fortius. Laps infernalis sive septicus, the saturation of the acid; then boil the "Take of solution of potash, three pints; solution, until a pellicle appears upon the fresh lime, a pound" Boil the solution of surface, and, after straining, set it by, that potash down to a pint, then add the lime, crystals may form. Having poured away previously sloked by the addition of water, the water, dry the crystals on bibulous This paper. Its virtues are cathartic, diuretic, is to common use with surgeons as a and deobstruent; with which intentions it caustic, to produce ulcerations, and to open is administered in a great variety of discases, as constipation, suppression of the

\* 40

lochia, fevers, icterus, dropsies, milk tu- Linnæan system. Class, Monoecia. Order, mours, &c. The dose is from one scruple Polyandria. to half an ounce.

POTASSÆ SULPHURETUM.

Sulphuretum potassæ.

POTASSÆ SUPERSULPHAS. Supersulphate of potash. "Take of the salt which remains after the distillation of nitric acid, two pounds; boiling water, four pounds." Mix them together, so that the salt may be dissolved, and strain the solution; then boil it until a pellicle appear upon the surface, and set it by, that crystals may form. Having poured away the water, dry these crystals upon bibulous

POTASSÆ TARTRAS. Tartrate of potash, formerly called Kali tarturisatum. Tartarum solubile. Tartaris tartarisatus, Sal vegetabilis. Alkali vegetabile tartarisatum. "Take of subcarbonate of potash, a pound; supertartrate of potash, three pounds; boiling water a gallon." Dis-solve the subcarbonate of potash in the water; next add the supertartrate of potash, previously reduced to powder, gradually, until bubbles of gas shall cease to arise. Strain the solution through paper, then boil it until a pellicle appear upon the surface, and set it by, that crystals may form. Having poured away the water, dry the crystals upon bibulous paper. Diuretic, deobstruent, and eccoprotic virtues are attributed to this preparation.

POTATOE, COMMON. The root of the Solanum tuberosum of Linnxus. Solanum Kelengu. esculentum. Kippa. Pupus Americanus. Pappus Americanus. Convolvus Indicus. A native of Peru. An extremely nutritious and wholesome vegetable.

POTATOE, SPANISH. The root of the Convolvulus batatas of Linnaus. It is a native of the Indies. It is firm, and of a pale brown on the outside; white within, and very sweet, like chesnuts, and the only esculent root of the genus convol-

POTENTILLA. (A potentia, from its efficacy.) 1. The name of a genus af plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Icosandria

Order, Polygynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the wild region of the thorax. tansy. Argentina. Anserina. The leaves of this plant, Potentilla anserina of Lunnæus, furnus, a furnace.) The mouth of a chemipossess mildly adstringent and corroborant qualities; but are seldom used, except by the lower orders.

POTENTILLA ANSERINA. The systema- off. tic name of the silver-weed, or wild tansy.

See Potentilla.

POTENTILLA REPTANS. The systematic name of the common cinquefoil. See Pentaphyllum

POTERIUM. (From worngior, a cup; The name of a genus of plants in the vers the glans penis and clitoris.

POTERIUM SANGUISORBA. The systema-See tic name of the Burnet saxifrage, the leaves of which are often put into cool tankards; they have an adstringent quality.

POUPARTH LIGAMENTUM. See

Poupart's ligument

POUPART'S LIGAMENT. Ligamentum Poupartii. Fallopian ligament. leguinal ligament. A strong ligament, or rather tendinous expansion of the external oblique muscle, going across from the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium, to the crista of the os pubis. It is under this ligament the femoral vessels pass; and when the intestine or omentum passes underneath it, the disease is called a femoral hernia.

Powder, antimonial. See Pulvis Antimo-

Powder of burnt hartshorn with opium. See Pulvis cornu cum opio

Powder, compound, of aloe. See Pulvis aloes compositus.

Powder, compound, of chalk. See Pulvis cretæ compositus.

Powder, compound, of chalk with opium. See Pulvis cretæ compositus cum opio.

Powder, compound, of cinnamon. See Pulvis cinnumoni compositus

Powder, compound, of contraverva. Pulvis contravervæ compositus.

Powder, compound, of specacuanha. Pulvis Ipecacuanha compositus.

Powder, compound, of kino. See Pulvis kino compositus.

Powder, compound, of scammony. Pulvis scummoniæ compositus.

Powder, compound, of senna. See Pulvis senuæ compositus.

Powder, compound, of tragacanth. Pulvis tragacauthæ compositus.

See Irritability and Power, muscular. Muscular motion.

Power, tonic. See Irritability.

Pracipitate, red. See Nitrico.oxydum hydravgyri.

Præcipitate, white. See Calx hydrargyri

PAECORDIA. (From præ, before, and nagora, the heart.) The fore part of the

PREFURNIUM. (From pra, before, and

cal furnace.

PREPARANTIA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines preparing the pecant fluids to pass

PRÆPARANTIA VASA. The spermatic vessels of the testicles.

PREPUTIUM (From preputo, to cut off before, because some nations used to cut it off in circumcision.) Epugogion, of Dioscorides. Posthe. The prepuce. The so named from the shape of its flowers ) membr neous or cutaneous fold that coPrapuce. See Praputium.

Prasium. (From ngasia, a square border; so called from its square stalks.) Marrubium, or horehound.

Phasum. (From πεαω, to burn, because of their hot taste.) The leek.

PRAXIS. (From περασσω, to perform.)

The practice of medicine

PRECIPITATION. (Pracipitatio; from pracipito, to cast down.) When two bodies are united, for instance, an acid and an oxyd, and a third body is added, such as an alkali, which has a greater affinity with the acid than the metallic oxyil, the consequence is, that the alkali combines cidental exposure to cold, or from the with the acid, and the oxyd, thus deserted, appears in a separate state at the bottom of the vessel in which the operation is performed This decomposition is commonly known by the name of precipitation, and the substance that sinks is named a precipitate. The substance, by the addition of whic' the phænomenon is produced, is denominated the precipitant.

PREDISPOSING CAUSE. Causa præ- cause will produce the same effect. disponens Causa prægumena. That which Many women, soon after they are renders the body susceptible of disease. diseases are, the temperament and habit

PREDISPOSITION. Pradispositio. That constitution, or state of the solids, or fluids, or of both, which disposes the body to the action of diseasc.

PREGNANCY. Utero-gestation particular manner in which pregnancy takes place has hitherto remained involved in

obscurity, notwithst ading the laborious investigation of the most eminent philoso-

phers of all ages. Although pregnancy is a state which (with a few exceptions) is natural to all women, it is in general the source of many disagrecable sensations, and often the cause of diseases which might be attended with the worst consequences if not pro-

perly treated. It is now, however, universally acknowledged, that those women who bear chil- to the womb are equally ambiguous : and dren enjoy, usually, more certain health, and are much less liable to dangerous diseases, than those who are unmarried, or

who prove barren.

Signs of pregnancy—The womb has a very extensive influence, by means of its nerves, on many other parts of the body; hence, the changes which are produced on the womb has ascended into the cavity of it by impregnation, must be productive of the belly. In general, about the fourth changes on the state of the general system. month, or a short time after, the child be-

and cannot be depended on; for, as they quickening. Women, very improperly proceed from the irritation of the womb consider this sign as the most unequivocal on other parts, they may be occasioned by proof of pregnancy; for though, when it

every circumstance which can alter the natural state of that organ.

The first circumstance which renders pregnancy probable, is the suppression of the periodical evacuation, which is generally accompanied with fulness in the breasts, head-ache, flushings in the face, and heat in the palms of the hands.

These symptoms are commonly the consequences of suppression, and therefore are to be regarded as signs of pregnancy, in so far only as they depend on it.

As, however, the suppression of the periodical evacuation often happens from acchange of life in consequence of marriage, it can never be considered as an infallible

The belly, some weeks after pregnancy, becomes flat, fr m the womb sinking, and hence drawing down the intestines along with it; but this cannot be looked upon as a certain sign of pregnancy, because an enlargement of the womb from any other

Many women, soon after they are pregnant, become very much altered in their The most frequent predisposing causes of looks, and have peculiar irritable feelings, inducing a disposition of mind which renof the body, idiosyneracy, age, sex, and ders their temper easily ruffled, and incite structure of the part diseased.

an irresistible propensity to actions of an irresistible propensity to actions of which on other occasions they would be ashamed.

> In such cases, the features acquire a peculiar sharpness, the eyes appear larger, and the mouth wider than usual; and the woman has a particular appearance, which cannot be described, but with which wo-

men are well acquainted.

These breeding symptoms, as they are called, originate from the irritation produced on the womb by impregnation; and as they may proceed from any other circumstance which can irritate that organ, they cannot be depended on when the woman is not young, or where there is not a continued suppression for at least three periods.

The irritations on the parts contiguous therefore the signs of pregnancy, in the first four months, are always to be considered as doubtful, unless every one enumerated be distinctly and unequivocally

present.

From the fourth month, the signs of pregnancy are less ambiguous, especially after These constitute the signs of pregnancy, comes so much enlarged, that its motions.

During the first fourteen or fifteen weeks, begin to be felt by the mother; and hence the signs of pregnancy are very ambignous, a sign is furnished at that period called

occurs about the period described, preceded by the symptoms formerly enumera- ofts, sight, because it is frequent with ted, it may be looked upon as a sure indi- old men.) That defect of the sight by cation that the woman is with child; yet, which objects close are seen confusedly, when there is an irregularity, either in the but, at remoter distances, distinctly. As preceding symptoms or in its appearance, the situation of the woman must be doubt-

This fact will be easily understood; for admation into the focus, so that it falls as the sensation of the motion of the child beyond the retina. The species are, cannot be explained, or accurately described, women may readily mistake other nea. By so much the cornea is flatte, sensations for that of quickening. Flatus so much the less and more tardy it rehas often been so pent up in the bowels, franges the rays into the focus. This evil that the natural pulsation of the great ar- arises, 1st, From a want of aqueous or teries, of which people are conscious only vitreous humour, which is common to the in certain states of the body, has frequent- aged; or may arise from some disease; ly been mistaken for this feeling.

gradually from the cavity of the basin, natural conformation of the cornea. enlarges the belly, and pushes out the navel: hence the protrusion of the navel lens. This evil is most common to the aged, has been considered one of the most cer- or it may happen from a wasting of the tain signs of pregnancy in the latter crystalline lens. months. Every circumstance, however, 3. Presbyopia from too small density of which increases the bulk of the belly o ca- the cornea or humours of the eye. By so sions this symptom; and therefore it can much more these humours are thin or rarinot be trusted to, unless other signs con- fied, so much the less they refrange the

along with suppression, after having been induces to a greater density of the cornea formerly regular, and the consequentsympand lens. From this it is an observed fact, toms, together with the sensation of quick- that the presbyopes are often cured sponening at the proper period, afford the only taneously, and throw away their glasses, true marks of pregnancy.

These signs, however, are not to be en- obliged to use. tirely depended on; for the natural desire which every woman has to be a mother, continually remote objects; hence artifiwill induce her to conceal, even from her- cers who are occupied in remote objects self, every symptom which may render are said to contract this malady. her situation doubtful, and to magnify reason of this phanomenon is not very every circumstance which can tend to clear. prove that she is pregnant.

of the belly, another symptom appears in ones; from a penury of humours, which the latter months, which, when preceded render the cornea and lens flatter, and the by the ordinary signs, renders pregnancy bulb shorter. When in schile ages, from certain beyond a doubt. It is the presence dryness, the bulb of the eye becomes of milk in the breasts. When, however, flatter and shorter, and the cornea flatter, there is any irregularity in the preceding those who were short-sighted or myopes symptoms, this sign is no longer to be con- before, see now without their concave sidered of any consequence.

As every practitioner must naturally 6. Preshupia from too close a prox-wish to distinguish pregnancy from dis- imity of objects. The focus is shorter of ease, the disorders which resemble it distant, but longer of nearer objects. should be thoroughly understood, and also their diagnostics. It is, however, neces. By so much smaller is the aperture of the sary to remark, that wherever any circum- diaphragm in an optic tube, so much restance occurs which affords the most dis- moter is the focus. tant reason to doubt the case, recourse ought to be had to the advice of an expe- from the use of mercurial preparations. rienced practitioner, and every symptom The patient feels a pressing pain in the eye,

50 named from its sudden seizure.) The and with difficulty can be moved. Near catalepsy,

PRESBYOPIA. (From mpeolus, old, and the myopia is common to infants, so the presbyopia is a malady common to the The proximate cause is a tardy aged.

1. Presbyopia from a flatness of the cor-2d, From a cicatrix, which diminishes After the fourth month, the womb rises the convexity of the cornea; 3d, From a

2. Presbyopia from too flat a crystalline

rays of light. Whosoever is a myops from The progressive increase of the belly, this cause is cured in older age; for age which younger persons in this disease are

4. Presbyopin from a custom of viewing

5. Presbyopia senilis. From a multi-Beside quickening and increase of bulk tude of causes aged persons are presbyglasses.

7. Presbyopia from a courctated pupil.

8. Preshyopia mercurialis, which arises should be unreservedly described to him. which, from being touched is increased, PHENENSIO. (From prehendo, to surprise; and the bulb of the eye appears as if rigid, objects the patient can scarce distinguish, and distant only in a confused manner, decomposed by the action of fire or putri-Many have supposed this disorder an im- dity, such as water, gum, resin, &c. perfect amaurosis.

PHESHYTE. See Presbuopia.

PHESBYTIA. (From meerfue, old; because it is usual to old people.) Sec Pres-

PRESURA. (From mendo, to inflame.) Inflammation at the ends of the fingers from hand. See Interossei manus.

PRIAPEIA. Sec Nicotiana minor.

PRIAPISCUS. (From πgιαπος, the penis.) 1. A tent made in the form of a penis. 2. A hougie.

PRIAPISMUS. (From mpiamos, a heathen god, whose penis is always painted erect.) Priapism. A continual erection of the penis. Calius Aurelianus says it is a palsy of the seminal vessels, by which the disorder is produced.

Priapism See Priapismus.
PRIAPUS (Πριαπος, a heathen god, rcmarkable for the largeness of his genitals.)

1. The penis.

2. A name of the nepenthes or wonderful plant, from the appendages at the end of the leaves resembling an erected penis.

PRIMÆ VIÆ, The first passages. The stomach and the intestinal tube are so called, and the lactcals the secundar

viæ.

Primary teeth. Sec Teeth.

Primrose. Sec Primula vulgaris.

PRIMULA. (From primulus, the beginning; so called because it flowers in the beginning of the spring.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linuxan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia.

PRIMULA VERIS. (From primulus, the beginning, so called because it flowers in the beginning of the spring.) Verbasculum. The cowslip, paigil, or peagle. The PROCESS. (Processus, from procedo, flowers of this plant have a moderately to go before) An eminence of a bone; as strong and pleasant smell, and a somewhat the spinous and transverse processes of the roughish bitter taste Vinous liquors impregnated with their flavour by maceration or fermen ation, and strong infusions of them drank as tea, are supposed to be mildly corroborant, antispasmodic, and anodyne. An infusion of three pounds of the fresh flowers in five pints of boiling water is made in the shops into a syrup of a fine yellow colour, and agreeably impreg- merly applied to the olfactory nerves. nated with the flavour of the cowslip.

leaves and root of this common plant pos- procidentia ani, nteri, vagine, &c.

sess sternutatory properties

Which by some was formerly so much es- The first joint of a finger next the metateemed as to obtain this name.

PRINCIPLES. Principia. Primary substances. According to modern chemists, dament, and apper, pain.) A violent pain this term is applied to those particles at the anus. It is mostly symptomatic of which are composed of two or more ele-some disease, as piles, scirrhus, prurigo, ments (See Elemente,) that may again be cancer, &c.

Prionodes. (From \(\pi\_{\ell}(\alpha)\), a saw.) Serrated: applied to the sutures of the

skull PRIOR ANNULARIS. (Musculus prior

annularis.) Fourth interesseus of Winslow. An internal interosseous muscle of the

PRIOR INDICIS. Extensor tertii internodii indicis of Douglas. Interossei manus internus of Albinus. Interossei of Winslow and Cowper, and sous-metacarpo-lateri-phalangiens of Dumas. An internal interosseal muscle of the hand, which draws the forefinger inwards towards the thumb, and extends it obliquely.

(Musculus prior me-PRIOR MEDII. Interossei manus bicissites, seu externi of Albinus. Second interesseus of Douglas, and sous-metacarpo-lateri-phalangiens of Dumas. An external interosseous muscle of the hand. See Interossei manus.

PROBANG. A flexible piece of whalebone with sponge fixed to the end.

PROBE. (From probo, to try; because surgeons try the depth and extent of wounds, &c with it.) Stylus. A chirurgical instrument of a long and slender form.

PROBOLE. (From \(\pi\)ecal\(\lambda\), to project.)

A prominence. An apophysis.

PROBOSCIS. (From πgo, before, and βροσκω, to feed. (A snout or trunk as that of an elephant by which it feeds itself.

PROCAUDIUM. (From meo, before, and Raedia, the stomach or heart.) The pit of

the stomach.

PROCATARCTIC CAUSE. (Cansa procatarctica, from προκαταρχω, to go before.) See Exciting cause.

PROCESS. (Processus, from procedo, vertebræ.

PROCESSUS CAUDATUS. See Lobulus cau-

PROCESSUS CECI VEHMIFORMIS. See In testines.

PROCESSUS CILIARIS. Sec Ciliar ligament.

PROCESSUS MAMMILARES. A name for-

PROCIDENTIA. (From procide, to fall PHIMICIA VULGARIS. The primrose. The down.) A falling down of any part; thus,

Sesternitatory properties Proconducts. (From προ, before, and Princers alexiphanmacorum. Angelica. κονδυλος, the middle joint of the finger.)

carpus

PROCTALGIA. (From πρωπτος, the fun-

PROCTITIS. (From πρωπτος, the anus.) Clunesia. Cyssotis. Inflammation of the inter al or mucous membrane of the lower part of the rectum.

PROCTOLEUCORRHEA. (From mowros, the anus, Asuxos, white, and gow, to flow.) Proctorrhea. A purging of white mucus with

heat and itching.

.PROCTORRHEA. (From mpouros, the anus, and eew, to flow.) See Proctoleu-

corrhæu

PROFLUVIA. (From profino, to run The fifth order in the down.) Fluxes. class pyrexiæ of Cullen's nosology, characterisea by pyrexia, with increased excre-

PROFLUVII CORTEX. See Conessi cor-

PROFUNDUS. See Flexor profundus

perforans.

PROFUSIO. A loss of blood. A genus of disease in the class locales and order apocenoses of Cullen.

(From mpo, before, and PROGLOSIS. γλωσσα, the tongue.) The tip of the

PROGNOSIS. (From @po, before, and yivoonw, to know.) The art of foretell ing the event of diseases from particular symptoms.

PROGNOSTIC. (Prognosticus, from πεονινωσκω, to know before hand.) Applied to those symptoms which may be foretold

before they appear.

PROLAPSUS. (From prolabor, to slip. down.) Procidentia. Delapsio. Exania. Proptoma. Proptosis. A protrusion. A genus of disease in the class locales and order ectopiæ of Cullen; distinguished by the falling down of a part that is uncovered,

PROLEPTICUS. (From προλαμβανω, 10 anticipate.) Applied to those diseases whose paroxysms anticipate each other, or return after less and less intervals of

intermission.

PROMALACTERIUM. (From mgo, before, and μαλασσω, to soften.) The room where the body was softened previous to bathing

PROMETOPIDIUM. (From πgo, hefore, and μετωπον, the forehead.) Prometoposis. The skin upon the forehead.

PROMETOPSIS. See Prometopidium.

PRONATION The act of turning the palm of the hand downwards. It is performed by rotating the radius upon the ulna, by means of several muscles which are termed pronators; as,

PRONATOR QUADRATUS. See Pronator

radii quadratus.

PRONATOR RADII BREVIS. See Pronator minate.)

radii quadratus.

PRONATOR RADII QUADRATUS. slow. Pronator radii brevis seu quadra: as urinary bladder.)

of Cowper. Cubito-radial of Dumas. This. which has gotten its name from its use and its shape, is a small fleshy muscle, situated at the lower and inner part of the fore-arm, and covered by the tendons of the flexor muscles of the hand. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the lower and inner part of the ulna, and runs nearly in a transverse direction. to be inserted into that part of the radius which is opposite to its origin, its inner fibres adhering to the interosseous ligament. This muscle assists in the pronation of the hand, by turning the radius in-

PRONATOR RADII TERES of Innes and Cowper. Pronator teres of Albinus and Douglas. Pronator teres sive obliques of Winslow. Epitrochloradial of Dumas. This is a small muscle, situated at the upper and anterior part of the forearm. It is called teres, to distinguish it from the pronator quadratus. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the anterior and inferior part of the outer condyle of the os humeri; and tendinous from the coronoid process of the ulna, near the insertion of the brachialis internus. The median nerve passes between these two portions. From these origins the muscle runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the anterior and convex edge of the radius, about the middle of that bone. muscle, as its name indicates, serves to turn the hand inwards,

PRONERVATIO. (From pro, before, and nervus, a string ) A tendon or string like

the end of a muscle.

PROPHYLACTIC. (Prophylactica, from opo, before, and ounxoow, to defend.) Any means made use of to preserve health.

PROPRIETATIS ELIXIR. Elixir of aloes

and tinctura aloes composita.

PROPTOMA. (From πεοπιπίω, to fall down.) Procidentia. A relaxation such as that of the scrotum, of the under lip, of the breasts in females, of the prapuce, or of the ears.

PROPREMA. (From meo, before, and muor, pus.) A premature collection of pus.

PRORA. (From newer, the prow of a

vessel.) The occiput.

PROSARTHROSIS. (From meos, to, and agbeom, to articulate.) That articulation which has manifest motion.

PROSPEGMA (From πεοπηγυμι, to fix near.) A fixing of humours in one spot.

PROSTASIS (From meoisnui, to predo-An abundance of morbid humours.

PROSTATE GLAND. Pronator quadratus of Douglas and Albinus. prostata, from mpo, before, and ioninus, to Pronutor quadratus sive transversus of Win- stand; because it is situated before the Corpus glandulosum. Adenoides. A very large, heart-like, firm gland, situated between the neck of the name of the damson-tree. See Damson. urinary bladder and bulbous part of the PRUNUS LAURO-CERASUS. The system urinary bladder and bulbous part of the urethra. It secretes the lacteal fluid, which tic name of the poison laurel. See Laurois emitted into the urethra by ten or twelve cerasus. ducts that open near the verumontanum during coition. This gland is liable to in- of the bird cherry-tree. See Padus. flammation and its consequences.

perinei alter.

itself. All proximate causes are either varieties in its form, he describes it under tered state of the fluids.

prunes. See Plums.

Prune. See Phims.

PRUNELLA. Con- tions. because it heals burns.) Brunella. solida minor. Symphitum minus.

Linnæan system.

also called self heal. Prunellu vulgaris the papula of the lichen, from which they of Lannaus, foliis omnibus ovato-oblongis, serratis, petiolatis, it is recommended as an adstringent in hamorrhages and fluxes, as much inflamed, except from violent fricin gargles against aphthæ and inflamma- tion. They are not, as in the other case, tion of the fauces.

name of the self-heal. See Prinella.

Prunelloe. Ser Plum.

PRUNUM GALLICUM. mon prune or plum. The plant which tops of the papulæ are removed by rubbing affords this fruit is the Prunus domestica of or scratching, a clear fluid oozes out from Linnaus :- Pedunculis subsolitariis, foliis them, and gradually concretes into thin lanceolato ovatis convolutis, ramis muticis; black scabs. gemma florifera aphylla. Primes are considered as emollient, cooling, and young persons, and its cause may, I think, laxative, especially the French primes, says Dr. Willan, in general be referred to which are directed in the decoction of sordes collected on the skin, producing senna, and other purgatives; and the pulp some degree of irritation, and also preis ordered in the electuarium è senna. See venting the free discharge of the cutaneous

of he Prunus spinosu of Linnaus :- Pru- the year when perspiration is most conus pedunculis solitariis foliis lanceolatis pious. Those who have originally a deglabris, ramis spinosis. It is sometimes licate or irritable skin, must likewise, in employed in gargles, to tumefactions of the same circumstances, be the greatest the tonsils and uvula, and from its adstrin- sufferers. gent taste was formerly much used in hæmorrhages, &c.

PRUNUS.

sandriu. Order, Monogynia.

of the black cherry-tree. See Cerasa the irruption grows more inveterate, and nigra.

of the red cherry-tree. See Cerasa rubra. the papula, some filled with lymph, others

The systematic PRUNUS DOMESTICA.

PRUNUS PADUS. The systematics

PRUNUS SPINOSA. The systematic na PHOSTATE, INFERIOR. See Transversus of the sloe tree. See Prudus sylvestris.

PRURIGO (From prurio, to itch.) PHOTOGALA. (From πεωτος, first, and Pruritus. Scabies; Psora. Darta. Libido. γαλα, niilk.) The first milk after de- Pavoni. The prurigo is a genus of disease in the order papulous eruptions of PROXIMATE CAUSE Cause prox- Dr. Willan's cutaneous diseases. As it ima. The proximate cause of a disease arises from different causes, or at difmay be said to be in reality the disease ferent periods of life, and exhibits some eased actions of simple fibres, or an al- the titles of prurigo mitis, prurigo formired state of the fluids. cans, and prurigo senilis. In these the PRUNA. (Pl. of prunum.) Plums or whole surface of the skin is usually affected; but there are likewise many cases of local prurigo, which will be afterwards (From pruna, a burn, noticed according to their respective situa-

1. The prurigo mitis originates without 1 The name of a genus of plants in the any previous indisposition, generally in name system. Class, Didynamia. Or-spring, or the beginning of summer. It der, Gymnospermia. is characterised by soft and smooth eleva-2. The pharmacopæial name of what is tions of the cuticle, somewhat larger than also differ by retaining the usual colour of the skin; for they seldom appear red, or on of the fauces.

PHINNELLA VULGARIS. The systematic sense of itching almost incessant. This is, however, felt more particularly on undressing, and often prevents rest for some The com- hours after getting into a bed. When the

This species of prurigo mostly affects exhalation; the bad consequences of which PRUNUM SYLVESTIE. The sloe or fruit must necessarily be felt at that season of

The eruption extends to the arms, breast, back, and thighs, and often continues The name of a genus of during two or three months of the summer, plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Ico- if not relieved by proper treatment. When persons affected with it neglect washing PHUNUS AVIUM. The systematic name the skin, or are uncleanly in their apparel, at length, changing its form, often termi-PHUNUS CERASUS. The systematic name nates in the itch. Pustules arise among with pus. The acarus scarabei begins to period. Those who are affected with it breed in the furrows of the cuticle, and the disorder becomes contagious.

2. The Prurigo formicans is a much more obstinate and troublesome disease than the foregoing. It usually affects persons of adult age, commencing at all seasons of the year indifferently; and its duration is from four months to two or three years, with occasional short intermissions papulæ are sometimes larger, sometimes more obscure, than in the preceding species; but, are, under every form, attended with an incessant, almost intolerable itching. They are diffused over the whole body, except the face, feet, and palms of the every attention to cleanliness or regimen, hands; they appear, however, in great, and multiply so rapidly that the patient est number on those parts which, from the ordinary mode of dress, are subjected petual irritation. The nits or eggs are to tight ligatures; as about the neck, deposited on the small hairs of the skin,

loins, and thighs. part of the night. The prurigo formicans is by most practitioners deemed contagious, and confounded with the itch. In make the following remarks: 1. The eruption is, for the most part, connected with internal disorder, and arises where no source of infection can be traced. 2. Persons affected may have constant intercourse with several others, and yet never communicate the disease to any of them. 3. Several persons of one family may have the prurigo formicans about the same time; but he thinks this should be referred rather to a common predisposition than to contagion, having observed that individuals of a family are often so affected, at certain seasons of the year, even when they reside

Although the prurigo formicans is never, like the former species, converted into the itch, yet it does occasionally terminate in a pustular disease, not con-

at a distance from each other.

3. Prurigo senilis. This affection does not differ much in its symptoms and external appearan es from the prorigo formicans; but has been thought by medical writers to merit a distinct consideration, on account of its peculiar inveteracy. The prurigo is perhaps aggravated, or becomes more permanent, in old age, from the dry, condensed state of the skin and cuticle, which often takes place at that papulæ on the neck, breast, and back;

in a high degree have little more comfort to expect during life, being incessantly tormented with a violent and universal itching. The state of the skin in the prurigo senilis, is favourable to the production of an insect, the pediculus huma. nus, more especially to the variety of it usually termed body-lice.

These insects, it is well known, are bred abundantly among the inhabitants of sordid dwellings, of jails, workhouses, &c. and in such situations prey upon persons of all ages indiscriminately. But in the prurigo sentlis they arise, notwithstanding endures extreme distress, from their and the pediculi are only found on the skin The itching is complicated with other or on the linen, not under the cuticle, as sensations, which are variously described some authors have represented. In conby patients. They sometimes feel as if nexion with the foregoing series of com-small insects were creeping on the skin; plaints, Dr. Willan mentions some prurisometimes as if stung all over by ants; ginous affections which are merely local. sometimes as if hot needles were piercing. He confines his observations to the most the skin in divers places On standing troublesome of these, seated in the podex, before a fire, or undressing, and more prapatium, urethra, pubes, scrotum, and particularly on getting into bed, these pudendum muliebre. Itching of the Itching of the sensations become most violent, and nostrils, eye-lids, lips, or of the external usually preclude all rest during the greater ear, being generally symptomatic of other diseases, do not require a particular consideration

1. Prurigo podicis. Ascarides in the endeavouring to ascertain the justness of rectum excite a frequent itching and irri-this opinion, Dr. Willan has been led to tation about the sphincter ani, which ceases when the cause is removed by proper medicines. A similar complaint often arises, independently of worms, hamorrhoidal tumours, or other obvious causes, which is mostly found to affect persons engaged in sedentary occupations; and may be referred to a morbid state of secretion in the parts, founded, perhaps, on a diminution of constitutional vigour. The itching is not alway accompanied with an appearance of papulæ or tubercles; it it little troublesome during the day-time, but returns every night soon after getting into bed, and precludes rest for several hours. The complaint continues in this form during three or four months, and has then an intermission, till it is produced again by hot weather, fatigue, watching, or some irregularity in diet. The same disease occurs at the decline of life, under a variety of circumstances.

> Women after the cessation of the catamenia, are liable to be affected with this species of prurigo, more especially in summer or autumn. The skin between the nates is rough and papulated, sometimes scaly, and a little humour is discharged by violent friction. Along with this complaint, there is often an eruption of itching

a swelling and inflammation of one or both hairs. It is remarkable that they seldom ears, and a discharge of matter from be- or never fix upon the hairy scalp. The hind them, and from the external meatus great irritation produced by them on the auditorius. The prurigo podicis some- skin solicits constantly scratching, by time occurs as a symptom of the lues which they are torn from their attachvenerea.

altered state of secretion on the glans pe- the pediculi are diffused over the greater nis, and inner surface of the præputium. During the heat of summer there is also, in some persons, an unusual discharge of mucus, which becomes acrimonious, and produces a troublesome itching, and often feeted with a troublesome and constant an excoriation of these parts. Washing of them with water, or soap and water, employed from time to time, relieves the complaint, and should indeed be practised culi pubis. as an ordinary point of cleanliness, where no inconvenence is immediately felt. If sometimes connected with the prurigo the fluid be secreted in too large a quan- podicis, and referable to a morbid state tity, that excess may be restrained, by of the skin, or superficial glands of the washes made with the extract of lead, part. The scrotum, in this case, assumes or by applying the unguentum cerusæ a brown colour, often also becoming thick, acetatæ.

some itching sometimes takes place at the cially along the course of the wethra; ex remity of the urethra in females, without any manifest cause. It occurs as well night. in young women as in those who are of an advanced age. On examination, no stric- somewhat analogous to the prurigo scrott ture nor tumour has been found along the in men. It is often a symptomatic comcourse of the methra. Probably, how-plaint in the lichen and lepra; it likewise ever, the itching may be occasioned by a originates from ascandes irritating the morbid state of the neck of the bladder, rectum, and is in some cases, connected being in some instances connected with with a discharge of the fluor albus. pain and difficulty of m. king water.

ment, remaining fixed in the same situa- excitement of venereal sensations also tion. These insects are termed by Lin- takes place from the constant direction of naus, &c. petliculi pubis; they do not, the mind to the parts affected, as well as however, affect the pubes only, but often from the means employed to procure alleadhere to the eye-brows, eye-lids, and viation. The complicated distress thus axilla. They are often found, also, on arising, renders existence almost insupportthe breast, abdomen, thighs, and legs, in able, and often produces a state of mind persons of the sanguine temperament, bordering on phrensy. who have those parts covered with strong

ments; and painful tubercles arise at the 2. The prurigo praputii is owing to an places where they had adhered. When part of the surface of the body, the patient's linen often appears as if sprinkled with drops of blood.

The scrotum is af-5. Prumgo scroti. itching from ascarides within the rectum, from friction by violent exercise in hot weather, and very usually from the pcdi-Another and more important form of the complaint appears in old men, scaly, and wrinkled. The itching extends 3. Prurigo urethralis. A very trouble- to the skin covering the penis, more espeand has little respite, either by day or

6. The Prurigo pudendi muliebris, is

A similar affection arises in consequence An itching at the extremity of the nre- of the change of state in the genital organs tra in men is produced by calculi, and by at the time of puberty, attended with a some diseases of the bladder. In cases of series of most distressing sensations. Dr. stricture an itching is also felt, but near Willan confines his attention to one case of the place where the stricture is situated, the disorder, which may be considered as Another cause of it is small broken hairs, idiopathic, and which usually affects wowhich are sometimes drawn in from the men soon after the cessation of the catapubes, between the praputium and glans, menia. It chiefly occurs in those who are and which afterwards becoming fixed in of the phlegmatic temperament, and inthe entrance of the urethra, occasion an clined to corpolency. Its seat is the labia itching or slight stinging, particularly on pudeudi, and entrance into the vagina. It motion. Mr. J. Pearson, surgeon of the is often accompanied with an appearance Lock Hospital, has seen five cases of this of tension or fulness of those parts, and kind, and gave immediate relief by ex-sometimes with inflamed itching papulæ tracting the small hair from the methra. on the labia and mons veneris. The dis-4. Prurigo pubis. Itching papulæ often arise on the pubes, and become extremely sore if their tops are removed by scratching. They are occasioned sometimes by in some degree, the sufferers have frequent recourse to friction, and to cooling appliby a species of pediculus, which perforates the cuticle, and thus derives its nourishforce to friction, and to cooling applications: whence they are necessitated to the cuticle, and thus derives its nourishforce of progressions also are the most very some degree, the sufferers have frequent recourse to friction, and to cooling applications: whence they are necessitated to

Deep ulcerations of the parts seldom

PSO PSE

take place in the prurigo pudendi; but 2. Pseudoblepsis mutans, in which obthe appearance of aphthæ on the labia jects that are present appear somewhat and nymphæ, is by no means unusual. changed From intercourse with females under these circumstances, men are liable to be affected with aphthous ulcerations on the glans, and inside of the præputium, which prove troublesome for a length of time, and often excite an alarm, being mistaken for chancres.

Women, after the fourth month of their pregnancy, often suffer greatly from the prurigo pudendi, attended with aphthæ. These, in a few cases, have been succeed. and therefore not so agreeable in warm ed by extensive ulcerations, which destroyed the nymphæ, and produced a fatal hectic: such instances are, however, extremely rare. The complaint has, in general, some intervals or remissions; and the aphthæ usually disappear soon after delivery, whether at the full time, or by a miscarriage.

PRURITUS. (From prurio, to itch.)

See Prurigo.

PRUSSIATS. Salts formed by the union of the prussic acid, or colouring matter of prussian blue, with different bases; thus, prussiat of alumine, prussiat of ammoniac, &c.

PSALLOIDES. (From Jannos, a stringed pomiferum. instrument, and sidos, a likeness; because it appears as if stringed like a dulcimer.) Applied by the ancients to the inner sur-

face of the fornix of the brain.

PSALTERIUM (A harp; because it is marked with lines that give it the appearance of a harp.) Lyra. The medul- so called because of its use as a cosmetic.) lary body that unites the posterior crura Ccrus, or white lead. of the fornix of the brain.

PSAMMISMUS. (From ψαμμος, sand.) phrometræ.

PSAMMODES. (From \umumumumumumumumumumum, scess. Applied to urine which deposits a sandy

sediment.

PSELLISMUS. (From Jennica, hesitation of speech.) Psellotis. Defect of speech. A genus of disease in the class locales and a long, thick, and very considerable musorder dyscenesiæ of Cullen.

PSELLOTIS. See Psellismus.

PSEUDO. (Yeudns, false.) Spurious; prefixed to many substances and of all the lumbar vertebræ laterally, which are only fictitious imitations; as as well as from the anterior surfaces of pseudamomum, a spurious kind of amoni- their transverse processes, by distinct ten-

Pseudo-Acorus. See Iris palustris.

Imaginary vision of objects. A genus of grows narrower again, and, uniting its disease in the class locales and order dyes. outer and posterior edge, (where it begins thesia of Cullen; characterised by depra- to become tendinous) with the iliacus inved sight, creating objects, or represent- ternus, descends along with that muscle ing them different from what they are, under the ligamentum fallopii, and goes to

objects are perceived that are not pre- fleshy into the bone a little below that

sent.

PSEUDOPYRETHRUM. See Ptarmica.

PSIDIUM. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system.

PSIDIUM POMIFERUM. The systematic name of the apple guava. This plant, and the pyriferum, bear fruits, the former like apples, the latter like pears. The apple kind is most cultivated in the Indies, on account of the pulp having a fine acid flavour, whereas the pear species is sweet, Of the inner pulp of either, climates. the inhabitants make jellies; and of the outer rind they make tarts, marmalades, &c. The latter they also stew and eat with milk, and prefer them to any other stewed fruits. They have an adstringent quality, which exists also in every part of the tree, and abundantly in the leaf-buds, which are occasionally boiled with barley and liquorice, as an excellent drink against diarrhœas. A simple decoction of the leaves, used as a bath, are said to cure the

PSIDIUM PYRIFEBUM. The systematic name of the pear guava. See Psidium

PSILOTHRA. (From \$1200, to denudate.)

Applications to remove the hair.

itch, and most cutaneous eruptions.

PSILOTHRUM. (From JINOW, to depilate; so called because it was used by depilatories.) The white briony.

PSIMMYTHIUM. (From \iw, to smooth;

PSOA. (Joat, the loins.) Alopeces. Nerometræ. Neurometeres. The name of An application of hot sand to any part of two pair of muscles in the loins.

PSOAS ABSCESS. See Lumbar ab-

PSOAS MAGNUS. (From Joa, the loin; because it is situated in the loins.) Psoas, seu lumbaris internus of Winslow. Pre-lumbo-trochantin of Dumas. This is cle, situated close to the forepart and sides of the lumbar vertebræ. It arises from Pseudes. the bodies of the last vertebra of the back, dinous and fleshy slips, that are gradually collected into one mass, which becomes PSEUDOBLEPSIS. (From \$\psi\outlefta\epsilon\eppilon\epsilon\eppilon\eppilon\epsilon\eppilon\ep be inserted tendinous at the bottom of the 1. Pseudoblepsis imaginaria, in which trochanter minor of the os femoris, and process. Between the tendon of this muscle and the ischium, we find a considerable patches of laminated scales, with little or bursa mucosa. This muscle, at its origin, noinflammation round them. The patches has some connexion with the diaphragm, very seldom extend to the size of a sixand likewise with the quadratus lumborum. It is one of the most powerful flexors of border, nor the oval or circular form by the thigh forwards, and may likewise assist in turning it outwards. When the inferior extremity is fixed, it may help to bend the body forwards, and in an erect posture, it greatly assists in preserving the equilibrium of the trunk upon the upper part of the thigh.

PARVUS. Pre-lumbo pubien PSOAS of Dumas. This muscle, which was first described by Riolanus, is situated upon the psoas magnus, at the anterior part of the loins. The psoas parvus arises thin and fleshy from the side of the uppermost vertebra of the loins, and sometimes also from the lower edge of the last vertebra of the back, and from the transverse processes of each of these vertebra; it then extends over part of the psoas magnus, and terminates in a thin flat tendon, which From this tendon a great number of fibres cus internus, and gradually loses itself on the fore part of the thigh. In the human body this muscle is very often wanting; but in a dog, according to Douglas, it is never deficient. Riolanus was of opinion, that it occurs oftener in men than in wobut the truth seems to be, that it is as often wanting in one sex as in the other. may help to raise the pelvis.

Psoas sive lumbaris internus. See Psoas

enagnus.

PSORA. Ywpa. Scubies. The itch. A genus of disease in the class locales and order dialyses of Cullen: appearing first on the wrists and between the fingers in small pustules with watery heads. It is

contagious.

PSORIASIS. (From Jopaw, to itch.) The disease to which Dr. Willan gives this title is characterised by a rough and scaly state of the cuticle, sometimes continuous, sometimes in separate patches, of various sizes, but of an irregular figure, and for the most part accompanied with rhagades or fissures of the skin. From the lepra it may be distinguished, not only seasons of the year, and by the disorder of the constitution with which it is usually attended. Dr. Willan gives the following

pears in small, distinct, but irregular takes place at nearly the same period, in

pence. They have neither an elevated which all the varieties of lepra are distinguished; but their circumference is sometimes angular, and sometimes goes into small serpentine processes. The scale formed upon each of them is thin, and may be easily detached, leaving a red, shining base. The patches are often distributed over the greatest part of the body, but more particularly on the back part of the neck, the breasts, arms, loins, thighs, and legs. They appear also upon the face, which rarely happens in lepra. In that situation they are red and more rough than the adjoining cuticle, but not covered with scales. The psoriasis guttata often appears on children in a sudden eruption, attended with a slight disorder of the constitution, and spreads over the body within two or three days. In adults it comis inserted into that part of the brim of the mences with a few scaly patches on the pelvis, where the os pubis joins the ilium. extremities, proceeds very gradually, and has a longer duration than in children Its are sent off, which form a thin fascia, that first occurrence is usually in the spring covers part of the psoas magnus and iliaseason, after violent pains in the head, stomach, and limbs. During the summer it disappears spontaneously, or may be soon removed by proper applications, but it is apt to return again early in the ensuing spring, and continues so to do for several successive years. When the scales have been remen; Winslow asserts just the contrary; moved, and the disease is about to go off, the small patches have a shining appearance, and they retain a dark red, inter-Its use seems to be to assist the psoas mixed with somewhat of a bluish colour, magnus in bending the loins forwards; for many days, or even weeks, before the and when we are lying upon our back, it skin is restored to its usual state. In the venereal disease there is an eruption which very much resembles the psoriasis guttata, the only difference being a slighter degree of scaliness, and a different shade of colour in the patches, approaching to a livid red, or very dark rose colour. The patches vary in their extent, from the section of a pea, to the size of a silver penny, but are not exactly circular. They rise at first very little, if at all, above the cuticle. As soon, however, as the scales appear on them, they become sensibly elevated; and sometimes the edge or circumference of the patch is higher than the little scales in its centre. This eruption is usually seen upon the forehead, breast, between the shoulders, or in the inside of the fore-arms, in the groins, about the inside of the thighs, by the distribution of the patches, but also and upon the skin covering the lower part by its cessation and recurrence at certain of the abdomen. The syphilitic psoriasis guttata is attended with, or soon followed by, an ulceration of the throat. It appears about six or eight weeks after 2 chancre has been healed by an ineffectual Psoriusis guttata. This complaint ap- course of mercury A similar appearance

some cases where no local symptoms had having less disposition than the lepra to been noticed. When a venereal sore is in a discharging state, this eruption, or other secondary symptoms, often appear much later than the period above mentioned. They may also be kept back three months, or even longer, by an inefficient applica- ing, or by the application of unguents, the tion of mereury. If no medicines be employed, the syphilitic form of the psoriasis guttata will proceed during several months, of the cuticle are hned by a slight scalithe number of the spots increasing, and ness. Should any portion of the diseased their bulk being somewhat enlarged, but without any other material alteration.

2. The Psoriasis diffusa spreads into large patches irregularly circumscribed, reddish, rough, and chappy, with scales dry scab; this is again succeeded by a interspersed. It commences, in general, with numerous minute asperities, or eleva- spreading in various directions. As the tions of the cuticle, more perceptible by complaint declines, the roughness, chaps, the touch than by sight. Upon these, small distinct scales are soon after formed, adhering by a dark central point, while their edges may be seen white and de- quires the proper texture. The duration tached. In the course of two or three of the psoriasis diffusa is from one to four weeks all the intervening cutiele becomes rough and chappy, appears red, and raised, and wrinkled, the lines of the skin sinking into deep furrows. The seales which form among them are often slight, and re- the usual periods of its return. In other peatedly exfoliate. Sometimes, without any cases, the disease, at the vernal returns, previous eruption of papulæ, a large portion of the skin becomes dry, harsh, with respect to the violence of the pre-cracked, reddish, and scaly, as above deceding symptoms. The eruption is, inscribed. In other cases, the disorder commences with separate patches of an uncertain form and size, some of them being small, like those in the psoriasis gutdually expand till they become confluent, quently on the breast, the calf of the leg, and nearly cover the part or limb affected. about the wrist, or within and a little bewise occur as a sequel of the lichen sim- lower part of the thigh, behind. It con-This transition takes place more certainly after frequent returns of the lichen. The parts most affected by psoriasis diffusa are the cheeks, chin, upper eyelids, and corners of the eyes, the temples, the external ear, the neck, the fleshy parts of the lower extremities, and the forearm, from the elbow to the back of the hand, along the supinator muscle of the radius. The fingers are sometimes nearly surrounded with a loose scaly incrustation; less frequently, on the forchead and scalp, on the shoulders, back, and loins, on the abdomen, and instep. This disease occasionally extends to all the parts aboveone place free, and appearing in others; sometimes again returning to its first situation. The psoriasis diffusa is attended with a sensation of heat, and with a very

form thick crusts. The chaps or fissures of the skin, which usually make a part of this complaint, are very sore and painful, but seldom discharge any fluid. When the seales are removed by frequent washsurface, though raised and uneven, appears smooth and shining; and the deep furrows surface be forcibly excoriated, there issues out a thin lymph, mixed with some drops of blood, which slightly stains and stiffens the linen, but soon concretes into a thin, white scaliness, gradually increasing, and scales, &c. disappear, and a new euticle is formed, at first red, dry, and shrivelled, but which, in two or three weeks, acmonths. If, in some constitutions, it does not then disappear, but becomes, to a certain degree, permanent, there is, at least, an aggravation or extension of it, about differs much as to its extent, and also deed, often confined to a single sealy patch, red, itching, and chapped, of a moderate size, but irregularly circumscribed. This solitary patch is sometimes situated on the tata, some much larger. The patches gra- temple, or upper part of the check, fre-Both the psoriasis guttata and diffusa like- low the elbow joint, but especially at the tinues in any of these situations several months, without much observable alteration. The complaint denominated with us the baker's itch, is an appearance of psorrasis diffusa on the back of the hand, commencing with one or two small, rough, scaly patches, and finally extending from the knuckles to the wrist. The rhagades, or chaps and fissures of the skin, are numerous about the knuckles and ball of the thumb, and where the back of the hand the nails crack and exfoliate superficially, joins the wrist. They are often highly in-The scaly patches likewise appear, though flamed, and painful, but have no discharge of fluid from them. The back of the hand is a little raised or tumefied, and, at an advanced period of the disorder, exhibits a reddish, glossy surface, without crusts or mentioned at the same time; but, in gene- numerous scales. However, the deep furral, it affects them successively, leaving rows of the cutiele are, for the most part, whitened by a slight scaliness This complaint is not general among bakers; that it is only aggravated by their business, and affects these who are otherwise distroublesome itching, especially at night, posed to it, may be collected from the It exhibits small, slight, distinct scales, fellowing circumstances: 1. It disappears about Midsummer, and returns in the cold bleed on stretching the fingers. A sensation does not immediately cease. The grocers' itch has some affinity with the bakers' itch, or tetter; hut, being usually a pustular belongs to another genus. Washerwomen, probably from the irritation of soap, are hable to be affected with a similar scaly disease on the hands, and arms, sometimes constitutions, proves very troublesome, and of long duration.

some cases, patches of the latter disorder on the face, scalp, or extremities, while the singular figures above described.

4. Psoriasis palmaria. One very obstinate species of tetter is nearly confined to the palm of the hand. It commences with a small, harsh, or scaly patch, which times affects the prolabinm without apgradually spreads over the whole palm, pearing on any other part of the body. and sometimes appears in a slighter degree Its characteristics are, as usual, scaliness, on the inside of the fingers and wrist. The intermixed with chaps and fissures of the surface feels rough from the detached and skin. The scales are of a considerable raised edges of the scaly laminæ; its co- magnitude, so that their edges are often lour often changes to brown, or black, as if loose, while the central points are atdirty; yet the most diligent washing pro- tached, a new cuticle gradually forms beduces no favourable effect. The cuticular neath the scales, but is not durable.

weather at the beginning of the year; 2. of heat, pain, and stiffness in the motions Persons constantly engaged in the business, of the hand, attends this complaint. It is after having been once affected with the worst in winter or spring, and occasionally eruption, sometimes enjoy a respite from disappears in autumn or summer, leaving a it for two or three years; 3. When the soft, dark-red cuticle; but many persons business is discontinued, the complaint are troubled with it for a series of years, experiencing only very slight remissions. Every return or aggravation of it is preceded by an increase of heat and dryness, disease at its commencement, it properly with intolerable itching. Shoemakers have the psuriasis palmaria locally, from the irritation of the wax they so constantly employ. In braziers, tinmen, silversmiths, &c. the complaint seems to he produced on the face and neck, which, in particular by handling cold metals. A long predisposition to it from a weak, languid, heetical state of the constitution may give effect to 3. The Psoriasis gyrata is distributed different occasional causes. Dr. Willan in narrow patches or stripes, variously has observed it in women after lying in; figured; some of them are nearly longitu- in some persons it is connected or alterdinal; some circular, or semicircular with nates with arthritic complaints. When the vermiform appendages; some are tortuous, palms of the hands are affected as above or scrpentine : others like earth worms or stated, a similar appearance often takes leeches: the furrows of the cuticle being place on the soles of the feet; but with the deeper than usual, make the resemblance exception of rhagades or fissures, which more striking, by giving to them an annusce more seem less table to form there, the feet lated appearance. There is a separation being usually kept warm and covered. Sometimes, also, the psoriasis palmaria is but no thick increstations are formed. Attended with a thickness of the prapution of these patches is tium, with scaliness and painful cracks. The uniform disposition of these patches is tium, with scaliness and painful cracks, singular; I have seen a large circular one. These symptoms at last produce a phymosituated on cach breast above the papilla; sis, and render connubial intercourse difficult or impracticable; so great, in some form, in analogous situations along the cases, is the obstinacy of them, that resides of the chest. The back is often vamedies are of no avail, and the patient riegated in like manner, with convoluted can only be relieved by circumcision. This tetters, similarly arranged on each side of affection of the praputium is not exactly the spine. They likewise appears in some similar to any venereal appearance, but cases on the arms and thinks intersecting rhangeles or fissures and indurated patches. cases, on the arms and thighs, intersecting rhagades or fissures, and indurated patches each other invarious directions. A slighter within the palm of the hand, take place kind of this complaint affects delicate young in syphilis, and somewhat resemble the women and children in small scaly circles or psoriasis palmaria. The venereal patches rings, little discoloured; they appear on the cheeks, neck, or upper part of the breast, having nearly the consistence of a soft and are mostly confounded with the herpe- corn. From the rhagades there is a slight tic, or pustular ring-worm. The psoriasis discharge, very offensive to the smell. gyrata has its remissions and returns, like The soles of the feet are likewise, in this the psoriasis diffusa; it also exhibits, in case, affected with the patches, not with rhagades. When the disease yields to the operation of mereury, the indurated porthe trunk of the body is chequered with tions of euticle separate, and a smooth new cuticle is found formed underneath. The fingers and toes are not affected with the patches, &c. in venercal cases.

5 Psoriasis labialis. The psoriasis somefurrows are deep, and cleft at the bottom the course of a few hours it becomes dry, longitudinally, in various places, so as to shrivelled, and broken; and, while it exfoliates, gives way to another layer of ten- with the disease has slept. They fall off der cutiele, which soon, in like manner, in the same proportion by day, and being perishes. These appearances should be distinguished from the light chaps and roughness of the lips produced by very cold or frosty weather, but easily removed. The psoriasis labialis may be a little aggravated by frost or sharp winds, vet it receives no material alleviation from an opposite temperature. It is not, indeed, confined within any certain limit, or period of duration, having, in several instances, been protracted through all the seasons. The under lip is always more affected than the upper; and the disease takes place more especially in those persons whose lips are full and prominent.

6. Psoriasis scrotalis. The skin of the scrotum may be affected in the psoriasis diffusa like other parts of the surface of the body; but sometimes a roughness and scaliness of the serotum appears as an independent complaint, attended with much heat, itching, tension, and redness. The above symptoms are succeeded by a hard, thickened, brittle texture of the skin, and by painful chaps or excoriations, which are not easy to be healed. This complaint is sometimes produced under the same circumstances as the prurigo scroti, and appears to be in some eases a sequel of it. A species of the psoriasis scrotalis likewise occurs in the lues venerea, but merits no particular attention, being always combined with other secondary symptoms of the disease.

7. Psoriasis infantilis. Infants between the ages of two months and two years, are oceasionally subject to the dry tetter. Ir- λεω, to wash.) A cold bath. regular, scaly patches, of various sizes, appear on the cheeks, chin, breast, back, nates, and thighs. They are sometimes red, and a little rough, or elevated; sometimes excoriated, then again covered with a thin incrustation; and lastly intersected by chaps or fissures. The general appearances nearly coincide with those of the psoriasis diffusa; but there are several peculiarities in the tetters of infants which

require a distinct consideration. 8. The Psoriasis inveterata, is characterised by an almost universal sealiness, the skin. It commences from a few ir- dentatis, recurvatis; capitulis aphyllis, have extremities. Others appear afterwards on markable smeil. The decoetion of the different parts, and, becoming confluent, seeds is recommended in hoarseness and spread at length over all the surface of the asperity of the fauces. body, except a part of the face, or sometimes the palms of the hands, and soles of so called because it irritates the nose, and the feet. The skin is red, deeply fur-rowed or wrinkled, stiff and rigid, so as Pyrethrum sylvestre. Draco sylvestris. somewhat to impede the motion of the Tarchon sylvestris. Sternutamentoria. Dra-muscles, and of the joints. So quick, cunculus pratensis. Sneeze-wort. Bastard of scales, that large quantities of them are foliis lanceolatis, acuminatis, argute serra-

confined within the linen, excite a trouble. some and perpetual i ching.

Psorica. (From Juga, the itch.) Mc.

dicines to eure the itch.

PS OROPHTHALMIA. (From Jugo, a seab, and οφθαλμος, an eye.) An inflammation of the eye-lids, attended with uleerations, which itch very much. By psorophthalmy Mr. Ware means a case, in which the inflammation of the eye-lids is attended with an ulceration of their edges, upon which a glutinous matter lodges, incrusts, and becomes hard, so that in sleep, when they have been long in contact, they become so adherent, that they cannot be separated without pain. The proximate eause is an acrimony deposited in the glands of the richds. The species of the psorophthalmia are:

1. Psorophthalmia crustosa, which forms dry or humid crusts in the margins of the

eyelids.

2. Psorophthalmia herpetica, in which small papulæ, itching extremely, and terminating in seurf, are observed.

Psychacogica. (From ψυχη, the mind, and αγω, to move.) Medicines which re-

cover in syncope or apoplexy.

PSYCHOTRIA EMETICA. (From JUXOS, cold, and Tgsque, to nourish, because it grows in cold places.) See Ipecacuanha.

PSYCHOTROPHUM. (From Juxos, cold, and τεεφω, to nourish; so called because it grows in places exposed to the cold.) The herb betony.

PSYCHROLUTRUM. (From \uxue, cold, and

Psycurica. (From ψυχω, to refrige-

rate.) Refrigerating medicines.
PSYDRACIÆ. (From ψυχος, cold.)
Red and somewhat elevated spots, which soon form broad and superficial vesicles, such as those produced by the stingingnettle, the bites of insects, &e. See Pus-

PSYLLIUM. (From JUNNOS, a flea; so called because it was thought to destroy fleas.) Pulicaris herba. Crystallion and cynomoia of Oribasius. Flea-wort seeds of this plant, Plantago psyllium of with a harsh, dry, and thickened state of Linnaus :- caule ramoso herbaceo, foliis subregular, though distinct patches on the a nauseous mucillaginous taste, and no re-

PTARMICA. (From Traigo, to sneeze; likewise, is the production and separation pellitory. Achillea ptarmica of Linnaus:found in the bed on which a person affected tis. The flowers and roots of this plant have a hot biting taste, approaching to that of pyrethrum, with which they also agree in their pharmaceutical properties. Their principal use is as a masticatory and sternutatory.

Sternutatory.

PTERIS. The name of a genus of plants in the Lannaan system. Class, Cryptoga-

mia. Order, Filices.

PTERIS AQUILINA. (From arrepore, wing; so called from the bleeness of its leaves to wings, and aquilina, from aquila, an eagle, from its resemblance to an eagle's wings.) The systematic name of the common brake, or female fern. See Felix famina.

PTEROCARPUS The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system.

PTEROCARPUS SANTALINUS. The systematic name of the red jaunder's tree. See Santalum rnbrum.

PTERYGIUM. (PTepug, a wing.) A membranous excrescence which grows upon the internal canthus of the eye chiefly, and expands itself over the albuquies and cornea towards the pupil. It appears to be an extension or prolongation of the fibres and vessels of the caruncula lachrymalis, or semilunar membrane, appearing like a wing. The species of pterygium are four:

1. Pterggium tenne, seu ungula, is a pellucid pellicle, thin, of a cinerition colour, and unpainful; growing out from the caruncula larrymalis, or membrana se-

mulunaris.

2. Ptergium crassum, seu pannus, differs from the ungula, by its thickness, red colour, and filmess of the red vessels on the white of the eye, and it stretches over the cornea like fasciculi of vessels.

S. Pterygium maliguum, is a pannes of various colours, panuful, various, and ari-

sing from a cancerous acrimony.

4. Pterygium pingne, seu pinguicula, is a mollicle like lard or fat, soft, without pain, and of a light yellow colour, which commonly is situated in the external angle of the eye, and rarely extends to the cornea; but often remains through life.

PTERYGO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are connected with the pterygoid process of the sphænoid bone; as pterygo-pharyngeus, &c.

Pterygo-pharyngeus. See Constrictor pharyngus superior.

Pterygo-staphilinus externus. Sec Leva-

tor palati.

PTERVGOID PROCESS. (Pterygoides, from Alegos, a wing, and alos, resemblance.) A wing-like process of the sphænoid bone.

PTERYGOIDEUN OS, See Æthmoid bone. raise the PTERYGOIDEUS EXTERNUS. (Pterygoideus, from its belonging to the processus pterygoides.) Pterygoideus minor of internus. Winslow. Prepygo-colli-maxillaire of Dumas. A muscle placed, as it were, horiexternus.

zontally along the basis of the scull, between the pterygoid process and the condyle of the lower jaw. It usually arises by two distinct heads; one of which is thick, tendinous, and fleshy, from the outer wing of the pterygoid process of the os sphenoides, and from a small part of the os maxillare adjoining to it; the other is thin and fleshy, from a ridge in the tem-poral process of the sphenoid bone, just behind the slit that transmits the vessels to the eye. Sometimes this latter origin is wanting, and, in that case, part of the temporal muscle arises from this ridge. Now and then it affords a common origin to both these muscles. From these origins the muscle forms a strong fleshy belly, which descends almost transversely outwards and backwards, and is inserted tendinous and fleshy into a depression in the fore part of the conduloid process of the lower jaw, and into the anterior surface of the capsular ligament that surrounds the articulation of that bone. that part of this muscle, which is not hid by the pterygoideus internus, is covered by a ligamentous expansion, which is broader than that belonging to the pterygoideus internus, and originates from the inner edge of the glenoid cavity of the lower jaw, immediately before the styloid process of the temporal bone, and extends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, to the inner surface of the angle of the jaw. When these muscles act together, they bring the jaw horizontally forwards. When they act singly, the jaw is moved forwards, and to the opposite side. The fibres that are inserted into the capsular ligament, serve likewise to bring the moveable cartilage forwards. PTERYGOIDEUS INTERNUS.

rygoidens major of Winslow. Pterygo-anguli-maxillaire of Dumas. This muscle arises tendinous and fleshy from the whole inner surface of the external ala of the pterygoid process, filling all the space bctween the two wings; and from that process of the os palati that makes part of the pterygoid fossa. From thence growing larger, it descends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, and is inserted, by tendinous and fleshy fibres, into the inside of the lower jaw, near its angle. This muscle covers a great part of the pterygoideus externus; and along its posterior edge we observe a ligamentous band, which extends from the back part of the styloid process to the bottom of the angle of the lower jaw. The use of this muscle is to raise the lower jaw, and to pull it a little to one side.

PTERYGOIDEUS MAJOR. See Pterygoideus

PTERREGIDEUS MINOR. See Pterygoldeus

PTILOSIS. (From MILAOS, bald.) See Ma-

PTISANA. (From πτισσω, to decorticate, bruise or pound.) Ptissane. Barley deprived of its husks, pounded and made into balls.

PTOSIS. (From minlo, to fall.) Bletharoptosis. An inability of raising the upper, handful. eve-lid. The affection may be owing to several causes, the chief of which are a redundance of the skin on the eye-lid; a paralytic state of the levator muscle, and a spasm of the orbicularis.

PTOSIS IRIDIS. Prolapsus iridis. prolapsus of the iris through a wound of the cornea. It is known by a blackish tubercle, which prominates a little from the cornea in various forms. The species

of the ptosis of the iris are.

1. Ptosis recens, or a recent ptosis from a side wound of the cornea, as that which happens, though rarely, in or after the extraction of the cataract.

2. Ptosis inveturata, in which the incarcerated prolapsed iris is grown or attached to the wound or ulcer, and by the air has

become caltous or indurated.

PTYALAGOGA. (From Tluaxov, spittle, and ayw, to excite.) Ptyasmagoga. Medicines which promote a discharge of the saliva, or cause salivation.

PTYALISMOS. See Ptyclismus.

PTYALISMUS. (From πλυαλιζω, to spit.) A ptyalism or salivation, or increased secretion of saliva from the mouth.

PTYALUM. (From πλνω, to spit up.) The

saliva or mucus from the bronchia.

PTYASMAGOGA. (From movasma, sputum, and aya, to expel.) See Ptyalagoga.

PUBES. The external part of the organs of generation of both sexes, which are covered with hair.

PUBIS OS. A bone of the fætal pelvis. See Innominatum os.

PUDENDA. (From pudor, shame.) The

parts of generation.

PUDENDAGRA. (From pudenda, the private parts, and ayea, a seizure.) Cedma. A pain in the private parts. By some it is called the venereal disease. Others de- maculosum. Spotted lung-wort. fine it to be pain or uneasmess in the genital parts of men or women, somewhat resembling a diarrhoa, but without a dysuria. Dr. Berdoe asserts, in his Essay on the Pudendagra, that it is distinct from the venereal disease, and also, that it is proper to women, but that a woman labouring under it, can communicate some used, have no peculiar smell; but, in inflammatory symptoms to the penis of a their recent state, manifest a slightly adman who cohabits with her.

PUDENDUM MULIEBRE.

male parts of generation.

PUDICAL ARTERY. vel pudenda. Pudendal artery. A branch recommended in hemoptoes, trickling of the internal iliac distributed on the or- coughs, and catarrhal defluxions upon the gans of generation.

PUERILIS MORBUS. The epilepsy. PUERPERAL FEVER. Child-bed fe-

ver. Cullen considers this disease as a species of continued fever.

Puffball. See Lycoperdon.

PUGILLUS. (From pugnus, the fist.) Dragmis. A pugil. The eighth part of a

PULEGIUM. (From pulex, a flea; because the smell of its leaves, burnt, destroys fleas.) Pulegium regale. Pulegium latifolium glechon. Podding-grass. Com-mon pennyroyal. Mentha pulegium of Linnæus :- floribus verticillatis, foliis ovatis obtusis subcrenatis, caulibus subteretibus repentibus. This plant is considered as a carminative, stomachic, and emmenagogue; and is in very common use in hysterical disorders. The officinal preparations of pennyroyal are, a simple water, a spirit, and an essential oil.

Pulegium cervinum. Hart's pennyroyal. Mentha cervina of Linnæus. This plant possesses the virtues of pennyroyal in a very great degree; but is remarkably unpleasant. It is seldom employed but by the country people, who substitute it for

pennyroval.

PULICARIA. (From pulex, a flea; so named because it was thought to destroy fleas if hung in a chamber ) See Psyllium. PULMO. (Plin. πνευμών. Attice πλευ-

μων, unde per metathesin pulmo.) Lung.

See Lung.

PULMONARIA. (From pulme, the lungs; so called because of its virtues in affections of the lungs.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Order, Monogynia. Class, Pentandria. Lungwort.

PULMONARIA ARBOREA. Musus pulmona. rius quertinus. This subastringent, and rather acid plant, Lichen pulmonarius of Linnæus, was once in high estimation in the cure of diseases of the lungs, especially coughs, asthmas, and catarrhs. its virtues are similar, and in no way inferior to those of the lichen islandicus.

Symphytum PULMONARIA MACULATA. lem cowslips. Jerusalem sage. naria officinalis of Linnæus. This plant is rarely found to grow wild in England: but is very commonly cultivated in gardens, where its leaves become broader, and approach more to a cordate shape. The leaves, which are the part medicinally stringent and mucilaginous taste; hence The fe- it seems not wholly without foundation that they have been supposed to be de-Arteria pudica mulcent and pectoral. They have been lungs. The name pulmonaria, however, seems to have arisen rather from the not be too strongly recommended, and for speckled appearance of these leaves, re- this purpose it may be proper to pass them, sembling that of the lungs, than from any after they are mixed mechanically, though intrinsic quality which experience disco- a fine sieve. vered to be useful in pulmonary complaints.

Pulmonaria maculata.

Pulmonary consumption. See Phthisis. PULMONARY VESSELS. The pulmonary artery, ateria pulmonalis, arises from the right ventricle of the heart, and soon divides into the right and left, which ramify throughout the lungs, and form a beautiful net-work on the air vesicles, where they terminate in the veins, venæ fulmonales, whose branches at length form four trunks, which empty themselves into the left auricle of the heart

PULMONIA. (From pulmo, the lungs.)

An inflammation of the lungs.

PULMONICA. (From pulmo, the lungs.)

Medicines for the lungs.

Pulsatilla Nigricans. (From pulso, to beat abou; so called from its being perpetually agitated by the air.) This plant, Anemone pratensis of Linnaus:pedunculo involucrato, petalis apice reflexis, foliis bipinnatis, has been received into the Edmborgh Pharmacopæia upon the authority of Baron Stoerck, who recommended it as an effectual remedy for most of the chronic diseases affecting the eye, particularly amanrosis, cataract, and opacity of the cornea, proceeding from vagreat service in venereal nodes, nocturnal pains, ulcers, caries, indurated glands, suppressed menses, serpiginous eruptions, melancholy, and palsy. The plant, in its recent state, has scarcely any smell; but its taste is extremely acrid, and, when chewed, it corrodes the tongue and

Pulsus. The beating of the PULSE. artery at the wrist is termed the pulse. It depends upon, and is synchronous with, that of the heart: hence physicians feel the pulse, to ascertain the quickness or tardiness of the blood's motion, the strength

of the heart, &c. Pulsilegium. (From pulsus, the pulse, and lego, to tell.) An instrument for

measuring the pulse.

PULVINAR. (From pulvis, dust or chaff, with which they are filled.) A medicated cushion.

PULVINARIUM. See Pulvinar.

PULVIS. A powder. Pulvinarium. This form of medicine is either coarse or very fine, simple or compound. In the compounded powders the intimate and complete admixture of the several ingredients, and more especially of those to which any of the more active substances, as opium, scammony, &c. are added, can-

l'ulvis aloes compositus. Compound powder of aloe. Formerly called pulvis PULMONARIA OFFICINALIS. The syste- aloes cum guaico. Pilulæ aromaticæ, pilulæ matic name of the spotted lung-wort. See de diambre. "Take of extract of spiked aloe, an ounce and half; guaiacum gum resin, an ounce; compound powder of cinnamon, haif an ounce." Powder the extract of aloe and guaincum gum resin separately: then mix them with the compound powder of cinnamon. The dose is from gr. x. to Dj. It is a warm aperient, laxative powder, calculated for the aged, and those affected with dyspeptic gout, attended with costiveness and spasmodic complaints of the stomach and bowels.

> Pulvis aloes cim canella. A cathartic, deobstruent powder, possessing stimulating and aloctic properties omitted in the last London Pharmacopæia, as rather suited to the purpose of extemporaneous prescription.

> PULVIS ALOES CUM FERRO. This possesses aperient and deobstruent virtues; and is mostly given in chlorosis and constipation. In the London Pharmacopæia this prescription is omitted for the same reason as pulvis aloes cum canella.

PULVIS ALOES CUM GUALACO. See Pulvis

aloes compositus.

PULVIS ANTIMONIALIS. Antimonial powder. "Take of sulphuret of antimony, powdered, a pound; hartshorn shavings, two pounds." Mix and throw them into a broad iron pot heated to a white heat, and stir the mixture constantly until it acquires an ash colour. Having taken it out, reduce it to powder, and put it into a coated crucible, upon which another inverted crucible, having a small hole in its bottom, is to be luted. Then raise the fire by degrees to a white heat, and keep it so for two hours. Reduce the residuary mass to a very fine powder. The dose is from five to ten grains. It is in high esteem as a febrifuge, sudorific, and antispasmodic. The diseases in which it is mostly exhibited are, most species of asthenic and exanthematous fevers, acute rheumatism, gout, diseases arising from obstructed perspiration, dysuria, nervous affections, spasms.

This preparation was introduced into the former London Pharmacopæia as a substitute for a medicine of extensive celebrity, Dr. James's powder; to which, however, the present form more nearly assimilates in its dose, and it is more manageable in its administration by the reduction of the proportion of antimony to one half.

PULVIS AROMATICUS. See Pulvis cimos momi compositue.

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PULVIS CERUSSE COMPOSITUS. This is other diseases arising from obstructed permostly used in the form of collyrium, lo- spiration and spasm. The dose is from tion, or injection, as a mucilaginous seda- five grains to a scruple.

An antacid and adstringent powder, most-drachms; cinnamon bark, half an ounce;

acidity of the primæ viæ.

PULVIS CINNAMOMI COMPOSITUS.. Compound powder of cinnamon. Formerly called pulvis aromaticus: species aromatica: species diambræ sine odoratis. " Take of scruple. cinnamon bark, two ounces; cardamomseeds, an ounce and half; ginger-root, an mulant, antispasmodic, and emmenagogue ounce; long pepper, half an ounce." Rub powder, mostly exhibited in the dose of them together, so as to make a very fine from fifteen grains to two scruples, in powder. The dose is from five to ten uterine obstructions and hysterical affecgrains. An elegant stimulant, carmina- tions. tive, and stomachic powder.

PULVIS CONTRAYERVÆ COMPOSITUS. "Take of contrayerva root, powdered, five ounces; prepared shells, a pound and half." Mix. A febrifuge diaphoretic, mostly given in the dose of from one to two scruples

in slight febrile affections.

Pulvis cornu usti cum opio. Powder of burnt hartshorn with opium. Pulvis opiatus. "Take of hard opium, powdered, a drachm; hartshorn, burnt and prepared, an ounce; cochineal, powdered, a drachm." Mix. This preparation affords a convenient mode of exhibiting small quantities of opium, ten grains containing one of the opium. It is absorbent and anodyne.

PULVIS CRETE COMPOSITUS. Compound powder of chalk. Pulvis e bolo compositus sine opio. Species e scordio sine opio. Diascordium, 1720. "Take of prepared chalk, half a pound; cinnamon bark, four ounces; tormentill root, acacia gum, of each three ounces; long pepper, half an ounce." Reduce them separately into a very fine powder, and then mix. The dose is from 5ss. to 3i. An adstringent, carminative, and stomachic powder, exhibited in the cure of diarrhoa, pyrosis, and diseases arising from acidity of the bowels, inducing much pain.

PULVIS CRETÆ COMPOSITUS CUM OPIO. Compound powder of chalk with opium. Pulvis e bolo compositus cum opio. Species e scordio cum opio. "Take of compound powder of chalk, six ounces and a half. Hard opium, powdered, four scruples." Mix. The dose from one scruple to two. The above powder, with the addition of opium, in the proportion of one grain to

two scruples.

PULVIS IPECACUANHÆ COMPOSITUS. Compound powder of ipecacuanhæ. "Take of ipecacuanha root, powdered, hard punctum, a point.) Lachrymal points. Two opium, powdered, of each a drachm; sul- small orifices, one of which is conspicuphate of potash, powdered, an ounce." ous in each eyelid, at the extremity of the Mix. A diaphoretic powder, similar to tarsus, near the internal canthus. that of Dr. Dover, which gained such PUNCTUM AUREUM. Formerly, when a repute in the cure of rheumatisms, and hernia of the intestines was reduced by

PULVIS KINO COMPOSITUS. PULVIS CHELARUM CANCRI COMPOSITUS. powder of kino. "Take of kino, 15 ly given to children with diarrhea and hard opium, a drachm." Reduce them separately to a very fine powder; and then mix. The proportion of opium this adstringent contains is one part to twenty. The dose is from five grains to a

PULVIS MYRRHÆ COMPOSITUS.

PULVIS OPIATUS. See Pulvis cornu cum

PULVIS SCAMMONIÆ COMPOSITUS. Compound powder of scammony. Pulvis comiti Warwicensis. " Take of scammony gum resin, hard extract of jalap, of each two ounces; ginger-root, half an ounce." Reduce them separately to a very fine pow-der, and then mix. From ten to fifteen grains or a scruple are exhibited as a stimulating cathartic.

PULVIS SCAMMONII CUM ALOE. A stimulating cathartic, in the dose of from ten to

fifteen grains.

PULVIS SCAMMONII CUM CALOMELANE. A vermifugal cathartic, in the dose of from

ten to fifteen grains.

PULVIS SENNÆ COMPOSITUS. Compound powder of senna. Pulvis diasenna. "Take of senna leaves, supertartrate of potash, of each two ounces; scammony gum resin, half an ounce; ginger root, two drachms." Reduce the scammony gum resin separately, the rest together, to a very fine powder; and then mix. The dose is from one scruple to one drachm. A saline stimulating cathartic.

PULVIS TRAGACANTHÆ COMPOSITUS. Compound powder of tragacanth. Species diatragacantha frigida. "Take of tragacanth, powdered, acacia gum, powdered, starch, of each an ounce and half; refined sugar, three ounces." Powder the starch and sugar together; then add the tragacanth and acacia gum, and mix the whole. Tragacanth is very difficultly reduced to powder. The dose is from ten grains to a drachm. A very useful demulcent powder, which may be given in coughs, diarrhœas, stranguary, &c.

Pumpion, common. See Cucurbita.

PUNCTA LACHRYMALIA.

an incision made through the skin and falls to the bottom; yet, if kept in a conmembrana adiposa, quite down to the up-siderable degree of heat, rises and diffuses per part of the spermatic vessels, a golden through the water, and remains mixed with wire was fixed and twisted, so as to pre- it, even after having been allowed to cool, vent the descent of any thing down the the globules being discomposed. tunica vaginalis.

of the pomegranate. See Granatum.

PUPIL. (Pupilla, from pupa, a babe; because it reflects the diminished image

wards seen.

PURGAMENTUM. A purge.

Catocharthica. cines.

Purging flax. See Linum catharticum. Purging-nut. See Ricinus major.

PURPURA ALBA. Purpura rubra. Many writers term the miliary fever, when the pustules are white, purpura alba, and when they are red, purpura rubra.

PURPURA SCORBUTICA. Petechcal crup-

tions in scurvy.

Purslane. See Portulaca.

PUS. Matter. A whitish, bland, creamlike fluid, heavier than water, found in phlegmonous abscesses, or on the surface of sores. It is distinguished, according to its nature, into laudable or good pus, scrophulous, serous, and ichorous pus,

Pus taken from an healthy ulcer, near the source of circulation, as on the arm or breast, Mr. Home observes, readily separates from the surface of the sore, the granulations underneath being small, pointed, and of a florid red colour, and definition of that fluid. has the following properties: it is nearly of the consistence of cream; is of a health to form good pus; for very slight has a peculiar smell. Examined in a mi. of preventing its being formed at all, eroscope, it is found to consist of two and substituting in its place coagulating parts, of globules, and a transparent co-lymph. lourless fluid; the globules are probably white, at least they appear to have some the lower extremities, owing to the disdegree of opacity. Its specific gravity is tance of the parts from the source of the greater than that of water. It does not circulation, rendering them weaker. And readily go into puttefaction. Exposed to it is curious to observe the influence that heat, it evaporates to dryness; but does distance alone has upon the appearance of not coagulate. It does not unite with pus. water in the heat of the atmosphere, but

Pus varies in its appearance, according PUNICA. The name of a genus of plants to the different circumstances which affect in the Linnman system. Class, Icosandria. the ulcer that forms it; such as, the de-Order, Monogynia. gree of violence of the inflammation, also Punica GHANATUM. The systematic name its nature, whether healthy or unhealthy; the pomegranate. See Granatum. and strength of the parts yielding pus. These changes arise more from indolence of the person who looks upon it like a and irritability, than from any absolute puppet.) The round opening in the mid- disease; many specific diseases, in healthy dle of the iris, in which we see ourselves in the eye of another.

PUPILLA. See Pupil

PUPILLARIS MEMBRANA. (From gonorrhæa, from the small-pox pustules, pupilla, the pupil.) Pupille velum. A fine the chicken pock, and from an healthy vascular membrane, which in the focus of ulcer, has the same appearance, and seems 5, 6, or 7 months has no pupil, grows to be made up of similar parts, consisting across the part where the pupil is after- of globules floating in a transparent fluid, like common pus; the specific properties of each of these poisons being superadded PURGATIVA. Purgentia. Cathartica. to those of pus. Matter from a cancer Catoretica. Catoteretica. may be considered as an exception; but Dejectoria. Alviduca. Purgative medi. a cancerous ulcer is never in a healthy

In indolent ulcers, whether the indolence arises from the nature of the parts, or the nature of the inflammation, the pus is made of globules and flaky particles, floating in a transparent fluid; and globules and flakes are in different proportions, according to the degree of indolence: this is particularly observable in scrophulous abscesses, preceded by a small degree of inflammation. That this flaky appearance is no part of true pus, is well illustrated by observing, that the proportion it bears to the globules is greatest where there is the least inflammation; and in those abscesses that sometimes occur, which have not been preceded by any inflammation at all, the contents are wholly made up of a curdy or flaky substance, of different degrees of consistence, which is not considered to be pus, from its not having the properties stated in the

The constitution and part must be in white colour; has a mawkish taste; and, changes in the general health are capable when cold, is inodorous; but, when warm, of producing an alteration in it, and even

This happens most readily in ulcers in

Pus differs from chyle in its globules,

being larger, not coagulating by exposure a slight elevation of the cuticle, and terto the air, nor by heat, which those of minating in a laminated scab chyle do.

The pancreatic juice contains globules, but they are much smaller than those of

Milk is composed of globules, nearly of the same size as those of pus, but much more numerous. Milk coagulates by runnet, which pus does not; and contains oil and sugar, which are not to be discovered

The cases in which pus is formed are, properly speaking, all reducible to one, which is, the state of parts consequent to inflammation. For, as far as we yet know, observes Mr. Home, pus has in no instance been met with unless preceded by inflammation; and although, in some cases a fluid has been formed independent of ed us, that in his time the green rind of preceding inflammation, it differs from pus in many of its properties.

formation of pus, it is necessary to take notice of the periods which are found, un- green and dried state; it has been greatly der different circumstances, to intervene recommended by writers on the continent, between a healthy or natural state of the as well as by those of our own country; parts, and the presence of that fluid after and is, without doubt, a very useful addi-

to the skin.

parts, where blood-vessels are divided, the limbs and indurations of the membranes first process which takes place is the ex- have remained, after the venereal disease travasation of red blood; the second is the has been cured by mercury; and he inexudation of coagulating lymph, which af- forms us, that he has seldom directed it terwards becomes vascular; and the third, without manifest advantage. the formation of matter, which last does not, in common, take place in less than for the antivenereal virtues of the green two days; the precise time will, however, vary exceedingly, according to the nature of the constitution, and the state of the parts at the time.

If an irritating substance is applied to a cuticular surface, upon which it raises a blister, pus will be formed in about twen-

ty four hours.

PUSTULA. (Dim. of pus, matter.) See

Pustule.

PUSTULE. (Pustula, a little pimple, from pus, corruption.) Ecthyma, Ecze ma. Dr. Willan defines a pustle to be an elevation of the cuticle, sometimes globate sometimes conoidal in its form, and containing pus, or a lymph which is in general discoloured. Pustules are various in their size, but the diameter of the largest seldom exceeds two lines. There are many different kinds of pustules, properly distinguished in medical authors, by specific lowed the taking of the decoction, as when appellations, as 1. Phlyzacium, a small pus- it contained this incredient. tule containing pus, and raised on a hard, circular, inflamed base, of a vivid red Putrefactive fermentation. That process colour. It is succeeded by a thick, hard, by which a substance is decomposed and disdark-coloured scab, cording to Dr. Willan, a, minute pustule, Every living body, when deprived of life, irregularly circumscribed, producing but performs aretrograde process, and becomes

these pustules usually appear together, and become confluent. When mature they contain pus; and, after breaking, discharge a thin watery humour.

PUSTULA ORIS. The aphthæ.

PUTAMEN. (From puto, to cut.) The bark or paring of any vegetable. The putamen, or green rind of the walnut, has been celebrated as a powerful antivenereal remedy, for more than a century and a half; and Petrus Borellus has given directions for a decoction not unlike that which is commonly called the Lisbon dietdrink, in which the walnut, with its green bark, forms a principal ingredient. Ramazzini, whose works were published carly in the present century, has likewise informthe walnut was esteemed a good antivenereal remedy in England. This part of the In considering the time required for the walnut has been much used in decoctions, during the last fifty years, both in the the application of some irritating substance tion to the decoction of the woods. Pearson has employed it during many In cases of wounds made into muscular years, in those cases where pains in the

Brambilla and Girtanner also contend bark of the walnut; but the result of Mr. P.'s experience will not permit him to add his testimony to theirs. I have given it, says he, in as large doses as the stomach could retain, and for as long a time as the strength of the patients, and the nature of their complaints, would permit; but I have uniformly observed, that if they who take it be not previously cured of lucs venera, the peculiar symptoms will appear, and proceed in their usual course, in defigure of the powers of this medicine. The Decoctum Lusitanicum may be given with great advantage in many of those cutaneous diseases which are attended with aridity of the skin; and I have had some opportunities of observing, that when the putamen of the walnut has been omitted, either intentionally or by accident, the same good effects have not fol-

PUTREFACTION. Putrid fermentation. 2. Psydracium, ac- sipated in the air in the form of putrid gas. decomposed. This is called fermentation in vegetables, and putrefaction in animals. superioris aleque nasi. The same causes, the same agents, and the same circumstances, determine and favour the decomposition in vegetables and nel-like shape.) Applied to the process animals, and the difference of the pro- odontoid of the second vertebra. ducts which are obtained, arises from the difference of the constituent parts of each. There, to keep.) The requisites to this process are, 1. A nace. certain degree of humidity. 2. The access of atmospheric air. 3. A certain de- cause of the hot taste of its root ) Buph. gree of heat. See also Fermentation.

Putrid fever. A species of typhus. See

Typhus gravior.

PYLORIC ARTERY. Arteria pylorica.

A branch of the hepatic artery.

PYLORUS. (From πιλυω, to guard an entrance; because it guards, as it were, the entrance of the bowels.) Junitor. Ostiarius. aperture of the stomach, which opens into The ancient Romans, it is said, employed the intestines.

Propertica. (From muce, pus, and motto, to make.) Suppurative medicines.

PYORRHEA. (From muov, pus, and eew, to flow.) A purulent discharge from the

PYOTURIA. (From muov, pus, and seov, urine ) Pyuria. A mucous or purulent

PYRAMIDALIS. (Pyramidalis, sc. musculus; from nugapus, a pyramid.) Fallopius, who is considered as the first mica accurate describer of this muscle, first gave it the name of pyramidalis, from its wug, fire, or heat, and hopes, a discourse.) shape, hence it is called pyramidalis Fallopii A discourse, or doctrine on fevers by Douglas. But Vesalius seems to have been acquainted with it, and to have described it as a part of the rectus. It is first class of Cullen's nosology; characcalled pyramidalis vel succenturietus by terised by frequency of pulse after a cold Cowper. And pubio-ombilical by Dumas, shivering, with increase of heat, and espe-It is a very small muscle, situated at the cially, among other impaired functions, a bottom of the fore part of the rectus, and diminution of strength. is covered by the same aponeurosis that PYRIFORMIS. (From pyrus, a pear, forms the amerior part of the sheath of and forma, a shape, shaped like a pear.) that muscle. It arises, by short tendinous Pyriformis, seu iliacnus externus of Dougfibres, from the upper and fore part of the las and Cowper. Spigelius was the first pubis. From this origin, which is seldom who gave a name to this muscle, which he more than an inch in breadth, its fibres called pyriformis, from its supposed reascend somewhat obliquely, to be inserted semblance to a pear. It is the pyriformis into the linea alba, and inner edge of the sive pyramidalis of Winslow, and sacrorrectus, commonly at about the distance trochanterien of Dumas. A small radiated of two inches from the pubis, and frequently at a greater or less distance, but mus, along the inferior edge of the glutaus maximum that the public of the subject to always below the umbilious. In some sub- minimus It arises by three and sometimes jects the pyramidalis is wanting on one or four tendinous and fleshy origins, from the both sides, and when this happens, the anterior surface of the second, third, and greater thickness at its lower part. Now part of it is within the pelvis. From these and then, though rarely, there are two at origins the muscle grows narrower, and one side, and only one at the other, and passing out of the pelvis, below the niche him, have considered it as the congener serted by a roundish tendon of an inch in of the internal oblique; but its use seems length, into the upper part of the cavity to be to assist the lower part of the rec- at the root of the trochanter major. The AUS.

PYRAMIDALIS FACIEI. See Levator labii

Pyrenoides. (From wught, a kernel, and erfor, likeness; so called from its ker-

PYRETERIUM. (From wug, fire, and, The fire-hole of a fur-

PYRETHRUM. (From ove, fire, bethalmum creticum. Bellis montana putescens Herba salivaris. ucris Dentaria. alexandrinus. Pellitory of Spain. mis pyrethrum of Linnxus :- caulibus simplicibus unifloris decumbentibus, foliis pin-nato-multifidis. This root, though cultivated in this country, is generally imported from Spain. Its taste is hot and acrid, its The inferior acrimony residing in a resinous principle. the root of this plant as a pickle. In its recent state, it is not so pungent as when dried, and yet, if applied to the skin, it produces inflammation. Its qualities are stimulant; but it is never used, except as a masticatory, for relieving tooth-aches. rheumatic affections of the face, and paralysis of the tongue, in which it affords relief by stimulating the excretory ducts of the salival glands.

PYRETHRUM SYLVESTRE. See Ptars

PYRETOLOGY. (Pyretologia; from

PYREXIA. (From wvg, fire.) Fever. PYREXIÆ. Febrile diseases. T Febrile diseases.

internal oblique is usually found to be of fourth pieces of the os sacrum, so that this M Sabattier has even seen two on each in the posterior part of the ilium, from side. Fallopins, and many others after which it receives a few fleshy fibres, is inuse of this muscle is to assist in moving the

PYR PYX

thigh outwards, and moving it a little up-qualities, and has a somewhat bitter

PYRITES. (From ove, fire; so called because it strikes fire with steel.) A me- matic name of the wintergreen. See Pytallic substance, formed of iron united rola. with sulphur, from which all the sulphur of commerce is obtained.

mont, a village in the circle of Westphalia, is thought to be the acetic acid. in Germany. It is of an agreeable though in Germany. It is of an agreeable though strongly acidulated taste, and emits a large pergor, measure.) An instrument to meaportion of gas; which affects the persons sure those higher degrees of heat to which who attend at the well, as well as those the thermometer cannot be applied. See who drink the fluid, with a sensation somewhat resembling that produced by intoxication. A general view of the analy- mucosum. Syrupous acid. sis of this water will shew that it stands qour obtained by distillation from insipid, the first in rank of the highly carbonated saccharine, gummy, farinaceous mucilages. chalybeates, and contains such an abun- The celebrated Gren is of opinion, that dance of carbonic acid, as not only to hold it is a mixture of acetic with oxalic acid, dissolved a number of carbonic salts, but and does not deserve to be received in the to shew all the properties of this acid unsystem of chemistry as a peculiar acid. combined, and in its most active form. PYRO-TARTROUS ACID. Acid Pyrmont water is likewise a strong chaly- pyro-tartrosum. See Tartar, spirit of. beate, with regard to the proportion of PYROSIS. (From wugaw, to burn.) iron; and it is besides a very hard wa- Pyrosis Suecica of Sauvages. Cardialgia ter, containing much selenite and earthy sputatoria of Linnaus. A disease called carbonats. mineral water may be advantageously apblack-water. A genus of disease in the plied, are the same as those for which the class neuroses and order spasmi of Cullen; Spa, and others of the acidulated chaly- known by a burning pain in the stomach, beates, are resorted to, that is, in all cases attended with copious eructation, geneof debility that require an active tonic that rally of a watery insipid fluid. is not permanently heating; various disorders in the alimentary canal, especially TEXYN, an art.) Chemistry, or that art by bilious, vomiting, and diarrhoa, and com- which the properties of bodies are exaplaints that originate from obstructed men- mined by fire. struation. At Pyrmont, the company generally drink this water by glassfuls, in a Caustics. morning, to the quantity of two, three, or more English pints. Its common operation is by urine; but, if taken copiously, it generally proves laxative; and when it has prive exponent. The systematic nannot this effect, and that effect is wanted, of the quince tree. See Cydonium malum. they commonly mix, with the first glass drunk in the morning, from one to five or six drachms of some purging salt.

named because its leaves resemble those from the cavity of any sinuous ulcer. of the pear-tree.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class,

Mecandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacoposial name of the box-tree-round-leaved wantergreen. This elegant PYXIS little plant, Pyrola rotundifolia of Linnæ- from its resemblance, the cavity of the hip-us, is now forgotten in the practice of bone, or acetabulum, has been sometimes medicine. It possesses gently adstringent called os pyxidis.

taste.

PYHOLA ROTUNDIFOLIA. The

PYRO-LIGNEOUS ACID. pyro-lignosum. An acid liquor of a brown PYRITES ARSENICALES. See Arsenic. colour, of a pretty strong and peculiar PYRMONT WATER. Aqua pyrmonsemell, obtained by distillation from wood, tana. A celebrated mineral spring at Pyrese especially the beech, birch, and box. It

Caloric.

PYRO-MUCOUS ACID. Acidum pyro-The acid li-

The diseases to which this in Scotland the water-brash; in England,

PYROTECHNIA. (From wve, fire, and

PYROTICA. (From wveca, to burn.)

PYRUS. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Icosandria, Order, Pentagynia.

The systematic name

PYRUS MALUS. The systematic name of the apple-tree. See Apples.

Pruleum. (From wuev, pus, and exam, to PYROLA. (From pyrus, a pear; so draw.) An instrument to extract the pus

PYURIA. See Pyoturia.

PYXACANTHA. (From outer, a box, and anarθa, a thorn.) The barberry, or thorny

PYXIS. Hugis. Properly a box; but,

as much as you please.

Q. S. The contractions for quantum aufficit.

Q. V. An abbreviation of quantum vis, as much as you will.

QUADRATUS. See Depressor labii inferioris.

QUADRATUS FEMORIS. (Quadrafrom its supposed shape.) Tuber-ischio-trochanterien of Dumas. A muscle of the thigh, situated on the outside of the pelvis. It is a flat, thin, and fleshy muscle, but not of the shape its name would seem to opake, or irregularly figured vitrifiable indicate. It is situated immediately below the gemini. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the external surface and lower of Quassi, who first used it with uncomedge of the tuberosity of the ischium, and mon success as a secret remedy in the mais inserted by short tendinous fibres into a ridge which is seen extending from the basis of the trochanter major to that of genus of plants in the Linnaan system. the trochanter minor. Its use is to bring the os femoris outwards.

QUADRATUS GENÆ.

oides.

pressor labii inferioris.

QUADRATUS LUMBORUM. Quadratus, seu Lumbaris externus of Winslow. Ilio-lumbi-costal of Dumas. A muscle situated within the cavity of the abdomen. This America, particularly of Surinam, and also is a small, flat, and oblong muscle, that of some of the West-India islands. has gotten the name of quadratus from its The roots are perfectly ligneous; they shape, which is that of an irregular square, this structed laterally, at the lower part of light as the wood, which is now most genether spine. It arises tendinous and fleshy rally employed, and seems to differ from about two inches from the posterior. from about two inches from the posterior the bark in being less intensely bitter; the part of the spine of the ilium. From this latter is therefore thought to be a more broad origin it ascends obliquely inwards, and is inserted into the transverse processes sible odour; its taste is that of a pure bitof the four superior lumbar vertebræ, into ter, more intense and durable than that of the lower edge of the last rib, and, by a almost any other known substance; it imsmall tendon, that passes up under the parts its virtues more completely to watery diaphragm, into the side of the last verthan to spiritnous menstrua, and its infutebra of the back. When this muscle acts sions are not blackened by the addition of singly, it draws the loins to one side; when martial vitriol. The watery extract is from both muscles act they serve to support the a sixth to a ninth of the weight of the spine, and perhaps to bend it forwards. wood, the spirituous about a twenty-fourth. In laborious respiration, the quadratus Quassia, as before observed, derived its lumborum may assist in pulling down the name from a negro named Quassi, who ribs.

QUADRATUS MAXILLE INFERIORIS. Platuma myoides

quadratus.

bles the trappings of a four horse cart.

Febris quartana. QUARTANA. fourth-day ague. Of this species of ague, rally tried in Europe, and numerous tes-

Q. P. An abbreviation of quantum placet, as well as the other kinds, there are several varieties noticed by authors. The most frequent of these are, 1. The double quartan, with two paroxysms, or fits, on the first day, none on the second and third, and two again on the fourth day. 2. The double quartan, with a paroxysm on the first day, another on the second, but none on the third. 3. The triple quartan, with three paroxysms tus; from quadra, a square; so called every fourth day. 4. The triple quartan, with a slight paroxysm exery day, every fourth paroxysm being similar. See also Febris intermitteus.

QUARTZ. This name is given to the

stone.

QUASSIA. (From a slave of the name lignant endemic fevers which frequently prevailed at Surinam.) 1. The name of a Class Decandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the bit-See Plalisma my- ter quassia. The root, bark, and wood of this tree, Quassia amara of Linnxus:-QUADRATUS LABIT INFERIORIS. See De- floribus hermaphroditis, foliis impari-pinnatis, foliolis oppositis sessilibus, petiolo articulate alute, floribus racemosis, are all com-prehended in the catalogues of the Materia Medica. The tree is a native of South

powerful medicine. Quassia has no senemployed it with uncommon success as a See secret remedy in the malignant endemic fevers, which frequently prevailed at Suri-QUADRATES RADIT. See Pronator radii nam. In consequence of a valuable consideration, this secret was disclosed to QUADRIGA. (From quatuor, four, and Daniel Rolander, a Swede, who brought jugum, a yoke.) A bandage which resem- specimens of the quassia wood to Stock. holm, in the year 1756; and, since then, A the effects of this drug have been gene-

timonies of its efficacy published by many rally preferred, in the proportion of three respectable authors. Various experiments or four drachms of the wood to twelve with quassia have likewise been made, ounces of water. with a view to ascertain its antiseptic powers; from which it appears to have consi- of the bitter quassia-tree. See Quassia. derable influence in retarding the tendency to putrefaction; and this, Professor Mur- tic name of the Simarouba quassia. See ray thinks, cannot be attributed to its sen- Simarouba. sible qualities, as it possesses no adstringency whatever; nor can it depend upon QUATRIO. (From quatuor, four; so its bitterness, as gentian is much bitterer, called because it has four sides.) The yet less antiseptic. The medicinal virtues astragalus. ascribed to quassia are those of a tonic. stomachic, antiseptic, and febrifuge. It has been found very effectual in restoring the oak; so called because it has leaves digestion, expelling flatulences, and re- like the oak.) An antiquated name of the moving habitual costiveness, produced germander. See Chamedrys. from debility of the intestines, and com-mon to a sedentary life. Dr. Lettsom, because divinations were formerly given whose extensive practice gave him an op-from oaks by the Druds.) 1. The name portunity of trying the effects of quassia of a genus of plants in the Linnaan sysin a great number of cases, says, "In de- tem. Class, Monoecia. Order, Polyandria. bility, succeeding febrile diseases, the Pe- The oak. ruvian bark is most generally more tonic and salutary than any other vegetable hi- Quercus robur of Linnaus :- foliis oblongis therto known; but in hysterical atony, to glabris sinuatis, lobis rotundatis, glandibus which the female sex is so prone, the quas- oblongis. The oak. Balanos. This valusia affords more vigour and relief to the sys- able tree is indigenous to Britain. Its adtem than the other, especially when united stringent effects were sufficiently known with the vitriolum album, and still more to the ancients, but it is the bark which with the acid of some absorbent." In dys- is now directed for medicinal use by our pepsia, arising from hard drinking, and pharmacopaias. O.k-bark manifests to also in diarrhoas, the doctor exhibited the the taste a strong adstringency, accompaquassia with great success. But, with re- nied with a moderate bitterness. spect to the tonic and febrifuge qualities other adstringents, it has been recommendof quassia, he says, "I by no means ed in agues, and for restraining hamorsubscribe to the Linnæan opinion, where rhages, alvine fluxes, and other immodethe author declares, 'me quidem judice rate evacuations. A decoction of it has chinchinam longe superat." It is very likewise been advantageously employed as well known, that there are certain pecus a gargle, and as a fomentation or lotion in liarities of the air, and idiosyncrasies of procidentia recti et uteri. Galls, which, in constitution, unfavourable to the exhibition the warm climate of the East, are found of Peruvian bark, even in the most clear intermissions of fever; and writers have been advantageously employed as gargle, and as a fomentation or lotion in the warm climate of the East, are found upon the leaves of this tree, are occasioned by a small insect with four wings, called repeatedly noticed it. But this is comparatively expectations of the leaf by making the substance of the leaf by making ratively very rare. About Midsummer, in the substance of the leaf, by making 1785, Dr. L. met with several instances of a small perforation through the under surlow remittent and nervous fevers, wherein face. The ball presently begins to grow the bark uniformly aggravated the symp. to a considerable size. Two sorts of galls toms, though given in intermissions the are distinguished in the shops ; one said to most favourable to its success, and wherein be brought from Aleppo, the other from quassia, or snake-root, was successfully substituted. In such cases, he mostly observed, that there was great congestion in the hepatic system, and the debility at the same timediscouraged copious evacuations. Turkey and the southern parts of Europe. The former are generally of a blueish coserved, that there was great congestion in blueness; unequal and warty on the sursame timediscouraged copious evacuations. And in many fevers, without evident re- pact texture; the other of a light brownish missions to warrant the use of the bark, or whitish colour, smooth, round, easily whilst, at the time, increasing debility be-broken, less compact, and of a much gan to threaten the life of the patient, the larger size. The two sorts differ only in Doctor found that quassia, or snake root, size and strength, two of the blue galls singly or combined, upheld the vital powers, being supposed equivalent in this respect and promoted a critical intermission of to three of the others. Galls appear to be fever, by which an opportunity was offer- the most powerful of the vegetable ad-ed for the bark to effect a cure. It may stringents. As a medicine, they are to be be given in infusion, or in pills made from considered as applicable to the same in-

QUASSIA AMARA. The systematic name

QUASSIA SIMAROUBA. The systema-

QUASSY. See Quassia.

Queen of the meadow. See Ulmaria.

QUERCULA. (Quercula, dim. of quercus,

2. The pharmacopæial name of the oak. the watery extract; the former is gene- dications as the oak-bark, and by possess-

ing a greater degree of adstringent and much sweeter than chesnuts, and much styptic power, seem to have an advantage eaten by the Indians. They afford, by exover it, and to be better suited for external use. Reduced to fine powder, and monds.
made into an ointment, they have been QUERCUS HOBUR. The systematic name found of great service in hamorrhoidal of the oak-tree. See Quercus.

Quencus suber. The systematic name

QUERCUS CERRIS. The systematic name of the cork tree. See Suber. of the tree which affords the Turkey galls.

See Quercus.

QUERCUS ESCULUS. The systematic name of the Italian oak, whose acorns are, in times of scarcity, said to afford a meal of

which bread is made.

QUERCUS MAHINA. The sea oak. Sea wrack. This sea-weed is the Fucus vesiculosus of Linnaus :- fronde plana dichotoma costata integerrima, vesiculis axillaribus geminis, terminalibus tuberculatis. It is said to be a useful assistant to sea-water, in the cure of disorders of the glands. Burnt in and folium, a leaf; so called because it der, it forms the athiops vegetabilis, which, taphyllum. Cinquefoil or five leaved grass. as an internal medicine, is similar to burnt See Pentaphyllum. sponge.

QUERCES PHELLOS. The systematic name of the willow-leaved oak, whose acorns are

Quick grass. See Gramen caninum. Quick-lime. See Lime.

Quicksilver. See Hydrargyrus.

Quid PRO QUO. These words are applied the same as succedaneum, when one thing is made use of to supply the defect of another.

Quina Quina. The Peruvian bark. Quince. See Cydonium malum.

Quince, Bengal. See Bengal quince.

Quincy. See Cynanche.

QUINQUEFOLIUM. (From quinque, five, the open air, and reduced to a black pow- has five leaves on each foot-stalk.) Pen-

QUINQUINA. See Cinchona.

Quinsey. See Cynanche. QUOTIDIAN. See Febris intermittens.

## $\mathbf{R}$

beginning of a prescription as a contraction succeeds, with cough and difficulty of reof recipe, do thou take : thus, B. Magnes. 31, signifies, Take a drachm of magnesia. RABIES CANINA. (Rabies; from rabio, to be mad, and canis, a dog.) See Hydrophobia.

RACHIALGIA. (From gazis, the spine, and axque, pain.) A pain in the spine. It was formerly applied to several species of cholic which induced pain in the back.

RACIIITIS. (From gazis, the spine of the back; so called because it was supposed to originate in a fault of the spinal marrow.) Crytonosus The English disease. The rickets. A species of disease in the class cachexia, and order intumescentile of Cullen; known by a large head, prominent forehead, protruded sternum, flattened ribs, big belly, and emaciated limbs, with great debility. It is usually confined in its attack between the two periods of nine months and two years of age, seldom appearing sooner than the former, or shewing itself for the first time, after the latter period. The muscles become flaccid, the head enlarges, the carotids are distended, the limbs waste away, and their epiphyses increase in bulk. The bones and spine of the back are variously distorted; disinclination to muscular exertion follows; the abdomen swells and grows hard; the

R. on B. This letter is placed at the stools are frequent and loose; a slow fever spiration: atrophy is confirmed, and death ensues. Frequently it happens that nature restores the general health, and leaves the limbs distorted.

After death, the liver and the spleen have been found enlarged and scirrhous; the mesenteric glands indurated, and the lungs either charged with vomice, or adhering to the pleura; the bones soft, the brain flaccid, or oppressed with lymph, and the distended bowels loaded most frequently with slime, sometimes with worms.

It is remarkable, that in the kindred disease, which Hoffmann and Sauvage call the atrophy of infants, we have many of the same symptoms and the same appearances nearly after death. They who perish by this disease, says Hoffmann, have the mesenteric glands enlarged and scirrhous; the liver and spleen obstructed, and increased in size; the intestines are much inflated, and are loaded with black and fætid matters, and the muscles, more especially of the abdomen, waste away.

RACKASIRA BALSAMUM. See Balsamum rackasira.

Racosis. (From gance, a rag.) A ragged excoriation of the relaxed scrotum. RADIAL ARTERY. Arteria radialis.

down the side of the radius.

RADIALIS EXTERNUS BREVIOR. tensor carbi radialis brevior.

RADIALIS EXTERNUS LONGIOR. tensor carpi radialis longior.

RADIALIS EXTERNUS PRIMUS. tensor carpi radialis longior.

radialis.

radialis brevior.

RADICAL. That which is considered as constituting the distinguishing part of at about one-third of its length, from its an acid, by its union with the acidifying upper end, we observe a channel for vesprinciple, or oxygen, which is common to sels, slanting obliquely upwards. Towards all acids. Thus sulphur is the radical of its lower extremity, the radius becomes the sulphuric and sulphurous acids. It is broader, of an irregular shape, and somesometimes called the base of the acid; but what flattened, affording three surfaces, base is a term of more extensive applica- of which the posterior one is the smallest; tion.

common radish is sometimes so called. See three, answers to the anterior and external Raphanus hortensis

RADIUS. (A spoke, a staff, or beam; so called from its resemblance.) manubrium manus. Like the ulna, it is of of the wrist. Towards the anterior and est is formed into a small rounded head, a ligament is likewise stretched from it to os humeri. The round border of this head, with cartilage, and receives the rounded with the lesser sygmoid cavity of that bone. This little head of the radius is supported by a neck, at the bottom of ligament, which is attached to the two exwhich, laterally, is a considerable tuberosity, into the posterior half of which is surrounds the head of the radius. This inserted the posterior tendon of the biceps, ligament is narrowest, but thickest at its while the anterior half is covered with car middle part. But, besides this ligament, tilage, and surrounded with a capsular which connects the two bones of the foreligament, so as to allow this tendon to slide arm with each other, the ligaments which upon it as upon a pulley. Immediately be- secure the articulation of the radius with low this tuberosity, the body of the bone the os humeri, are common both to it and may be said to begin. We find it slightly to the nina, and therefore cannot well be curved throughout its whole length, by understood till both these bones are dewhich means a greater space is formed for scribed. These ligaments are a capsular the lodgment of muscles, and it is enabled and two lateral ligaments. The capsular to cross the ulna without compressing ligament is attached to the anterior and them. Of the three surfaces to be dis- posterior surfaces of the lower extremity tinguished on the body of the bone, the of the os humeri, to the upper edges and external and internal ones are the broadest sides of the cavities we remarked at the

A branch of the humeral artery, that runs rower and more convex. Of its angles, the external and internal ones are rounded; See Ex- but the posterior angle, which is jurned towards the ulna, is formed into a shirp See Ex- spine, which serves for the attachment of the interesseous ligament, of which men-See Ex- tion is made in the description of the ulna. nsor carpi radialis longior. This strong ligament, which is a little in-Radialis internus. See Flexor carpi terrupted above and below, serves not only to connect the bones of the fore-arm RADIALIS SECUNDUS. See Extensor carpi to each other, but likewise to afford a greater surface for the lodgment of mus. cles. On the fore part of the bone, and the second, which is a continuation of the RADICULA. (Dim. of radix, a root.) A little root; the fibrous part of a root. The the third, which is the broadest of the surface of the body of the bone. On this Radish, horse. See Raphanus rusticanus. last, we observe several sinuosities, co--Radish, garden. See Raphanus hortensis, vered with a thin layer of cartilage, upon which slide the tendons of several muscles This of the wrist and fingers. The lowest part bone has gotten its name from its supposed of the bone is formed into an oblong arresemblance to the spoke of a wheel, or to ticulating cavity, divided into two by a a weaver's beam; and sometimes, from its slight transverse rising. This cavity is supporting the hand, it has been called formed for an articulation with the bones a triangular figure, but it differs from that convex surface of the bone, this cavity is bone, in growing larger as it descends, so defended by a remarkable eminence, called that its smaller part answers to the larger the styloid process of the radius, which part of the ulna, and vice versa. Of its is covered with a cartilage that is extendtwo extremities, the uppermost and small- ed to the lower extremity of the ulna; furnished with cartilage, and hollowed at the wrist. Besides this large cavity, the its summit, for an articulation with the radius has another much smaller one, oplittle head at the side of the pulley of the posite its styloid process, which is lined next the ulna, is formed for an articulation surface of the ulna. The articulation of the radius with the lesser sygmoid cavity of the ulna, is strengthened by a circular tremities of that cavity, and from thence and flattest. The anterior surface is nar- bottom of the pulley and little head, and

likewise to some part of the condyles: from thence it is spread over the ulna, to dix. the edges of the greater sygmoid eavity so as to include in it the end of the oleeranon and of the coronoid process; and is likewise fixed round the neck of the radius, so as to include the head of that bone within it. The lateral ligaments may be A wooden spatula, or scraper. distinguished into external and internal, or, according to Winslow, into brachio-ra- leaves is said to have a surprising effect in dialis, and brachio cubitalis. They both removing pains of the joints, and to remove descend laterally from the lowest part of the sciatica, or hip gout, in two or three each condyle of the os humeri, and, from applications, when ever so violent. The their fibres spreading wide as they deroot is of an healing, adstringent nature, seend, have been compared to a goose's A decoction of it is good for wounds and foot. The internal ligament, or brachio bruises. See Jacobaa. on the two, is attached to the coronoid Ranalis vena. (From ramale, a dead process of the ulna. The external ligabough.) Applied to the vena porta, from ramale, a dead ment, or brachio radialis, terminates in its nunicrous ramifications, which resemble the eircular ligament of the radius. Both a bough stripped of its leaves. these ligaments adhere firmly to the eap- RAMEX. (From ramus, a branch; from sular ligament, and to the tendons of some it protruding forwards, like a bud.) A of the adjacent muscles. In considering rupture. the articulation of the fore-arm with the os humeri, we find that when both the frog. The flesh of this species of frog, bones are moved together upon the os hu- very common in France, is highly nutriley allows only of flexion and extension; whereas, when the palm of the have become rancid when, by keeping, hand is turned downwards, or uptured they acquire a strong offensive smell, and wards, or in other words, in pronation altered taste.

RANINE ARTERY. Arteria ranina. meri, the motion of the ulna upon the pul- tions and easily digested. and supination, we see the radius moving RANINE ARTERY. Arteria ranina. upon its axis, and in these motions its Sublingual artery. The second branch of head turns upon the little head of the os the external earotid. humeri at the side of the pulley, while its circular edge rolls in the lesser sygmoid called from its resemblance to a frog, or circular edge rolls in the lesser sygmoid ealled from its resemblance to a frog, or cavity of the ulna. At the lower end of the fore-arm the edge of the ulna is received into a superficial cavity at the side of the radius. This articulation, which is surrounded by a loose capsular ligament, concurs with the articulation above, in enabling the radius to turn with great facility upon its axis; and it is chiefly with the assistance of this bone that we are enabled to turn the palm of the liand upwards or downwards, the ulna having but a very inspect. The contents of them are variance of the surrounded by a loose capsular ligament, are of various sizes and degrees of consistence, seated on either side of the franum. Children, as well as adults, are sometimes to turn the palm of the liand upwards or downwards, the ulna having but a very inspect. The contents of them are variance of the ulna having but a very inspect. downwards, the ulna having but a very inspeech. The contents of them are various in speech. The contents of them are various; in some, they resemble the saliva, in

RADIX. A root.

RADIX ACORI. Galanga, or galangal. RADIX BENGALE. See Cassumuniar

BRASILIENSIS.

CALAGUALE. RADIX radix.

RADIX CALAGUELLE. See radix.

RADIX CASSUMUNIAR.

RADIX CHENLEN. See Chyrlen radix.

RADIX COLOMBO See Colomba. Rapix nucles. See Glycyrrhiza.

RADIX IKAN. See Ikan radix.

RADIX INDIANA. See Ipecacuanha.

radix.

RADIX MATALISTA. Se Matalista ra-

RADIX ROSEA. See Rhodiola. RADIX RUBRA. See Rubia.

RADIX TIMAC. See Timac. RADIX URSINA. See Menm.

RADULA. (From rado, to scrape off.)

RAGWORT. A poultice made of the fresh

RANA ESCULENTA. The French

RANULA. (From rana, a frog; so others, the glairy matter found in the cells of swelled joints. Sometimes, it is said that a fatty matter has been found in them; See Ipecacu- but from the nature and structure of the Calaguala happen; and, in by far the greatest number of cases, we find that the contents Calaguala resemble the saliva itself. This, indeed, might naturally be expected, f r the cause Cassumu. of these tumours is universally to be looked for in an obstruction of the salivary ducts. Obstructions here may arise from a cold, inflammation, violent fits of the toothache, attended with swelling in the inside of the mouth; and, in not a few eases, we find the duets obstructed by a stony mat-RADIX INDICA LOUIZIANA. See Lopez ter seemingly separated from the saliva, as the calculous matter is from the urine;

other contents of the tumour. As these ed to counteract this venomous acrimony tumours are not usually attended with of the ranunculus by means of various much pain, they are sometimes neglected, other vegetables, none of which was found till they burst of themselves, which they to answer the purpose, though he thought commonly do when arrived at the bulk of that the juice of sorrel, and that of una large nut. As they were produced ori- ripe currants, had some effect in this way; ginally from an obstruction in the salivary yet these were much less availing than duct, and this obstruction cannot be re- water; while vinegar, honey, sugar, wine, moved by the borsting of the tumour, it spirit, mineral acids, oil of tartar, p. d. thence happens that they leave an ulcer ex- and other sapid substances, manifestly rentremely difficult to heal, nay, which can-dered the acrimony more corrosive. It not be healed at all till the cause is re-may be also noticed, that the virulency of moved.

eisos, resemblance; so named from its resemblance to the rannuculus ) The Caltha palustris or marsh marygold

RANUNCULUS. (Dim. of rana, a frog; because it is found in fenny places, where frogs abour d.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Poly-

andria. Order, Polygynia.

The great acrimony of most of the species of ranunculus is such, that, on being applied to the skin, they excite itching, redness, and inflammation, and even produce blisters, tumefaction, and ulceration of the part. On being chewed, they corrode the tongue; and, if taken into the stomach, bring on all the deleterious effects of an acrid poison. The corrosive plant. acrimony which this family of plants possesses, was not unknown to the ancients, ed crow foot. The roots and leaves of this as appears from the writings of Dioscori- plant, Ranunculus bulbosus of Linnaus:des; but its nature and extent had never culycibus retroflexis, pedunculis sulcatis, caule been investigated by experiments, before those instituted by C. Krapf, at Vienna, by which we learn, that the most virulent of fiery taste. Taken internally, they apthe Linnaan species of ranunculus, are the pear to be deleterious, even when so far bulbosus, sceleratus, acris, arvensis, thora, and illyricus.

The effects of these were tried, either upon himself or upon dogs, and shew that manifesting itself either in the roots, pressed juice, extract, decoction, and infusion of the plants, were also subjected to experiments. In addition to these specics mentioned by Krapf, we may also notice the R. Fammula, and especially the R. Alpestris, which according to Haller, is the most acrid of this genus. Mr. Curtis observes, that even pulling up the ranunculus acris, the common meadow spe- sus. cies, which possesses the active principle of this tribe, in a very considerable degree, foot. The leaves of this species of crowthroughout the whole herb, and carrying foot, Ranunculus sceleratus of Linnaus, it to some little distance, excited a considerable inflammation in the palm of the hand in which it was held. It is necessary to remark, that the acrimonious quality of and acrimonious ulceration. these plants is not of a fixed nature; for it

but where inflammation has been the cause, and the plant, on being thoroughly dried, we always find matter mixed with the becomes perfectly bland. Krapf attemptmost of the plants of this genus, depends RANUNCULOIDES. (From ranunculus, and much upon the situation in which they grow, and is greatly diminished in the cultivated plant.

RANUNCULUS ABORTIVUS, The systematic name of a species of ranunculus, which posesses acrid and vesicating pro-

perties.

RANUNCULUS ACRIS. The systematic name of the meadow crow-foot. See Ranunculus pratensis.

RANUNCULUS ALBUS. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopæias is the Anemone nemerosa of Linnaus. The bruised leaves and flowers are said to cure tinea capitis applied to the part. The inhabitants of Kamschatka, it is believed, poison their arrows with the root of this

RANUNCULUS BULBOSUS. Bulbous rooterecto multifloro, foliis compositis, have no considerable smell, but a highly acrid and freed from the caustic matter by boiling in water, as to discover no ill quality to the palate. The effluvia, likewise, even when freely inspired, is said to occasion the acrimony of the different species is head aches, anxieties, vomitings, &c. The often confined to certain parts of the plant, leaves and roots, applied externally, inflame and ulcerate, or vesicate the parts, stalks, leaves, flowers, or buds; the ex- and are liable to affect also the adjacent parts to a considerable extent.

RANUNCULUS FICARIA. The systematic name of the pilewort. See Chelidonium minus.

RANUNCULUS FLAMMULA. The systematic name of the smaller water crow-foot, or spearwort. Its virtues and qualities are similar to those of the Ranunculus bulbo-

RANUNCULUS PALUSTRIS. Water croware so extremely acrid, that the beggars in Switzerland are said, by rubbing their legs with them, to produce a very fetid

RANUNCULUS PRATENSIS. Meadow crowmay be completely dissipated by heat; foot. Ranunculus acris of Linnaus. This, and some other species of ranunculus, cinally in the cure of calculous affections. have, for medical purposes, been chiefly employed externally as a vesicatory, and are said to have the advantage of a common blistering plaster, in producing a quicker effect, and never causing strangury; but, on the other hand, it has been observed, that the ranunculus is less certain in its operation, and that it sometimes occasions ulcers, which prove very troublesome and difficult to heal. Therefore their use seems to be applicable only to certain fixed pains, and such complaints as require a long continued topical stimulus or discharge from the part, in the way of an issue, which, in various cases, has been found to be a powerful remedy.

The systematus. The systematus.

matic name of the marsh crow-foot. See

Ranunculus palustris.

RAPA. Rapum. Rapus. Napus. Napus dulcis. The turnip. Brassica rapa of Lannæus. Turnips are accounted a salubrious food, demulcent, detergent, somewhat laxative and diuretic, but liable, in weak stomachs, to produce flatulencies, and prove difficult of digestion. The liquor pressed out of them, after boiling, is sometimes taken medicinally in coughs and disorders of the breast. The seeds are occasionally taken as diureties; they have no smell, but a mild acrid taste.

Rape. See Rapus.

RAPHANIA. (From raphanus, the radish, or sharlock; because the disease is said to be produced by eating the seeds of that plant.) Convulsio raphania, vel ab ustilagine. Eclampsia typhodes. Convulsio soloniensis. Necrosis ustilalaginea. Cripple disease. A genus of disease in the class nenroses, and order spasmi, of Cullen; characterised by a spasmodic contraction of the joints, with convulsive motions, and a most violent pain returning at various periods. It begins with cold chills and lassitude, pain in the head, anxiety about the pracordia. These symptoms are followed by spasmodic twichings in the ten-dons of the fingers and of the feet, dis-cernible to the eye, heat, fever, stupour, delirium, sense of suffocation, aphonia, and horrid convulsions of the limbs. After these, vomiting and diarrhoa come on, with a discharge of worms. About the cleventh or the twentieth day, copious sweats succeed, or purple exanthemata, or a portion of this infusion be taken with a tabes, or rigidity of all the joints.

oarresbar: from its quick growth.) The ed by itself to excite vomiting, or to ashorse-radish. A genus of plants in the sist the operation of other emetics. In-

der, Siliculosa.

RAPHANUS HORTENSIS Radicula. Rapharictics of this plant, Raphanus sativus of ing to the whole body; and thereby it Linnaus, are said to be employed medi- proves often useful in chronic rheumatism.

The juice, made into a syrup, is given to relieve hoarseness. Mixed with honey, or sugar, it is administered in pituitous asthma; and, as antiscorbutics, their efficacy is generally acknowledged.

RAPHANUS NIGER. See Raphanus horten-

RAPHANUS RUSTICANUS. Armoracia. Raphanus marinus. Raphanus sylvestris. Horse-radish. The plant which affords this root is the Cochlearia armoracia; foliis radicalibus lanceolatis crenatis, caulinis incisis of Linnaus, Horse-radish has long been received into the materia medica, is also well known at our tables. "It affects the organs both of taste and smell with a quick penetrating pungency; nevertheless it contains in certain vessels a sweet juice, which sometimes exudes in little drops upon the surface. Its pungent matter is of a very volatile kind, being totally dissipated in drying, and earried off in evaporation, or distillation by water, and rectified as the pungency exhales, the sweet matter of the root becomes more sensible, though this also is, in a great measure, dissipated or destroyed. It impregnates both water and spirit, by infusion, or by distillation, very richly with its active matters. In distillation with water, it yields a small quantity of essential oil, exceedingly penetrating and pungent."

Dr. Cullen has mentioned every thing necessary to be known respecting the medicinal virtues of horse-raddish, we shall therefore transcribe all that the ingenious professor has written on this subject. "The root of this only is employed; and it affords one of the most acrid substances of this order (Siliquose), and therefore proves a powerful sumulant, whether externally or internally employed. Externally, it readily inflames the skin, and proves a rubefacient that may be employed with advantage in palsy and rheumatism; and, if its application be long continued, it produces blisters. Taken internally, it may be so managed as to relieve hoarseness, by acting on the fauces. Received into the stomach, it stimulates this, and promotes digestion; and therefore is properly employed as a condiment with our animal food. If it be infused in water, and large draught of warm water, it readily RAPHANUS. (Paparos, waga to gablas, proves emelic, and may either be employ-Linnaan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Or- fused in water, and taken into the stomach, it proves stimulant to the nervous system, and is thereby useful in palsy; and, if em-The radish. The several va- ployed in large quantity, it proves heat-

whether arising from scurvy or other causes. Bergins has given us a particular method of exhibiting this root, which is, by cutting it down, without bruising, into small pieces; and these, if swallowed without chewing, may be taken down in large quantities, to that of a table-spoonful. And the author alleges, that, in this way, taken in the morning for a month together, this root has been extremely usefut in arthritic cases; which, however, I suppose to have been of the rheumatic kind. It would seem, in this manner employed, analogous to the use of unbruised mustard seed; it gives out in the stomach its subtle volatile parts, that stimulate considerably without inflaming. The matter of horse-radish, like the same matter of the other siliquose plants carried into the blood-vessels, passes readily into the kidneys, and proves a powerful dimetic, and is therefore useful in dropsy; and we need not say, that, in this monner, by promoting both urine and perspiration, it has been long known as one of the most powerful antiscorbutics."

RAPHANUS SATIVUS. The systematic name of the radish plant. See Ruphanus

nortensis.

RAPHANUS SYLVESTRIS. The poor man's pepper is sometimes so called. See Lepedium.

RAPHE SCROTI. ( $P\alpha\phi n$ , a suture.) The rough eminence which divides the scrotum, as it were, in two. It proceeds from the root of the penis inferiorly towards the perinaum.

RAPHE CEREBRI. The longitudinal eminence of the corpus callosum of the brain is so called, because it appears some-

what like a suture.

RAPISTRUM. (From rapa, the turnip, because its leaves resemble those of turnip.) Lampsana. Miagra. Charlock, or wild mustard.

RAPUM. (Ety. uncertain.) See Rapa. RAPUNCULUS. (Dim. of rapa, the turnip.)

The wild turnip.

RAPUNCULUS VIRGIANUS. The name given by Morrison to the blue cardinal flower. See *Lobelia*.

RAPUS. See Rapa.

RASH. Exanthema. A rash consists of red patches on the skin, variously figured; in general confluent, and diffused irregularly over the body, leaving interstices of a natural colour. Portions of the cuticle are often elevated in a rash, but the elevations are not acuminated. The cruption is usually accompanied with a general disorder of the constitution, and terminates in a few days by cuticular exfoliations.

RASPATORIUM. (From rado, to scrape.)

A surgeon's rasp.

Raspberry. See Rubus ideus.

RASURA. (From rado, to scrape.) 1. A rasure or scratch. 2. The raspings or shavings of any substance.

RATIFIA A liquor prepared by imparting to ardent spirits the flavour of various

kinds of fruits.

Ruttlesnake root. See Seneka.

RAUCEDO. (From raucus, hoarse.) Raucitas. Hoarseness. It is always symptomatic of some other disease.

RE-AGENT'S. Tests. Those substances which are used in chemistry to detect the substance for which they are used. In the application of tests there are two circumstances to be attended to, viz. To avoid deceitful appearances, and to have good tests.

The principal tests are the following:
1. Litmus. The purple of litmus is changed to red by every acid; so that this is the test generally made use of to detect excess of acid in any fluid. It may be used either by dipping into the water a paper stained with litmus, or by adding a drop of the tincture to the water to be examined, and comparing its hue with that of an equal quantity of the tincture in distilled water.

Litmus already reddened by an acid will have its purple restored by an alkali; and thus it may also be used as a test for alkalis, but it is much less active than other

direct alkaline tests.

2. Red cabbage has been found by Mr. Watt to furnish as delicate a test for acids as litmus, and to be still more sensible to alkalis. The natural colour of an infusion of this plant is blue, which is changed to red by acids, and to green by alkalis in

very minute quantities.

3. Brazil wood. When chips of this wood are infused in warm water they yield a red liquor, which readily turns blue by alkalis, either caustic or carbonated. It is also blued by the carbonated earths held in solution by carbonic acid, so that it is not an unequivocal test of alkalis till the earthy carbonats have been precipitated by boiling. Acids change to yellow the natural red of brazil wood, and restore the red when changed by alkalis.

4. Violets. The delicate blue of the common scented violet is readily changed to green by alkalis, and this affords a delicate test for these substances. Syrup of violets is generally used as it is at hand, being used in medicine. But a tincture of

the flower will answer as well,

\* 5. Turmeric. This is a very delicate test for alkalis, and on the whole perhaps is the best. The natural colour either in watery or spirituous infusion is yellow, which is changed to a brick or orange red by alkalis, caustic or carbonated, but not by carbonated earths, on which account it is preferable to Brazil wood.

produce the same change.

barb undergoes a similar change with tur-

meric and is equally delicate.

7. Sulphuric acid. concentrated sulphuric acid, added to water that contains carbonic acid, free or in combination, causes the latter to escape are the most delicate tests of muriatic with a pretty brisk effervescence, whereby acid, in any combination, producing the the presence of this gaseous acid may be detected.

acids in the sulphuretted waters, as the sess. sulphuretted hydrogen is decomposed by them, its hydrogen absorbed, and the sul- of lead are the salts of this metal employed phur separated in its natural form.

These are the most delicate tests for lime ted hydrogen or sulphuretted kali. and all soluble calcareous salts. Oxalat of lime, though nearly insoluble in water, water or in alcohol is curdled by water dissolves in a moderate quantity in its own containing any earthy or metallic salt. or any other acid, and hence in analysis ox-

10. Gallic acid and uncture of galls, tected by the test. These are tests of iron. Where the iron is in very minute quantities, and the is still more discriminative between potash water somewhat acidulous, these tests do and the other alkalis, than acid of tartar, not always produce a precipitate, but only and will produce a precipitate with a very a slight reddening, but its action is much weak solution of any salt with potash. freightened by previously adding a few

drops of any alkaline solution.

presence of iron in water is equally well found in fluids, and leaves others unindicated by these prussiats, and if the touched, it is a means of separating them prussiat of potash is properly prepared, it into two classes, which saves considerable will only be precipitated by a metallic salt, trouble in the further investigation. Those so that manganese and copper will also be salts which it does not dissolve, it precipidetected, the former giving a white preci-tates from their watery solution, but more pitate, the latter a red precipitate.

carbonic acid, it decomposes all the mag- hol, and as a precipitant it also assists in nesian salts, and likewise the aluminous many decompositions. salts, it like wise produces a cloudiness with

tion of selenite.

13 Ammonia. feetly caustic serves as a distinction be- parent, and often crystallized in brilliant tween the salts of lime and those of mag- needles; formed by a combination of arsenesia, as it precipitates the earth from the nic with sulphur. See Arsenic. latter salts, but not from the former. There are two sources of error to be obviated, taculum, from recipio, to receive.) one is that of carbonic acid being present taculum Pequeti, because Pequet first atin the water, the other is the presence of tempted to demons, rate it. Diversorium. aluminous salts.

to precipitate all the earths, where carbo- In brute animals the receptacle of the nate of potash is used particular care chile is situated on the dorsal vertebre should be taken of its purity, as it gene- where the lacteals all meet. See . Ibsorb.

rally contains silex

15. Muriated alumine. This test is pro-

The pure earths, such as lime and barytes, posed by Mr. Kirwan to detect carbonat of magnesia,-which cannot, like carbonated 6 Rhubarb Infusion or tincture of rhu- lime, be separated by ebullition, but remains till the whole liquid is evaporated.

16. Burytic salts. The nitrate, muriate, A drop or two of and acetice of barytes are all equally good tests of sulphuric acid in any combination.

17. Salts of silver. The salts of silver precipitated luna cornea. All the salts of silver likewise give a dark brown precipi-8. Nitric and exymuriatic acid. A pecu- tate with the sulphuretted waters, which liar use attends the employment of these is as delicate a test as any that we pos-

18. Salt of lead. The nitrate and acetite as tests. They will indicate the sulphuric, 9. Oxalic acid and oxalat of ammonia. muriatic, and boracic acid, and sulphuret-

19 Soup. A solution of soap in distilled

20. Turtareous acid. This acid is of use alat of ammonia is often preferred, as no in distinguishing the salts with potash, excess of this salt can re-dissolve the pre- (with which it forms a precipitate of cream cipitated oxalat of lime. On the other of tartar,) from those of soda, from which hand the ammonia should not exceed, it does not precipitate. The potash howotherwise it might give a false indication. ever must exist in some quantity to be de-

21. Nitro-muriate of platina.

22. Alcohol. This most useful re-agent is applicable in a variety of ways in ana-11. Prussiat of potash and lime. The lysis. As it dissolves some substances or less completely according to the salt 12. Lime-water is the common test for contained, and the strength of the alco-

REALGAR. Arlada. Arladar. Auripigmost of the sulphats owing to the forma- mentum rubrum. Arsenicum rubrum factitium, Abessi. A metallic substance of a This alkali when per- red colour, more or less lively and trans-

RECEPTACULUM CHYLL Succulus chyliferns. The existence of such 14. Carbonated alkalis. These are used a receptacle in the human body is doubted. ents.

RECTIFICATION. (Rectificatio, from

rectifico, to make clean.) tillation, in which substances are purified the different positions of the body, it may by their more volatile parts being raised by likewise serve to bend the trunk forwards, heat carefully managed; thus, spirit of wine, or to raise the polvis. Its situation beather, &c. are rectified by their separa- tween the two layers of the internal oblique, tion from the less volatile and foreign mat- and its adhesions to this sheath, secure it ter which altered or debased their proper- in its place, and prevent it from rising into

plants.

RECTUM. (So named from an errore- spaces. ous opinion that it was straight.) Rectum Apeuthysmenos. Archos. Cyssaros. The last or longaon. portion of the large intestines terminating internus oculi.

in the anus. See Intestines.

RECTUS ABDOMINIS. nal of Dumas This long and straight muscle is situated near its fellow, at the capitis internus major. middle and fore part of the abdomen, parallel to the linea alba, and between the superior oculi. aponeuroses of the other abdominal muscles. It arises sometimes by a single broad tendon from the upper and inner part of the os pubis, but more commonly by two JOR. sixteenth century. One of these intersec- muscle is to bend the head forwards. tions is usually where the muscle runs over the cartilage of the seventh rib; another is NOR. these two. Sometimes there is one, and the name of rectus internus minor, which pubis. When one, or both of these occur, however, they seldom extend more than half way across the muscle. As these intersections seldom penetrate through the whole substance of the muscle, they are all of them most apparent on its anterior surface, where they firmly adhere to the sheath; the adhesions of the rectus to the posterior layer of the internal oblique, are only by means of cellular membrane, and described muscle. It assists in bending of a new vessels which pass from one to the head forwards another.

Albinus and some others have seen this muscle extending as far as the upper part of the sternum.

The use of the rectus is to compress the fore part of the abdomen, but more parti- have been first described by Fallopius.

A second dis- cularly the lower part; and, according to a prominent form when in action; and RECTOR SPIRITUS. The aromatic part of lastly, its tendinous intersections enable it to contract at any of the intermediate

RECTUS ABDUCENS OCULI. See Rectus

Longanon, externus oculi.

RECTUS ADDUCENS OCULI. See Rectus

RECTUS ANTERIOR BREVIS. See Rectus Pubio ster- capitis internus minor.

See Rectus RECTUS ANTERIOR LONGUS.

RECTUS ATTOLLENS OCULI. See Rectus

RECTUS CAPITIS ANTICUS LONGUS.

Rectns capitis internus major.

RECTUS CAPITIS INTERNUS MA-Rectus internus major of Albinus, heads, one of which is fleshy, and origin- Douglas, and Cowper. Trachelo-basilaire ates from the upper edge of the pubis, of Dumas. Rectus anterior longus of Winsand the other tendinous, from the inside low. This muscle is situated on the ante-of the symphysis pubis, behind the pyra-rior part of the neck, close to the verte-midalis muscle. From these beginnings, bræ. It was known to most of the ancient the muscle runs upwards the whole length anatomists, but was not distinguished by of the linea alba, and, becoming broader any particular name until Cowper gave it and thinner as it ascends, is inserted by a the present appellation, and which has thin aponeurosis into the edge of the car- been adopted by most writers except Wintilago ensiformis, and into the cartilages of slow. It is a long muscle, thicker and the fifth, sixth, and seventh ribs. This broader above than below, where it is thin, aponeurosis is placed under the pectoral and terminates in a point. It arises, by muscle, and sometimes adheres to the distinct and flat tendons, from the anterior fourth rib. The fibres of this muscle are points of the transverse processes of the commonly divided by three tendinous inter- five inferior vertebræ of the neck, and, sections, which were first noticed by Be- ascending obliquely upwards, is inserted renger, or, as he is commonly called, Carpi, into the anterior part of the cuneiform proan Italian anatomist, who flourished in the cess of the occipital bone. The use of this

RECTUS CAPITIS INTERNUS MI-Cowper, who was the first accuat the umbilious; and the third is between rate describer of this little muscle, gave it even two, between the umbilious and the has been adopted by Douglas and Albinus. Winslow calls it rectus anterior brevis, and Dumas petit-trachelo-basilaire. It is in part covered by the rectus major. It arises fleshy from the upper and fore part of the body of the first vertebra of the neck, near the origin of its transverse process, and, ascending obliquely inwards, is inserted near the root of the couldyloid process of the occipital bone, under the last-

CAPITIS LATERALIS. RECTUS Rectus lateralis Fallopii of Douglas. Transversulis anticus primus of Winslow. Rectus laterulis of Cowper, and Tracheli altoido basilaire of Dumas. This muscle seems to

Winslow calls it transversalis anticus pri- arises from the os ilium by two tendons. mus. It is somewhat larger than the rec- The foremost and shortest of these springs tus minor, but resembles it in shape, and form the outer surface of the inferior and is situated immediately behind the internal anterior spinous process of the ilium; the jugular vein, at its coming out of the cra-nium. It arises fleshy from the upper and longer than the other, arises from the posto one side.

Douglas and Winslow, the rectus capitis be styled a penniform muscle. It is inposticus minor of Albinus, and the spine- serted tendinous into the upper edge and axordo-occipital of Dumas, is a small, short, anterior surface of the patella, and from and flat muscle broader above than be- thence sends off a thin aponeurosis, which low, and is situated, not in a straight di- adheres to the superior and lateral part rection, as its name would insinuate, but of the tibia. obliquely, between the occiput and the leg second vertebra of the neck, immediately under the complexus. It arises, by a short pressor oculi. thick tendan, from the upper and poste- inferior of the straight muscles of the eye. rior part of the spinous process of the se- It arises within the socket, from below the cond vertebra of the neck; it soon be- optic foramen, and passes forwards to be comes broader, and ascending obliquely inserted into the sclerotic membrane of the outwards, is inserted, by a flat tendon, bulb on the wider part. It pulls the eye into the external lateral part of the lower downwards. semi-circular ridge of the os occipitis. The use of this is to extend the head, and pull cilis. it backwards.

RECTUS CAPITIS POSTICUS MI- ducens oculi las and Winslow, and the tuber-altoidy-occi- the inferior part of the foramen opticum, pital of Dumas. It is smaller than the between the obliquus superior, and the last described muscle, but resembles it in rectus inferior, being, from its situ tion, shape, and is placed close by its fellow, in the shortest muscle of the eye, and is inthe space between the recti majores. It serted into the sclerotic membrane oppoarises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and lateral part of a little protuberance in the middle of the back part of the first vertebra of the neck, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted, by a broad flat tendon, into the pitis posticus major. occipital bone, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle. The use of it is to assist the rectus major in drawing the head backwards.

RECTUS CRUBIS. See Rectus femoris. RECTUS DEPRIMENS OCULO. See Rectus

inferior oculi.

RECTUS EXTERNUS OCULI. ductor oculi. Indignabundus. The outer by a broad and thin tendon. straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the bony partition between the foramen ches of the par vagum in the cavity of opticum and lacerum, being the longest of the thorax. The right is given off near the straight muscles of the eye, and is in-serted into the sclerotic membrane, oppo- and is reflected upwards to the thyroid site to the outer canthus of the eye. Its gland; the left a little lower, and reflected use is to move the eye outwards.

FEMORIS. RECTUS Gracilis anterior of Winslow. cruris of Albinus, and Ilio-rotulien of Du- rynx. mas. A straight muscle of the thigh, situated immediately at the fore part. It ceous earth, of a dark red colour, some-

fore part of the transverse process of the terior and outer part of the edge of the covertebra of the neck, and, ascending a tyloid cavity, and from the adjacent caplittle obliquely upwards and outwards, is sular ligament. These two tendons soon inserted into the occipital bone, opposite unite, and form an aponeurosis, which to the stylo-mastoid hole of the os tempos spreads over the anterior surface of the ris. This muscle serves to pull the head upper part of the muscle; and through its one sade. whole length we observe a middle tendon, RECTUS CAPITIS POSTICUS MA- towards which its fleshy fibres run on each This, which is the rectus major of side in an oblique direction, so that it may Its use is to extend the

> RECTUS INFERIOR OCULI. De-Deprimens. Humilis.

RECTUS INTERNUS FEMORIS. See Gra-

RECTUS INTERNUS OCULI. Bibitorius. The internal This is the rectus minor of Dong- straight muscle of the eye. It arises from site to the inner angle. Its use is to turn the eye towards the nose.

RECTUS LATERALIS FALLOPII.

tus capitis lateralis.

RECTUS MAJOR CAPITIS. See Rectus ca-

RECTUS SUPERIOR OCULI. tollens oculi. Levator oculi. The uppermost straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the sphænoid bone below the levator palpebræ superioris, and runs forward to be inserted into the superior Ab- and fore part of the sclerotic membrane

RECURRENT NERVES Two branaround the aorta to the asophagus, as far Rectus sive as the larynx. They are both distributed Rectus to the muscles of the larynx and pha-

REDDLE. A species of ochre or argilla-

\* 4 S

times used medicinally as a tonic and ant- at present unknown.

Red saunders See Santalum rubrum.

REFRIGERANTIA. (From refrigero, to cool ) Refrigerants. Medicines, which allay the heat of the body or the blood.

REFRIGERATORIUM. (From refrigero, to cool.) A vessel filled with water to condense vapours, or to make cool any substance which passes through it.

REGIMEN. (From rego, to govern.) A term employed in medicine to express the plan or regulation of the diet.

REGINA PRATI. See Ulmaria,

REGIUS MORBUS. (From rex, a king.) The royal disease, a term applied to the jaundice from its golden colour, and to a preparation of nitre, because it dissolves only gold.

Regular gout. See Arthritis.

REGULUS. called because the alchemists expected to lic matters when separated from other sub- brum, these glands are extremely small, stances by fusion; as, regulus of antimony, and sometimes wanting. regulus of arsenic, &c.

The pure metal Regulus of antimony.

antimony. See Intimony.

Regulus of arsenic. Pure arsenic. See Arsenic

REMEDIUM DIVINUM. See Imperatoria. Remittent fever. See Febris continua.

REMORA ARATRI. (From remoror, to hinder, and aratrum, a plough; so called because it hinders the plough.)

Remote cause. See Exciting cause.

REN. (Ren, and TE part; because through them the urine flows ) The kidney. See Kidneys.

RENAL ARTERIES. Arteriæ renales.

See Emilgent vessels

RENAL GLANDS. Renal capsules Supra-renal glands. The separated in such a manner, that the whey supra-renal glands are two hollow bodies, will remain limpid and colourless, and this like glands in fabric, and placed one on is what is called clarifying it. Put into a each side upon the kidney They are co- basin the white of an egg, a glass of the severed by a double tunic, and their cavities rum of milk, and a few grains of tartareare filled with a liquor of a brownish red ous acidulum in powder; whip the mixthey are larger in the foctus than the kid- the remainder of the unclarified whey, neys; but in adults they are less than the place the mixture again over the fire until kidneys. The right is affixed to the liver, it begins to boil. The tartareous acidulum the left to the spleen and pancreas, and completes the coagulation of the white both to the diaphragm and kidneys. They part of the milk which remains; the white have arteries, veins, and lymphatics and of egg, as it becomes hot, coagulates and nerves; their arteries arise from the dia- envelops the caseous part. When the phragmatic, the aorta, and the renal arter whey is clear, filter it through paper; what ries. The vein of the right supra-renal passes will be perfectly limp d, and have a gland empties itself into the vena cava; greenish colour This is clarified whey. that of the left into the renal vein; their lymphatic vessels go directly to the thora- head back in sign of refusal; so called cic duct; they have nerves common alike from its office of jerking back the head.) to these glands and the kidneys. They A muscle of the head. have no excretory duct, and their use is

It is supposed they answer one use in the fœtus, and another in the adult, but what these uses are is uncertain. Boerhaave supposed their use to consist in their furnishing lymph to dilute the blood returned after the secretion of the urine in the renal vein; but this is very improbable, since the vein of the right supra-lenal gland goes to the vena cava, and the blood carried back by the renal vein wants no dilution. It has also been said, that these glands not only pre-pare lymph, by which the blood is fitted for the nutrition of the delicate focus; but that in adults they serve to restore in themselves, to the blood of the vena cava, the irritable parts which it loses by the secretion of bile and urine. Some, again, have considered them as diverticula in the fætus, to divert the blood from the kid-(Dim. of rex, a king; so neys, and lessen the quantity of urine. The celebrated Morgagni believed their find gold, the king of metals, collected at office to consist in conveying something to the bottom of the crucible after fusion.) the thoracic duct. It is singular, that in A name given by the alchemists to metal-children who are born without the cere-

RENAL VEINS. See Emulgent vessels. Renal vessels. See Emulgent vessels.

RENNET. The gastric juice and contents of the stomach of calves. It is much employed in preparing cheese, and, in pharmacy, for making whey. To about a pound of milk, in a silver or earthen basin placed on hot ashes, add three or four grains of rennet, diluted with a little water: as it becomes cold the milk curdles, and the whey, or serous part, separates itself from the caseous part. When these parts appear perfectly distinct, pour the whole upon a strainer, through which the whey will pass, while the curds remain behind. This whey is always rendered somewhat whitish, by a very small and much divided Glandulæ renales. portion of the caseous part; but it may be Their figure is triangular; and ture with an ozier twig, and, having added

RENUENS. (From renuo, to nod the

REPELLENTIA. (From repello, to

Applications drive back.) Repellents. are sometimes so named which make diseases recede, as it were, from the surface

of the body.

REPULSION. All matter possesses a power which is in constant opposition to attraction. This agency, which is equally powerful and equally obvious, acts an important part in the phanomena of nature, and is called the power of repulsion.

That such a force exists which opposes the approach of bodies towards each other

is evident from numberless facts.

Newton has shown that when a convex lens is put upon a flat glass it remains at a distance of the one-hundred-and-thirtyseventh part of an inch, and a very considerable pressure is required to diminish this distance; nor does any force which can be applied bring them into actual mathematical contact; a force may indeed be applied sufficient to break the glasses into pieces, but it may be demonstrated that it does not diminish their distance much beyond the one-thousandth part of an inch. There is therefore a repulsive force which prevents the two glasses from touching each other.

Boscowich has shown that when an ivory billiard-ball sets another in motion by striking against it, an equal quantity of its own motion is lost, and the ball at rest begins to move while the other is still at a

distance.

There exists therefore a repulsion between bodies; this repulsion takes place while they are yet at a distance from each other; and it opposes their approach to-

wards each other.

The cause or the nature of this force is equally inscrutable with that of attraction, but its existence is undoubted; it increases as far as has been ascertained inversely as the square of the distance, consequently at the point of contact it is infinite.

The following experiments will serve to prove the energy of repulsion more fully.

Experiment .- When a glass tube is immersed in water the fluid is attracted by the glass, and drawn up into the tube; but, if we substitute mercury instead of water, we shall find a different effect. If a glass tube of any bore be immersed in this fluid it does not rise, but the surface of the mercury is considerably below the level of that which surrounds it.

In this case therefore a repulsion takes place between the glass and the mercury, which is even considerably greater than the attraction existing between the particles of the mercury, and hence the latter cannot rise in the tube, but is repelled, and

becomes depressed

Experiment - When we present the north pole of a magnet A, to the same pole of composition. another magnet B, suspended on a pivot, and at liberty to move, the magnet B vegetable kingdom, either by spontaneous

will recede as the other approaches; and by following it with A, at a proper distance, it may be made to turn round on its pivot with considerable velocity.

In this case there is evidently some agency which opposes the approach of the north poles of A and B, which acts as an antagonist, and causes the moveable magnet to retire before the other. There is therefore a repulsion between the two magnets, a repulsion which increases with the power of the magnets; which may be made so great that all the force of a strong man is insufficient to make the two north poles touch each other .- The same repulsion is equally obvious on electrical bodies, for instance.

Experiment -If two small cork balls be suspended from a body with silk threads so as to touch one another, and if we charge the body in the usual manner with electricity, the two cork balls separate from each other, and stand at a distance proportional to the quantity of electricity with which the body is charged; the balls of course

repel each other.

Experiment -If we rub over the surface of a sheet of paper the fine dust of lycopodium or puff ball, and then let water fall on it in small quantities, the water will instantly be repelled and form itself into distinct drops which do not touch the lycopodium, but roll over it with uncommon rapidity. That the drops do not touch the lycopodium, but are actually kept at a distance above it, is obvious from the copious reflection of white light.

Experiment -If the surface of water contained in a basin be covered over with lycopodium, a solid substance deposited at the bottom of the fluid may be taken out of it with the hand without wetting it. In this case the repulsion is so powerful as to defend the hand completely from the con-

tact of the fluid.

RES NATURALES. (From natura, nature.) The naturals. According to Boerhaave, these are life, the cause of life, and its effects. These, he says, remain in some degree, however disordered a person may be.

Reseda. (From resede to appease; so called from its virtue of allaying inflamma-

tion.) The herb wild rocket.

Resin, black See Resina nigra. Resin, elastic. Sec Indian rubber. Resin tree, elastic. See Indian rubber. Resin, white. See Resina flava.

Resin. yellow. See Resina flava. RESINA. (Resina, from pro, to flow.) The essential properties of resin are, being in the solid form, insoluble in water, perfectly soluble in alcohol, and in essential and expressed oils, and being incapable of being volatilized without de-

Resins are obtained chiefly from the

exudation, or from incisions made into together, which weighed nearly half a hunvegetables affording juices which contain dred weight. It is produced in such abunthis principle portion of essential oil, which, from ex- forty pounds in the space of a few hours, posure to the air, is either volatilized or The convicts have another method of colconverted into resmous matter, or sometimes the oil is abstracted by distillation. In some plants the resin is deposited, in have some, and frequently considerable a concrete state, in the interstices of the wood, or other parts of the plant.

Resons, when concrete, are brittle, and have generally a smooth and conchoidal fracture; their lustre is peculiar, they are more or less transparent, and of a colour which is usually some shade of yellow, or brown; they are of a greater specific gravity than water; they are often odorous and sapid, easily fusible, and, on cooling,

become solid.

RESINA ALBA. See Resina flava. RESINA ELASTICA. See Indian rubber.

RESINA FLAVA. Resina alba. Yel. low resin, what remains in the still after distilling oil of turpentine, by adding water to the common turpentine. It is of very extensive use in surgery as an active detergent, and forms the base of the unguentum resina fluva.

RESINA LUTEA NOVI BELGII. Botany-bay gum. All the information that has been hitherto collected respecting the history of the yellow gum is the follow-

The plant that produces it is low and small, with long grassy leaves; but the fructification of it shoots out in a singular manner from the centre of the leaves, on a single straight stem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this stem, which is strong and light, like some of the reed class, the natives usually make their spears. The resin is generally dug up out of the soil under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Tasman calls, 'gum lac of the ground.'

Mr. Boles, surgeon of the Lady Penrhyn, gives a somewhat different account; and as this gentleman appears to have paid considerable attention to the subject, his account may certainly be relied upon. After describing the tree in precisely the same manner as above, he observes, that at the top of the trunk of the tree, long grassy leaves grow in great abundance. The gum is found under these leaves in considerable quantities; it commonly exudes in round tears, or drops, from the size of a large pea to that of a marble, and sometimes much larger. These are by the heat of the sun frequently so much soft- has indeed sometimes been said to purge, ened, that they fall on the ground, and in and at others to occasion sweating, but this soft state adhere to whatever they fall they are not constant effects, and when upon; hence the gum is frequently found they do occur, it generally depends on mixed with dirt, wood, the bark of the some accidental circumstance. It should tree, and various other substances: so that seem 10 possess, in a very extensive deone lump has been seen composed of many gree, the property of allaying morbid irrismall pure pieces of various sizes united tability, and of restoring tone, strength,

These juices contain a dance, that one man may collect thirty or lecting it: they dig round the tree, and break off pieces of the roots which always quantities of the gum in them. This gum appears nearly, but not entirely, the same as that which exudes from the trunk of the tree; the former is often mixed with a strong smelling resinous substance of a black nature, and is so interwoven in the wood itself, that it is with difficulty separated. The latter appears a pure unmixed resinous substance.

Several experiments have been made. principally with the view of determining what menstrum would dissolve the gum the most readily, and in the greatest quantity, from which it appears alcohol and

ether dissolve the most.

The diseases in which this resin is administered, are those of the primæ viæ, and princip. lly such as arise from spasm, a debility, a loss of tone, or a diminished action in the muscular fibres of the stomach and bowels, such as loss of appetite, sickness, vomiting, flatulency, heart-burn, pains in the stomach, &c. when they were really idiopathic complaints, and not dependent upon any disease in the stomach, or affections of other parts of the body communicated to the stomach. In debilities and relaxations of the bowels, and the symptoms from thence arising, such as purging and flatulency, it has been found of good effect. In certain cases of diar-rhæa, however, (and it seemed those in which an unusual degree of irritability prevailed,) it did not answer so well, unless given in small doses, and combined with opiates, when the patient seemed to gain greater advantage than when opiates only were had recourse to. In case of amenorrhæa, depending on (what most of those cases do depend upon) a sluggishness, a debility, and flaccidity of the system, this medicine, when assisted by proper exercise and diet, has, by removing the symptoms of dyspepsia, and by restoring the tone and action of the muscular fibres, been found very serviceable. This medicine does not, in the dose of about half a drachm, appear to possess any remarkably sensible operation. It neither vomits, purges, nor binds the belly, nor does it materially increase the secretion of urine or perspiration. It

RES

and action to the debilitated and relaxed to pass from the right into the left cavities fibre. When the gum itself is given, it of the heart; this passage constitutes the should always be the pure unmixed part; if given in the form of a draught, it should be mixed in water with mucilage of gum of the respiratory organ, in comparing it arabic; if made into pills, a small portion of Castile soap may be employed; it was found the lixiv. sapon dissolved it entirely. was adapted to the instrument, and gave It is commonly, however, made into a entrance to a column of air when its parietes tincture by mixing equal parts of the gum and rectified spirit; one drachm of this tincture, (containing half a drachm of the pure gom,) made into a draught with water and syrup, by the assistance of 15 grains of gum arabic in mucilage, forms an elegant medicine, and at the same time very pala-

RESINA NIGRA. Colophonia. What resam of turpentine from the common turpentine.

RESOLVENTS. (Medicamenta Resolventia, from resolvo, to loosen.)

indurations, &c.

(Respiratio, RESPIRATION. from respiro, to take breath.) Of all the essential or remarkable than those occasioned by the influence of the air, which to the heart, and which the right ventricle a red vermillion colonr, frothy, lighter, and two degrees warmer; it is also more easily coagulable, and separates a smaller proportion of serum. All these differences, which are so easily perceptible, are dependent upon the modifications arising from having been in contact with the atmospheric air.

In man, and in all animals of warm blood that have an heart composed of two anricles and two ventricles, the blood which has been carried into all the organs by the arteries, and brought back by the veins to the heart, cannot be returned into the arteries without having first passed through the lungs, forming a medium of inspiration, the intercostal muscles not

pulmonary or smaller circulation.

Mayow has given the most accurate idea to a pair of bellows, in the insule of which was an empty bladder, the neck of which were separated: the air, in fact, does not enter the lungs but when the thorax dilates and enlarges by the separation of its parietes. To effect respiration, which may be defined the alternate entrance and egress of air in the lungs, the thorax must expand to receive the air, and contract to expel it. The dilatation is called inspiration, the contraction expiration; the latter mains in the retort after distilling the bal- is always shorter than the other, its causes are more mechanical, and the muscular

powers have less influence.

The thorax in its usual state dilates only This by depressing the daphragm. The curved term is applied by surgeons to such sub-stances as discuss inflammatory tumours. straight by contraction, causes it to destances as discuss inflammatory tumours. straight by contraction, causes it to de-RESOLUTION. (Resolutio, from re-scend towards the abdomen, and thus desolvo, to loosen.) A termination of in-flammatory affections in which the diseases anterior parieties of this cavity which sink disappear without any abscess, mortifica-tion, &c. being occasioned. The term is diaphragm is then relaxed and ascends, also applied to the dispersion of swellings, being pressed back by the abdominal viscora, on which the large muscles react. When we have occasion for the admission respire, to take breath.) Of all the of a great quantity of air into the chest, changes the blood suffers in passing through it not only enlarges in length by the deour various organs, there are none more scent of the diaphragm, but its capacity is likewise increased in every direction. The intercostal muscles then contract, and is alternately received into, and expelled approximate the ribs between which they from the lungs during the act of respira- are placed; yet the intercostal spaces betion. The blood which the veins return come larger, particularly at the anterior part; for whenever oblique lines tend to sends into the pulmonary artery, is blackish become perpendicular to a vertical line, and heavy; its temperature only 30 de- and to form right angles with it, the intergrees of Reaumur's thermometer: if suffer- cepted spaces augment in proportion as ed to remain still, it coagulates slowly, and the lines, having been more oblique, apseparates a great portion of scrum. That proach the horizontal direction; besides, as which the pulmonary veins bring back to the ribs present a double curvature in rethe left cavities of the heart, and which spect to their length, one on the front, the is conveyed into every part of the body by other on their sides, the convexity of the means of the arteries, is, on the contrary, of former is outwards, they separate from the axis of the chest, the cavity of which is enlarged transversely, while the latter curvature, agreeable to its edges, being augmented by a true rotatory motion, has its inferior edge pushed forwards. The thorax therefore increases both in its right and transverse diameter, each of which has been estimated to expand two lines; the extension of the vertical diameter dependent on the descent of the diaphragm is much more considerable.

When any cause whatever renders inspiration difficult, and prevents the diaphragm from descending towards the abdomen, or in any other manner impedes the motion which the blood must necessarily traverse only evidently act to induce a dilatation

of the thorax, but also several other These changes, compared with those the auxiliary muscles, as the scaleni subsca- blood has suffered in its passage through pulares, pectorales, serrati majores, latis- the lungs, manifestly indicate a reciprocal simi dorsi, in contracting raise the ribs, action of this liquid and the oxygen of the and increase the diameter of the thorax atmosphere. The dark venous blood, slow in several directions; the fixed point of of coagulation, and separating much se-these muscles should then be their move- rum, loaded with hydrogen and carbon, able part, because the cervical spine, the clavicle, scapola and humerus are fixed by other powers which it would be needless to enumerate. Inspiration is a state truly active, an effort of the contractile organs, which must cease when they fall into a state of relaxation. Expiration, which succeeds, is a passive motion in which few muscles co-operate, and chiefly depends on the re-action of the elastic parts constituting the structure of the parietes of the chest. It has been seen that the cartilages of the ribs experience a degree of rotation, carrying their upper edge backwards and downwards: when the cause that is productive of this action ceases to act, the parts return upon themselves, and carry back the sternum on the spine, towards which the ribs descend by their own gravity. The diaphragm is pushed nearer the thorax by the abdominal viscera, on which the large muscles of the abdomen react.

In every effort of expiration, as coughing and vomiting, the muscles react, not only in consequence of their own elasticity, but they still contract and approximate the spine, propelling the viscera towards the thorax. The musculus triangularis of the sternum, the subcostales, and the seratus minor inferior, may be ranked among the expiratores, but they are seldom employed, and form too slender and weak powers to contribute much to the contraction of When the chest enlarges, this cavity. the lungs dilate, following the parietes which expand, and each time the thorax dilates in an adult man, from thirty to forty cubic inches of atmospheric air en er into the lungs, and, when in a state of purity, composed of seventy-three parts of azot, twenty-seven parts of oxygen and onehundredth or two-hundredths of carbonic acid. After the atmospheric air has remained for some time in the pulmonary structure, it is expelled by the efforts of expiration, and its quantity is diminished to thirty eight inches. And, if examined, the composition is not the same: there are found certainly seventy-three hundredths of azot, but the oxygen, its vital and respirable part, has suffered great diminution, its proportion is only fourteen-hundredths; carbonic acid constitutes the remaining thirteen hundredths, and sometimes one or two parts of hydrogen gas are found. is likewise altered by the admixture of an aqueous vapour, which condenses in cold weather in passing out of the nostrils and mouth. This is known by the name of the humour of pulmonary exhalation.

possesses only thirty degrees of heat, gives off to the oxygen of the atmosphere its hydrogen and carbon, to constitute the carbonic acid, and pulmonary vapour; and, as oxygen cannot enter these new combinations without disengaging a portion of caloric, which rarefies it into gas, the blood seizes this heat, now liberated with so much greater facility as it proportionably loses its hydrogen and carbon, and, agreeable to the ingenious experi-ments of Crawford, its capacity for caloric augments in the relation of 10: 11: 5.

The blood in its passage through the lungs, is deprived of hydrogen and carbon, and, in becoming arterial, is loaded with oxygen and caloric, which are formed into oxyds of hydrogen and carbon; these, by a fresh addition of oxygen, which is derived from the atmospheric air in the lungs, form

water and carbonic acid.

Arterial blood becomes venous when any cause suspends or retards is course, as proved by the following experiment of J. Hunter. He tied the carotid of a dog in two places, at about four inches distance; the blood which came out of that portion of the artery between the ligatures, when opened several hours afterwards, was coagulated and dark like that of the veins.

The blood flowing in small veins very much resembles that of the arteries; and often in a copious bleeding the colour of the blood, at first very dark, becomes gradually paler, so that, towards the end of the operation, the blood which flows exhibits the qualities of that in the arteries. which is occasioned by rendering a more easy and direct passage of the blood from the arteries into the veins by emptying the venous system.

Richerand, in explaining the theory of respiration, thinks it probable that the oxvgen obsorbed in uniting with the hydrogen of every part of the body, produces the water that dilutes the venous blood, which is more fluid, and abounds more in serum than arterial blood; whilst this in uniting with carbon, forms an oxyd that gives this blood a dark colour, constituting one of its principal characteristics. The water in the lungs exhales, dissolved by the air, and forms pulmonary transpiration or exhalation; the oxyd of carbon, more completely burnt by a super-addition of oxygen, constitutes carbonic acid, which gives the air, passed by expiration, the property of precipitating lime-water.

By means of the absorption of oxygen by venous blood, we can explain how the phænomena of respiration continues in pipe, and completely fills it. On dissect-every part of the body, and give rise to ing the body of a recently drowned animal, heat uniformly spread throughout all our no particular fulness of the vessels within organs. In proportion as the blood loses its caloric, for which its affinity or capacity diminishes as it becomes venous, the parts which give off their hydrogen and carbon seize it. If the lungs were the only organs in which the matter of hear could be disengaged, the temperature of these viscera should be much higher than that of other parts, and experience proves that it is not sensibly augmented.

Rest harrow. See Ononis.

RESTA BOVIS. The rest harrow is so called because it hinders the plough; hence resta bovis. See Ononis.

RESUSCITATION. The restoring of persons, apparently dead, to life. Under this head, strictly speaking, is considered the restoring of those who faint, or have breathed noxious and irrespirable air; yet it is chiefly confined to the restoring of those who are apparently dead from being immersed in a fluid, or by hanging. Dr. Curry, of Guy's hospital, has written a very valuable treatise on this subject; and such is its importance, that we have thought proper to insert the following account:

"From considering," he observes, "that a drowned person is surrounded by water instead of air, and that in this situation he makes strong and repeated efforts to breathe, we should expect that the water would enter and completely fill the lungs. This opinion, indeed, was once very general, and it still continues to prevail among the common people. Experience, however, has shown, that unless the body lies so long in the water as to have its living principle entirely destroyed, the quantity of fluid present in the lungs is inconsiderable; and it would seem that some of this is the natural moisture of the part accumulated; for, upon drowning kittens, puppics, &c. in ink, or other coloured liquors, and afterwards examining the lungs, it is found that very little of the coloured liquor has gained admittance to them. To explain the reason why the lungs of drowned animals are so free from water, it is necessary to observe, that the muscles which form the opening into the wind-pipe are exquisitely sensible, and contract violently upon the least irritation, as we frequently experience when any part of the food or drink happens to touch them. In the efforts made by a drowning, person, or animal, to draw in air, the water rushes into the mouth and throat, and be stripped of any clothes it may have on, is applied to these muscles, which imme- and be immediately well dried. It should diately contract in such a manner as to then be wrapped in dry, warm blankets, contracted state continues as long as the the by-standers, and be removed as quickrelaxed and the water enters the wind- large apartment, in which a fire is ready,

the skull, nor any disease of the brain or its membranes, are visible. The lungs are also sound, and the branches of the windpipe generally contain more or less of a frothy matter, consisting chiefly of air, mixed with a small quantity of colourless fluid. The right cavity of the heart, and the trunks of the large internal veins which open into it, and also the trunk and larger branches of the artery which carries the blood from this cavity through the lungs, are all distended with dark coloured blood, approaching almost to blackness. left cavity of the heart, on the contrary, is nearly, or entirely empty, as are likewise the large veins of the lungs which supply it with blood, and the trunk and principal branches of the great artery which conveys the blood from hence to the various parts of the body. The external blood-vessels are empty; and the fleshy parts are as pale as if the animal had been bled to death. When a body has lain in the water for some time, other appearances will also be observable; such as, the skin livid, the eyes blood shot, and the countenance bloated and swoln; but these appearances, though certainly unfavourable, do not absolutely prove that life is irrecoverably gone. It is now known, that in the case of drowning, no injury is done to any of the parts essential to life; but that the right cavity of the heart, together with the veins and arteries leading to and from that cavity, are turgid with blood, whilst every other part is almost drained of this fluid The practice of holding up the bodies of drowned persous by the heels, or rolling them over a cask, is unnecessary; the lungs not being filled with any thing that can be evacuated in this way. Therefore such a practice is highly dangerous, as the violence attending it may readily borst some of those vessels which are already overcharged with blood, and thus convert what was only suspended animation, into absolute and permanent death. The operation of inflating the lungs is a perfectly safe, and much more effectual method of removing any frothy matter they may contain; and whilst it promotes the passage of the blood through them, also renders it capable of stimulating the left cavity of the heart, and exciting it to contraction. As soon as the body is taken out of the water, it should shut up the passage into the lungs. This or in the spare clothes taken from some of muscles retain the principle of life, upon ly as possible to the nearest house that can which the power of muscular contraction be got convenient for the purpose. The depends; when that is gone, they become fittest will be one that has a tolerably

ried in men's arms, or laid upon a door; mits of the operation of inflating the lungs or, in case the house be at a distance from 'he place, it a cart can be procured, let the body be placed in it, on one side, upon some straw, with the head and upper parts somewhat raised; and in this position a brisk motion will do no harm. Whatever be the mode of conveyance adopted, particular care should be taken that the head be neither suffered to hang backwards, nor to bend down with the chin upon the breast. When arrived at the house, lay body may be placed before the fire, or in the body on a mattress, or a double blanket, spread upon a low table, or upon a door supported by stools; the head and warm hands, or with cloths heated at the cliest being elevated by pillows. As the fire or by a warming-pan. The restoration air of a room is very soon rendered im- of heat should always be gradual, and the pure by a number of people breathing in it, for this reason as well as to avoid the confusion and embarrassment attending a crowd, no more persons should be admitted into the apartment where the body is exposed to it for some time, heat should be placed, than are necessary to assist immediapplied in a very low degree at first : and ately in the recovery; in general six will be if the weather be under the freezing point, found sufficient for this purpose, and these and the body when stripped, feels cold and should be the most active and intelligent nearly in the same condition with one that of the by-standers convenient to divide the assistents into two rub it well with snow, or wash it with sets; one set being employed in restoring cold water; the sudden application of heat the heat of the body, while the other in- in such cases, having been found very perstitutes an artificial breathing in the best nicious. In a short time, however, manner they are able. Every skilful per- warmth must be gradually applied. To son should be provided with a flexible tube assist in rousing the activity of the vital made of elastic gum, half a yard in length, principle, it has been customary to apply to introduce into the wind-pipe, and also various stimulating matters to different with a sum lar tube to which a syrynge can parts of the body. But as some of these be affixed, to be put into the esophagus applications are in themselves hurtful, Should these not be at hand, air should be and the others serviceable only according to thrown into the lungs in the best manner that can be suggested at the time. Should it will be proper to consider them particuit still be found that the air does not pass readily into the lungs, immediate recourse must be had to another and more effectual method for attaining that object. As this method, however, requires address, and also some knowledge of the parts about the throat, we would recommend that in proportion as it is deprived of heat, and when there is not a medical gentleman present, the mode already described be tried repeatedly before this be attempted. As a quantity of frothy matter occupying the drowned body, all stimulating applications branches of the wind-pipe and preventing the entrance of the air into the lungs, is generally the circumstance which renders this mode of inflation necessary, the mouth should be opened from time to time to remove this matter as it is discharged. has in some cases produced sores, While one set of the assistants are engaged which were very painful and difficult to in performing artificial respiration, the heal after recovery. Spirits of all kinds other should be employed in communicate evaporate fast, and thereby, instead ing heat to the body. The warm bath has of creating warmth, as they are expected been usually recommended for this purto do, carry off a great deal of heat from pose; but wrapping the body in blankets, the body. Spirit of hartshorn, or of sal pose; but wrapping the body in blankets, the body. Spirit of hartshorn, or of sal or woollen clothes, strongly wrung out of volatile, are liable to the same objection warm water, and renewing them as they grow cool, besides being a speedier and practicable method of imparting assistants. When there is reason to thirk

or can be made. The body may be car- heat, has this great advantage, that it adbeing carried on without interruption. Until a sufficient quantity of warm water can be got ready, other methods of restoring warmth may be employed; such as the application of dry, warm blankets round the bo y and limbs; bags of warm grains or sand. bladders or hottles of hot water, or hot bricks applied to the hands, feet, and under the arm-pits, the bottles and bricks being covered with flannel: or the the sunshine if strong at the time, and be gently rubbed by the assistants with their warmth applied ought never to be greater than can be comfortably borne by the assistants. If the weather happen to be cold, and especially if the body has been It will be found most is frozen, it will be necessary at first to the time and manner of their employment, larly. The application of all such matters in cases of apparent death, is founded upon the supposition that the skin still retains sensibility enough to be affected by them. It is well known, however, that even during life, the skin loses sensibility does not recover it again until the natural degree of warmth be restored. Previous to the restoration of heat, therefore, to a are useless, and so far as they interfere with the other measures, are also prejudicial. The practice of rubbing the body with salt or spirits is now justly condemned. The salt quickly frets the skin, and

sensibility, let an assistant moisten his flexible tube. The quantity of fluid thrown part: in this way evaporation is prevented, the addition of one or other of the and the full stimulant effect of the application obtained. A liniment composed using, however, only half the quantities of equal parts of spirit of hartshorn and mentioned there. As soon as the pulse or sallad oil, well shaken together, would beating of the heart can be felt, the inside appear to be sufficiently stimulating for of the nostrils may be occasionally touchthe purpose, and as it evaporates very ed with a feather dipt in spirit of hartsslowly, will admit of being rubbed on horn, or sharp mustard; it being found by without producing cold. The places to experience, that any irritation given to without producing cold. The places to experience, that any irritation given to which such remedies are usually applied, the nose, has considerable influence in are, the wrists, ankles, temples, and the exciting the action of the muscles concernparts opposite the stomach and heart, ed in respiration. When the natural The intestines, from their internal situation breathing commences, the flexible tube and peculiar constitution, retain their irribation that may be necessary, body, and, accordingly, various means performed by blowns into the pasts. and peculiar constitution, retain their irritability longer than the other parts of the body, and, accordingly, various means have been proposed for increasing the action of their fibres, in order to restore activity of the whole system. Tobaccosmoke, injected by way of clyster, is what has been generally employed with this view, and the fumigator, or instrument for administering it, makes a part of the apparatus which is at present distributed by the different societies established for the recovery of drowned persons. Of late, however, the use of tobacco-smoke has been objected to, and upon very strong grounds; for when we consider that the same remedy is successfully employed with the very opposite intention, namely, that of lessening the power of contraction in the muscles, and occasioning the greatset relaxation consistent with life, it must be acknowledged to be a very doubtful, if not dangerous remedy, where the powers of life are already nearly exhausted. Instead of tobacco-smoke then, we would recommend a clyster, consisting of a pint or more of water, moderately warmed, withthe addition of one or two table-spoonful of essence of peppermint: in defect of one or other of these, half a gill or more, of rum, brandy, or gin may be added, or the warm water given alone. or more, of rum, brandy, or gin may be yet known, and capable of exciting con-added, or the warm water given alone, traction in the heart and other muscles of This step however, need not be taken, the body, after every other stimulus had until artificial respiration has been begun; ceased to produce the least effect. Modefor it will answer but little purpose to sti-rate shocks are found to answer best, and mulate the heart through the medium of these should, at intervals, bepassed through the intestines, unless we, at the same time, the chest in different directions, in order, supply the left cavity with blood fitted to if possible, to rouse the heart to act act upon it; which we cannot do without Shocks may likewise be sent through the first removing the collapsed state of the limbs, and along the spine; but we are lungs, and promoting the passage of the doubtful how far it is safe or useful to pass blood through them by a regular inflation, them through the brain, as some have re-As the stomach is a highly sensible part, commended. The body may be conveand intimately connected with the heart niently insulated, by placing it on a door, and brain, the introductoin of some mode- supported by a number of quart bottles, rately warm and stimulating liquor into whose sides are previously wiped with a it, seems well calculated to rouse the dor- towel to remove any moisture they may mant powers of life. This is very conve- have contracted. By experiments made

the skin has in any degree recovered its niently done by means of the syringe and hand with spirit of hartshorn, or ean de in ought not to exceed half a pint, and luce, and hold it closely applied to one may be either warm negus, or water with

on different animals, it is found that the pain in the breast or side, increased on when they are fully distended with air; consequently, that if the lungs of a drowned person are inflated, and kept in the expanded state whilst the electric shock is passed through the chest, the blood accumulated in the right cavity of the heart and its vessels, will move forward without any resistance, should the heart be brought to contract upon it. As soon as the shock air they contain, and filled again with fresh air; then pass another shock, and repeat this until the heart is brought into action, or until it appear that all farther attempts are useless. In order more certainly to pass the shock through the heart, place the knob of one discharging rod above the collar-bone of the right side, and the knob of the other above the short ribs of the left: the position of the discharging rods, however, may be changed occasionally, so as to vary the direction of the shock. Two thick brass wires, each about eighteen inches long, passed through the two glass tubes, or wooden cases, well varnished, and having at one end a knob, and at the other a ring to fasten the brass chain to, form very convenient discharging rods; and by means of them, the shock may be administered without the risk of enlarged, and prominent. On dissection, its being communicated to the assistants, the blood-vessels of the brain are found or carried off by the skin being wet, considerably distended; but in general, When the patient is so far recovered as to no further marks of disease appear within be able to swallow, he should be put into the skull. The lungs are found generally a warm bed, with his head and shoulders quite collapsed, and free from frothy somewhat raised by means of pillows. matter. The heart and the large blood-Plenty of warm wine-whey, ale-posset, or vessels adjoining to it, exhibit the same other light and moderately nourishing appearances as in the bodies of drowned drink, should now be given, and gentle persons. From the great accumulation of sweating promoted, by wrapping the feet and legs in flannels well wrung out of hot water. If the stomach and bowels feel distended and uneasy, a clyster, consisting of a pint of warm water, with a table spoonful of common salt, or an ounce or more of Glauber's or Epsom salt, dissolved in it, may be administered. The general practice, in this case, is to give an emetic; but considering that the powers of the machine are still very weak, the agitation of vomiting is certainly hazardous. The patient should on no account be left alone, until the senses are perfectly restored, and he be able to assist himself; several persons having relapsed and been lost, from want of proper attention to them, after the vital functions were, to all appearance, completely established. Either from the distention which the arteries of the lungs have suffered, or from the sudden change from great coldness to considerable warmth, it now and then happens, that the patient is attacked, soon after recovery, with inflammation of some of the parts within the chest. This occurrence is pointed out by

blood passes through the lungs most readily inspiration, and accompanied with frequent, and full or hard pulse, and sometimes with cough. Here the taking away some blood from the arm, or the application of cupping-glasses, leeches, or a blister, over the seat of the pain, will be very proper; but the necessity for these measures, as well as the time for putting them in practice, should be left to the judgment and discretion of a medical person. Dull pain in is given, let the lungs be emptied of the the head, lasting sometimes for two or three days, is by no means an unfrequent complaint in those who are recovered from this and from the other states of suspended animation; and here also a moderate bleeding from the neck, either with the lancet or with cupping-glasses, may prove serviceable.

> In hanging the external veins of the neck are compressed by the cord, and the return of the blood from the head thereby impeded, from the moment that suspension takes place; but as the heart continues to act for a few seconds after the wind-pipe is closed, the blood which is sent to the head during this interval, is necessarily accumulated there. Hence it is, that in hanged persons the face is greatly swoln, and of a dark red or purple colour: the eyes are commonly suffused with blood, blood in the vessels of the head, many have been of opinion, that hanging kills chiefly by inducing apoplexy; but the following experiment made at Edinburgh several years ago, by an eminent medical professor there, clearly proves, that in hanging, as well as in drowning, the exclusion of air from the lungs is the immediate cause of A dog was suspended by the death. neck with a cord, an opening having been previously made in the wind-pipe, below that place where the cord was applied, so as to admit air into the lungs. In this state he was allowed to hang for three quarters of an hour, during which time the circulation and breathing went on-He was then cut down, without appearing to have suffered much from the experiment. The cord was now shifted below the opening into the wind-pipe, so as to prevent the ingress of air to the lungs; and the animal being again suspended, he was completely dead in a few minutes. Upon the whole, then, it appears, that the same measures recommended for drowned persons, are also necessary here:

wish this addition, that opening the jugular are inserted into that part of the back of veins, or applying cupping-glasses to the the ear which is opposite to the septum neck, will tend considerably to facilitate which divides the concha and scapha. the restoration of life, by lessening the Their use is to draw the ear backwards, the restoration of life, by lessening the quantity of blood contained in the vessels of the head, and thereby taking off the pressure from the brain. Except in persons who are very full of blood, the quantity taken away need seldom exceed an ordinary tea cupful, which will in general be sufficient to unload the vessels of the head, without weakening the powers of lifc.

RETE. A net. A congeries of vessels, or any animal substance resembling a net. RETE MALPHIGIT. A fine net-work of the extremities of the pulmonary arteries.

RETE MIRABILE. A net-work of bloodvessels in the basis of the brain of quad-

rupeds.

RETE MUCOSUM. Corpus reticulare. Corpus mucosum. Mucus Malphigii. mucous substance, deposited, in a net-like form, between the epidermis and cutis, which covers the sensible cutaneous papilla, connects the epidermis with the cutis, and gives the colour to the body: in Europeans it is of a white colour, in Ethiopians black. See Skin.

RETICULAR. (Rationlaris, from rete,

a net.) Interwoven like a net.

RETIFORM. (Retiformis, from rete, a net, and forma, resemblance.) Net-like.

RETINA. (From rete, a net.) phiblestroides. The third or innermost membrane of the eye, expanded round the choroid coat, to the ciliary ligament. It is the true organ of vision, and is formed by an expansion of the pulp of the optic nerve.

RETINACULUM. (From retineo, to prop or restrain.) An instrument for keeping

the bowels in their place.
RETORT. (Retorta, from retorqueo, to bend back again; probably so called because its neck was curved and bent back again.) A chemical vessel employed for many distillations, and most frequently for those which require a degree of heat superior to that of boiling water. They differ in form and materials: when pierced with a little hole in their roof, they are called tubulated retorts. They are made of common glass, stone ware, and iron

RETRACTOR ANGULI ONIS. See Buccina-

RETRAHENTES AURIS. Posterior auris of Winslow. Retrahentes auricula of Albinus. Deprimens auricula of Doug-Retrahentes auriculam of Cowper, and mastoido conchinien of Dumas small bundles of muscular fibres which was held by him, we have the following arise from the external and posterior part proof: " From the perfect similarity of of the mastoid process of the temporal this root with the best foreign rhubarb, in bone immediately above the insertion of taste, smell, colour, and purgative qualithe sterno-cleido-mastoideus muscle. They ties, we cannot doubt of our being at last

and stretch the concha.

Retrocedent gout. See Arthritis.

RETROVERSION. See Uterus, Retroversion of.

REVERBATORY FURNACE. See Fur-

REVULSION. (Revulsio, from revello, to draw away.) An old term used by, the humoral pathologists, signifying the drawing of humours a contrary way.

RHABARBARUM. (From Rha, and barbarus, wild; so called because it was brought from the banks of the Rha, now called the Wolgar, in Russia.) Lapathum Rheum. Rhaum. Barbaria. orientale. Lapathum chinense. rum verum. Rhabarbarum tartaricum. Rhubarb. It was not until the year 1732 that naturalists became acquainted with any plant which seemed to afford the Rhabarbarum officinale, when some plants received from Russia by Jussieu at Paris, and Rhaud at Chelsea, were said to supply this important desideratum, and as such were adopted by Linnaus, in his first edition of the species Plantarum, under the name of Rheum Rhabarbarum. This, however, was not generally received as the genuine rhubarb plant; and with a view to ascertain this matter more completely, Kaw Boerhaave procured from a Tartarian rhubarb merchant the seeds of those plants whose roots he annually sold, and which were admitted at Petersburgh to be the true rhubarb. These seeds were soon propagated, and were discovered by Gorter to produce two distinct species, viz. the R. Rhabarbarum of Linnæus, or as it has since been called, the R. Undulatum, and another species, a specimen of which was presented to Linnæus, who declared it to be a new one, and was first mentioned in the second edition of the species Plantarum, in 1762, by the name of R Palmatum. Previous to this time De Gorter had repeatedly sent its seeds to Linnæus, but the young plants which they produced constantly perished; at length he obtained the fresh root, which succceded very well at Upsall, and afterwards enabled the younger Linnaus to describe this plant, ann. 1767. But two years antecedent to this, Dr. Hope's account of the Rheum palmatum, as it grew in the botanic garden near Edinburg, had been read before the Royal Society at London; and Two of the great estimation in which this plant

possessed of the plant which produces the moderately purgative. The qualities of true rhubarb, and may reasonably enter- this root, says Dr. Cullen, are that of a tain the agreeable expectation of its proving a very important acquisition to Britain."

RHA

But from the relation we have given, it appears that both the seeds of the R. Palmatum, and the R. Undulatum, were transmitted to Petersburgh, as those of the true rhubarb; we are therefore to conclude, that the former species has an equal claim to this importance with the latter; and from further inquiries made in Russia, there is the best authority for believing that the R. Compactum also affords this very useful drug. The seeds of the R. Palmatum were first introduced into Britain in 1762, by Dr. Hounsy (who sent them from Russia,) and were supposed to be a part of that already mentioned; and since their prosperous cultivation by the late professor of botany at Edinburgh, the propagation of this plant has been gradually extended to most of our English gardens, and with a degree of success which promises in time to supersede the importation of the foreign root. Two sorts of rhubarb roots are usually imported into this country for medical use, viz. the Chinese, and the Tartary rhubarb; the first is in oblong pieces, flattish on one side, and convex on the other; compact, h rd, heavy, internally of a dull red colour, variegated with yellow and white, and when recently powdered, appears yellow, but on being kept becomes gra-dually redder. The second is the most valuable, and is brought to us in roundish pieces, with a large hole through the middle of each; it is more soft and friable than the former sort, and exhibits, when broken, many streaks of a bright red colour. "The marks of the goodness of rhubarb are, the liveliness of its colour when cut; its being firm and solid, but not flinty or hard; its being easily pulverable, and appearing when powdered of a fine bright yellow colour; its imparting to the spittle when chewed a deep saffron tinge, and not proving slimy or mucilagi-nous in the mouth; its taste is subacrid, bitterish, and somewhat styptic; the smell lightly aromatic."

The purgative qualities of rhubarb are extracted more perfectly by water than by rectified spirit: the root remaining after ponticum. the action of water is almost if not wholly inactive; whereas after repeated digestion in spirit, it proves still very considerably purgative. The virtue of a watery infusion, on being inspissated by a gentle heat is so much diminished, that a drachm of the extract is said to have scarcely any greater effect than a scruple of the root in the Rumex patientia of Linnxus, and, acoustance. The spirituous tincture loses cording to Professor Murray, from the

gentle purgative, and so gentle that it is often inconvenient on account of the bulk of the dose required, which in adults must be from 3ss to 3j. When given in a large dose it will occasion some griping, as other purgatives do; but it is hardly ever heating to the system, or shows the other effects of the more drastic purgatives. The purgative quality is accompanied with a bitterness, which is often useful in restoring the tone of the stomach when it has been lost; and, for the most part, its bitterness makes it sit better on the stomach than many other purgatives do. Its operation joins well with neutral laxatives; and both together operate in a lesser dose than either of them would singly. Some degree of stypticity is always evident in this medicine; and as this quality acts when that of the purgative has ceased, so, in cases of diarrhæa, when any evacuation is proper, rhubarb has been considered as the most proper remedy to be employed. It must, however, be remarked here, that in many cases of diarrhoa, no further evacuation than what is occasioned by the disease, is necessary or proper. The use of rhubarb, in substance, for keeping the belly regular, for which it is frequently employed, is by no means proper, as the adstringent quality is ready to undo what the purgative has done; but it is found that the purpose mentioned may be obtained by it, if the rhubarb is chewed in the mouth, and no more is swallowed than what the saliva has dissolved. And it must be remarked, that in this way employed it is very useful to dyspeptic persons. Analogous to this, is the use of rhubarb in solution, in which it appears to me, that the adstringent quality is not so largely extracted as to operate so powerfully as when the rhubarb was employed in substance."

The officinal preparations of this drug are, a watery and a vinous infusion, a simple and a compound tincture. It is also an ingredient in different compositions; as, the elixir ex aloe et rheo, pilulæ stomachica, and some others.

See Mechoac-RHABARBARUM ALBUM.

RHABARBARUM ANTIQUORUM. See Rha-

RHABARBARUM DIOSCORIDIS. See Rhaponticum.

RHABARBARUM MONACHORUM. Hippolapathum. Patentia. Monks rhubarb. Garden patience. This root, which is supposed to possess the virtues of rhubarb, but in an inferior degree, is obtained from less; half a drachm of this extract proving Rumex alpinus of Linnaus. It is obviously very far short of its purgative virtue

directed for medicinal purposes by this name is the Rheum undulatum; foliis subvillosis undulatis petiolis aqualibus of Lin- Centaurtum majus. Greater centaury. The næus la possesses similar virtues to those of the palmate species, and is in common use in Russia.

RUABARBARUM TARTARICUM. See Rhabarbarum.

RHABARBARUM VERUM. See Rhabarbarum.

Ruschialdia. (From gazis, the spine of the back, and axyes, pain.) A pain in the spine of the back.

RACHIS ('Paxis, the spine of the back.)

See Spine.

RHACHISAGRA. (From gazis, the spine of the back, and ayea, a prey.) A species of gout fixed in the spine of the back.

RHACHITA. (From gazis, the spine of the back.) A muscle belonging to the spine of the back.

Ruscuitis. See Ruchitis.

Ruacosis. (From ganos, a rag.) ragged excoriation of the relaxed scrotum.

RHAGADES (From gnyvout, to break or bruise.) Chaps. Clefts. Malignaut, dry, and deep c taneous fissures.

RHAGOIDES. (From gag, a grape-berry, and sides, a likeness; so called from its likeness in colour to a grape-seed ) Applied to the retiform tunic of the eye.

RHAMNI BACCÆ. Buckthorn-berries

RHAMNUS. (From gaio, to destroy, because of its many thorus ) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Buckthorn.

RHAMNUS CATHARTICUS. The systematic name of the buckthorn. See Spina

The systematic RHAMNUS FRANGULA. name of the black alder. See Fran-

The systematic RHAMNUS ZIZYPHUS. name of the tree which affords the jujubs. See Jujuba.

RHAPHANUS. See Raphanus.

RHAPONTIC. A term applied to rhu-

Rhapontic, rhubarb. See cum.

RHAPONTICUM. (The Rha of Pontus, i. e. the Rha, in Russia, a river on whose banks it grew.) Rhabarbarum dioscoridis. Rhabarbarum antiquorum. The root of this plant, Rheum rhaponticum of Linnæus, appears to have been the true rhubarb of rheumatici et arthritici of Hoffman. Myothe ancients. By some it is confounded with the modern rhubarb, though consi- its being formerly used in the same sense derably different from that root in appear- as rheuma; but, in the present day, the ance, as well as in quality. The rhapontic meaning of this word is applied to a genus

more adstringent than rhubarb, but comes loose spongy texture; is more adstringent than rlinbarb, and less purgative; in this RUABARBARUM SIBIRICUM. The plant last intention, two or three drachms are required for a dose.

RHAPONTICCM VULGARE OFFICINARUM. root of this plan Centaurea centaureum of Linnaus, was formerly used as an aperient and corroborant in alvine fluxes. It is now totally discarded from the Materia Medica

of this country.

RHATANIA. This substance has been long known to the manufacturers of port wine; it is the production of Peru, and is probably the root of the cinchona cordifolia. It is described as externally resembring the root of the rubia tinctorum, to the taste, being aromatic, bitter and veryadstringent; its infusion or decoction turns black with sulphate of iron and precipitates tannin. The principal virtues appear to reside in the cortical part of the root which is thick and resinous. An opinion prevails that the substance sold in the shops under the name of foreign extract of bark is made from the rhatania.

It is well known that the medical virtues of this root are powerfully tonic. In debility of the digestive organs, in chronic rheumatism, fluor albus, and in intermittent fevers it has been employ d with good effect. While given in doses similar to cinchona, it has the advantage of being only one third

the price of that substance.

RHEI RADIX. Rhubarb root.

RHEUME. (From gsw, to flow.) A defluxion, a common cold or catarrh.

RHEUM. (From Rha, a river in Russia.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Enneandria. Order, Trigynia. See Rhubarbarum.

RHEUM PALMATUM. The systematic name of the officinal rhubarb. See Rhabarbarum.

The systematic RHEUM RHAPONTICUM. name of the rhapontic rhubarb. See Rhaponticum.

The systematic RHEUM UNDULATUM. name of the officinal rhabarbarum sibiri-See Rhabarbaricum sibiricum.

RHEUMA. (From 510, to flow.) discharge from the nostrils or lungs arising from cold: hence the following lines Rhaponti- of the school of Salernum :

Si fluit ad pectus, dicatur rheuma cetarrhus,

Ad funces branchus, ad nares esto cornza.

RHEUMATISMUS. (From psuparize, to be afflicted with defluxions.) Dolores sitis of Sagar. This term is so called from is of a dusky colour on its surface, and a of disease in the class pyrexie, and order phlegmasia of Cullen; characterised by occasioning any inflammation or fever; pyrexia, pains in the joints, increased by and in this manner the complaint continues the action of the muscles belonging to the often for a considerable time, and at length joint, and heat on the part. The blood, goes off. after venesection, exhibits an indammatory crust. arthrodynia, lumbago, and ischias. Rheu- attacked with it, is ever afterwards more matism is distinguished into acute and or less liable to returns of it; and an inchronic. The acute is preceded by shiver- curable anchylosis is sometimes formed, in ing, heat, thirst, and frequent pulse; after consequence of very frequent relapses, which the pain commences, and soon fixes Neither is the acute rheumatism frequently on the joints. The chronic rheumatism is accompanied with much danger; but, in a distinguished by pain in the joints, without few instances, the patient has been depyrexia, and is divided into three species; stroyed by general inflammation, and, now lumbago, affecting the loins; and ischias, and then, by a metastasis to some vital or schiatica, affecting the hip, and arthro-part, such as the head and lungs. Acute dynia, or pains in the joints. The acute rheumatism, although accompanied with a species mostly terminate in one of these considerable degree of inflammation in

Rheumatism may arise at all times of the year, when there are frequent vicissitudes of the weather, from heat to cold, but the spring and autumn are the seasons in which it is most prevalent; and it attacks persons of all ages; but very young people are less subject to it than adults.

Obstructed perspiration, occasioned either by wearing wet clothes, laying in damp linen, or damp rooms, or by being exposed to cool air when the body has been much heated by exercise, is the cause which usually produces rheumatism. Those who are much afflicted with this complaint, are very apt to be sensible of the approach of wet weather, by finding wandering pains about them at that period.

Acute rheumatism usually comes on with lassitude and rigors, succeeded by heat, thirst, anxiety, restlessness, and a hard pulse; soon after which, excruciating pains are felt in different parts of the body, but more particularly in the joints of the shoulder, wrist, knees, and ankles, or perhaps in the hip; and these keep shifting from one joint to another, leaving a redness and swelling in every part they have occupied, as likewise a great tendency to Towards evening there is the touch. usually an exacerbation, or increase of fever; and, during the night, the pains be- of the root resides. Poultices in which come more severe, and shift from one joint to another.

Early in the course of the disease, some degree of sweating usually occurs; but it is seldom so copious as either to remove the pains or to prove critical. In the beginning, the urine is without any sediment; but as the disease advances in its progress, and the fever admits of considerable remissions, a lateritious sediment is deposited; but this by no means proves critical.

Chronic rheumatism is attended with pains in the head, shoulders, knees, and other large joints, which at times are confined to one particular part, and at others rose, and foregon, a tree; so called beshift from one joint to another, without cause its flowers resemble the rose.) 1.

No danger is attendant on chronic rheu. Rheumatism terminates in matism; but a person having been once particular parts, has seldom been known to terminate in suppuration; but a serous or gelatinous effusion takes place.

Rheumatism seldom proving fatal, very few opportunities have offered for dissections of the disease. In the few which have occurred, the same appearances have been observed in inflammatory fever, as effusion within the cranium, and now and then affections of some of the viscera.

RHIBESIA. (From ribes, a currant.) See Ribes nigrum, Ribes rubrum, and Fruits, summer.

RHINÆUS. (Rhinæus, sc. musculus; from piv, the nose.) See Compressor naris. RHINENCHYTES. (From giv, the nose, and εγχυω, to pour in.) A syringe for the

RHINOPHONIA. (From gir, the nose, and owen, the voice.) A nasal voice.

RHIZAGRA. (From eiga, the root, and ayeeva, to seize.) An instrument for taking out the roots or stumps of teeth.

RHODIA. (From godov, a rose; so called because its root smells like the damask rose.) The radix rhodiz of some pharmacopæias is the produce of the Rhodiola rosea of Linnæus, called rose-wort. When dry, it has a very pleasant smell, resembling that of the damask rose. In this odorous matter the medical virtue this root enters as a chief ingredient are said to allay violent pains of the head

Rhodium Lignum. (From godov, a rose; a wood which smells like roses.) Rhodium, or rose-wood. The wood or root of a tree supposed to be the Genista canariensis of Linnæus. It is brought from the Canary islands. An essential oil is obtained from it, which is used principally as a perfume, but passesses cordial and corroborant virtues. It is also an ingredient in the composition of powders for the destruction of rats.

RHODODENDRON. (From podov, a The name of a genus of plants in the Cervici dorso scapulaire of Dumas.

Monogynia.

oleander. rhododendron. Siberia, affecting mountainous situations, and flowering in June and July.

Haller. Little attention, however, was paid to it, till the year 1779, when it was strongly recommended by Koelpin as an cflicacious medicine, not only in rhcumatism and gont, but even in venereal cases; and it is now very generally employed in chronic rheumatisms, in various parts of Europe. The leaves, which are the part directed for medicinal use, have a bitterish subadstringent taste. Taken in a large dose, they prove a narcotic poison; and, in moderate doses, they are said to occasion heat, thirst, a degree of dehrium, and a peculiar sensation of the parts affected.

As a powerful and active medicine, this shrub, says Dr. Woodville, may probably be found an addition to the materia medica. Dr. Home, who tried it insuccessfully in some cases of acute rhoumatism, says, "It appears to be one of the most powerful sedatives which we have, as, in most of the trials, it made the pulse remarkably slow, and in one patient reduced it to thirty-eight beats. And in other cases, in which the rhododendron has been used at Edinburgh, it has been productive of good effects, and accordingly it is now introduced into the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia." The manner of using this plant by the Siberians, was by putting two drachms of the dried leaves in an carthen pot, with about ten ounces of boiling water, keeping it near a boiling heat for a night; and this they took in the morning, and by repeating it three or four times, generally effected a

RHODODENDRON CHRYSANTHEMUM. The systematic name of the oleander, or rosebay. See Rhododendron.

RHODOLA ROSEA. The systematic name

of the rose-wort. See Rhodia. RHODOMELI. (From godov, the rose, and

RIGEADOS PETALA, Red poppy petals. RHCEAS. (From gew, to flow.) The wild

poppy is sometimes so called. See Papaver erraticum.

RHOMBOIDEUS. (From populos, a geometrical figure, whose sides are equal but when in the greatest vigour, about the not right-angled, and usor, resemblance.) month of June. "Those who cut this Rhomboideus major and minor. Rhomboides plant," says Dr. F. "wear leathern gloves.

Linnwan system. Class, Decandria. Order, muscle, which is so named from its shape, is situated immediately under the trape-2. The pharmacopoial name of the zius. We find it usually, though not always, cander. Rose-bay. Yellow-flowered divided into two portions, which Albimus Rhododendron chrysanthe- describes as two distinct muscles. The mum Linnæi :- foliis oblongis impunctis su- uppermost of these, or rhomboideus minor, fra scabris venosissimis, corolla rotata irre- arises tendinous from the spinous process gulari, gemma florifera ferrugiueo-tomentosa. of the three inferior vertebræ of the neck, This species of rhododendron has not yet and from the ligamentum colli; the lowerbeen introduced in Britain; it is a native of most, or rhomboideus major, arises tendinous from the spinous processes of the back: the former is inserted into the basis This plant and its medical virtues were of the scapula, opposite to its spine; the first described in 1747, by Gmelin and latter into all the basis of the scapula, below its spine. Its use is to draw the scapula obliquely upwards, and directly back-

> RHOPALOSIS. (From gomaxor, a club.) A disorder in which the hair cleaves together, and hangs down in clusters resembling clubs. The plaited hair.

Rhubarb. See Rhabarbarum.

Rhubarb, monks. See Rhabarbarum monuchorum.

Rhubarb, rhupontic. See Rhaponticum. RHUS. (From geo, to flow: so called because it stops fluxes) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Trigynia. The sumach-trec.

RHUS BELGICA. The Dutch myrtle is sometimes so termed. See Myrtus braban-

RHUS COBIARIA, Sce Sumach.

Raus Habicans. A poisonous plant, Rhus vernix of Linnaus, the efficacy of which Dr. Fresnoi has endeavoured to prove, in the disease called paralysis, and herpetic affections. He, in order that others should not suffer by his experiments, began by taking an infusion of one of the three folioli, of which each leaf of this plant consists; and as this dose produced no sensible effect, he increased the number to twelve. His urine and perspiration were increased in quantity, and he had some pains in his belly. He relates seven cases, in which he thinks he can remove all doubt of the efficacy of this infusion, in herpetic affections. From these the following are selected:

"A country woman," says Dr. Fresnoi, "came to me in the month of July, 1780. to consult me about the herpes farinosa, with which her face had been covered for more than a year. She was ordered to make an infusion of this plant; and, in six weeks, was entirely free from the disease."

He likewise relates five cases of paralysis, which were cured by the use of this

The leaves of this plant are to be cut of Douglas, Winslow, and Cowper; and on account of its poisonous qualities." The

same gentleman observes, he saw one case diuretica. The officinal preparations of in which inflammation of the eye-lids was the berries are the syrupus ribus nigri, and produced by the vapour from the plant.

Four pounds of the leaves being distilled with thirty-two pounds of water, gives it a spinosa. The red currant. Ribes rubrum with the red currant. slight odour, although the plant is entirely of Linnæus:—inerme, racemis glabris pen-free from it. Its taste is pungent, and dulis, floribus planiusculis. The white inflames the mouth. The decoction which current-tree is merely a variety of the red, remains in the still is brown, and is gene- the fruit of both is perfectly analogous; rally covered with a light brown pellicle, therefore what is said of the one applies to When strained and evaporated, it gives a the other. The red currant is abundantly shining black extract. The leaves inflame cultivated in gardens, and, from its grateand swell the hands and arms of those who ful acidity, is universally accepted, either take them out of the still, and brings on an as nature presents it, or variously prepared itching, which remains for several days, by art, with the addition of sugar. Conforty-two pounds of the leaves afford sidered medicinally, it is esteemed to be twenty ounces of extract, of a proper con- moderately refrigerant, antiseptic, attenusistence for pills.

noi, "already subject to fits, laid down most febrile complaints, to lessen an insome flowers in her bed room. Next day creased secretion of bile, and to correct a she told me that she had undergone a putrid and scorbutic state of the fluids, great change; that she had had no fits, and especially in sanguine temperaments; but, slept much better. It occurred to me," in constitutions of a contrary kind, it is apt says Dr. F. " that the flowers occasioned to occasion flatulency and indigestion. this change. Next day, the flowers being removed, and the window opened, the convulsions re-appeared; on their being are the long curved bones which are placed again introduced, the fits disappeared; in an oblique direction at the sides of the which proved plainly it was the effect of chest. Their number is generally twelve this change. Next day, the flowers being the flowers. The success of the extract in on each side; but, in some subjects, it has tussis convulsiva exceeded my hopes; been found to be thirteen, and in others, forty-two children being cured of this dis- though more rarely, only eleven. They order in Valenciennes, during the end of are distinguished into true and false ribs. the year 1786. Four grains of extract The seven upper ribs, which are articudissolved in four ounces of syrup, of which lated to the sternum, are called true ribs; one table spoonful given to the child every and the five lower ones, which are not imthird hour, generally abates the cough, mediately attached to that bone, are called and mostly leaves them.

of a species of sumach which exudes a each other, and formed in the upper and poisonous resin. See Rhus radicans.

A decrease or defect of the lachrymal ca- of the spine. This articulation, which is runcle. The proximate cause is a native secured by a capsular ligament, is a spedefect; or it may originate from excision, cies of ginglimus, and allows only of moerosion, or acrimony. This disorder is tion upwards and downwards. The head commonly incurable, and it induces an in- of each rib is supported by a short neck, curable ephiphora, or a continual weeping. and immediately beyond this we find a

RHYTIDOSIS. See Rutidosis.

in the Linnean system. Class, Pentandria. lated with the transverse process of the

Order, Monogynia

Linnæus :- rucemis pilosis, floribus oblongis, makes a considerable curve, which is usuaffords larger berries than those of the ally called its angle. From the tubercle red, which are said to be peculiarly useful to the angle the ribs are of considerable in sore throats, and to possess a diuretic thickness, and approaching to a cylindrical power in a very considerable degree. The shape; but, from the angle to their anteleaves of the black currant are extremely rior extremity, they become thinner and fragrant, and have been likewise recomflatter. To this anterior extremity is fixed mended for their medicinal virtue, which a long, broad, and strong cartilage, which, Bergius states to be mundificans, pellens, in each of the true ribs, reaches to the

ant, and aperient. It may be used with "A gorl, in Flanders," says Dr. Fres- considerable advantage to allay thirst, in

and mostly leaves them.

RHUS TIPHINUM. The systematic name each rib we observe a small head, divided of the Virginian sumach, whose seeds are by a midde ridge into two articulating said to be useful in stopping harmorrhages. surfaces, covered with cartilage, which are RHUS VERNIX. The systematic name received into two cavities contiguous to lower part of each dorsal vertcbra, as we RHYAS. (puas, a disease of the eye.) have already observed in our description flattened tubercle, affording an oblong and RIBES. The name of a genus of plants slightly convex surface, which is articulowest of the two dorsal vertebra, with RIBES NIGRUM. Black currant which its head is articulated. At some This indigenous plant, Ribes nigrum of little distance from this tuberosity, the rib

sternum, where its articulation is secured other ten tribes, the two last only excepted, and seventh ribs being longer than the which is about on a level with the fifth rib. The eartilages of these two ribs are usually united into one, so as to leave no space between them. The false ribs are shorter than that of the rib above it. The and other soft parts.

slightly concave. On the inferior and in- served, their cartilages are short and loose, terior surface of these bones we observe a not being attached to the eartilages of the long fossa, for the lodgment of the intereos- other ribs; and this seems to be, because tal vessels and nerves. This channel, how- the most considerable motions of the ever, does not extend through the whole trunk are not performed on the lumbar length of the rib, being observable neither vertebra alone, but likewise on the lower at the posterior extremity, where the ves- vertebræ of the back; so that if these two sels have not yet reached the bone, nor at ribs had been confined anteriorly, like the the fore end, where they are distributed rest, and likewise united to the bodies of to the parts between the ribs. We seldom two vertebra, and to the transverse prosee any marks of it in the short ribs, as in cess, this disposition would have impeded the first, second, eleventh, and twelfth.

which is applicable to the ribs in general; but, as we find them differing from each other in shape, length, situation, and other respects, it will be right to speak of each

rib in particular.

The first rib, which is the shortest of any, is likewise the most curved. It is broader than the other ribs, and, instead of being placed, as they are, obliquely, and with its edges upwards and downwards, it is situated nearly in a transverse direction, one of its edges being placed inwards, or nearly so. Of these edges, the inner one is sharp, and the outer one somewhat rounded. Its inner surface is smooth, and its superior surface is sometimes slightly depressed anteriorly by the clavicle. The head of in the Linnzan system. Class, Monoecia. this rib, instead of being angular, is flattened, and slightly convex, being received into a cavity, which is formed wholly in which affords the seed from which the the first vertebra, and not by two verte-bræ, as is the case with the other ribs.

but shorter than the ribs below it. Its an-palmatis serratis. This plant appears to be gle is placed at a small distance from its the Kini, or  $Kgo\tau\alpha r$ , of Dioscorides, who tuberosity, and its head is articulated with observes, that the seeds are powerfully two vertebra, like the other ribs. The cathartie; it is also mentioned by Ætius,

by a capsular ligament, and by other liga- differ from the general description we have mentous fibres. The cartilages of the sixth given, chiefly in the difference of their length, which goes on gradually increasing, rest, are extended upwards, in order to from the first or uppermost, to the seventh reach the sternum, the inferior portion of or last of the true ribs, and as gradually diminishing from that to the twelfth. Their obliquity, in respect to the spine, likewise increases as they descend, as does the distance between the head and angle of each supported in a different manner; their ear- rib, from the first rib to the ninth. The tilages terminate in an acute point before two lowest ribs differ from all the rest in they reach the sternum, the eighth rib be- the following particulars:- Their heads, ing attached by its cartilage to the lower like that of the first rib, are rounded, and reedge of the cartilage of the seventh, or last ceived into a cavity formed entirely in the of the true ribs; the minth in the same body of one vertebra; they have no tubercle manuer to the eighth; and the tenth to for their articulation with the transverse the ninth; the cartilages of each rib being processes, to which they are only loosely fixed by ligaments, and, in this respect, the eleventh and twelfth, which are the two tenth rib is sometimes found to agree with lowermost ribs, are not fixed at their an- them: they are much shorter than the rest terior extremities like the other ribs, but of the false ribs, and the twelfth is still hang loose, and are supported only by shorter than the eleventh. The length of their ligamentous fibres, and by muscles the latter, however, is different in different subjects, and is not always found to be The external surface of each rib is some- the same on both sides in the same skewhat convex, and its internal surface leton. Anteriorly, as we have already obthe motion of the two last vertebræ of the Thus far we have given a description, back, and consequently would have affected the motion of the trunk in general.

The use of the ribs is to give form to the thorax, and to cover and defend the lungs; also assist in breathing; for they are joined to the vertebræ by regular hinges, which allow of short motions, and to the sternum by cartilages, which yield to the motion of the ribs, and return again when the muscles cease to act.

Ribwort. The Plantago lanceolata of Linnæus, or narrow-leaved plantain, is sometimes so termed,

Rice. See Oryza,

RICINUS. (Quasi giv xume, a dog's nose; because they stick to the noses of dogs.) 1. The name of a genus of plants

Order, Monadelphia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the plant castor-oil is prepared. Cataputia major. Ricinus vulgaris. Palma christi. Ricinus The second rib is longer than the first, communis of Linnaus:-foliis peltatis sub-

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Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny. The ricinus was first cultivated in England, in the time of Turner, and is now annually reared in many gardens in the neighbourhood of London; and in that of Dr. Saunders, at Highbury, the plant grew to a state of great An oil extracted from the perfection. seeds of this plant, and known by the name of oleum ricini, palma christi, or castor oil, is the drug to which the pharmacopæias refer, and which has lately come into frequent use, as a quick but gentle purgative.

The London College directs this oil to be expressed from the seeds in the same way as that of the oil of almonds, and without the assistance of heat, by which the oil would seem to be obtained in the purest state. However, we have some reason to believe that this method is seldom practised, and that the oil usually employed here is imported from the West Indies, where it is commonly prepared in the following manner:-" The seeds being freed from the husks. or pods, which are gathered upon their turning brown, and when beginning to burst open, are first bruised in a mortar, afterwards tied up in a linen bag, and then thrown into a large pot, with a sufficient quantity of water (about eight gallons to one gallon of the seeds,) and boiled till the oil is risen to the surface, when it is carefully skimmed off, strained, and kept for use. Thus prepared, the oil is entirely free from acrimony, and will stay upon the stomach when it rejects all other medicines." Mr. Long remarks, that the oil intended for medicinal use, is more frequently cold drawn, or extracted from the bruised seeds by means of a handpress. But this is thought more acrimonious than that prepared by coction. Browne is also of this opinion, and prefers the oil prepared by coction to that by expression; he attributes its greater mildness to the action of the fire, observing, that the expressed oil, as well as the mixed juices small fissure. of the seeds, are far more active and violent in their operation.

Dr. Cullen observes, that "this oil, when the stomach can be reconciled to it, is one of the most agreeable purgatives we can employ. It has this partic lar advantage, that it operates sooner after its exhibition than any other purgative I know of, as it commonly operates in two or three hours. It seldom gives any griping, and its operation is generally moderate, to one, two, or three stools only. It is particularly suited to cases of costiveness, and even to cases of spasmodic cholic.

In the West Indies, it is found to be one of the most certain remedies in the dry belly-ache, or colica pictonum. It is seldom found heating or irritating to the rectum; and therefore is sufficiently well suited to hæmorrhoidal persons.

The only inconvenience attending the use of this medicine is, that as an oil it is nauseous to some persons; and that, when the dose is large, it occasions sickness at the stomach for some time after it is taken. To obviate these inconveniences, several means have been tried; and it is found that the most effectual means is the addition of a little ardent spirit. In the West Indies, they employ rum; but that I might not withdraw any part of the purgative, I employ the Tinct. sennæ comp. This added, in the proportion of one to three parts of the oil, and very intimately mixed, by being shaken together in a phial, both makes the oil less nauseous to the taste, and makes it sit more easy on the stomach. The common dose of this oil is a tablespoonful, or half an ounce; but many persons require a double quantity.

RICINUS COMMUNIS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the castor-See Ricinus.

RICINUS MAJOR. Ricinoides. Pineus purgans. Pinhones indici. Faba cathartica. Nux cathartica americana. Nux barbaden. An oblong black seed, the produce of the Jairopha curcus; foliis cordatis angulatis of Lineaus. It affords a quantity of oil, which is given, in many places, as the castor-oil is in this country, to which it is very nearly allied. The seeds of the Jatropha multifida are of an oval and triangular shape, of a pale brown colour, are called purging-nuts, and give out a similar oil.

RICINUS VULGARIS. See Ricinus.

Rickets. See Rachitis.

RIGOR. A coldness, attended by a shivering, more or less perfect.

RIMA. A fissure, or opening; as the

rima laryngis, rima vulvæ.

RIMA GLOTTIDIS. The opening of the larynx, through which the air passes in and out of the lungs.

RIMULA. (Dim. of rima, a fissure.)

RINAUS. (From giv, the nose.) See Compressor naris.

Ring-worm. A species of herpes. See Herpes.

RISAGON. See Cassumuniar.

RISUS SARDONICUS. See Sardonic

langh.

ROASTING. A chemical process, generally performed in crucibles, by which mineral substances are divided, some of their principals being volatilized and others changed, so as to prepare them for other operations.

RoB. (Rob, dense, Arabian.) An old

term for an inspissated juice.

ROBORANTS. (Medicamenta roborantia; from roboro, to strengthen ) Strengthening medicines. See Stimulants.

ROCCELLA. The principal use of this plant, Lichan roccella of Linnxus, is as a

blue dyc. It has been employed medicinally with success in allaying the cough use; they are of a pale red colour, and of attendant on phthisis, and in hysterical a very fragrant odour, which, to most

Rochelle salt. Sce Soda tartarisata.

pickles and high seasoned dishes.

Rock oil. See Petroleum. Rock samplire. See Samplire. Rocket, garden. See Eruca. Rocket, Roman. See Eruca. Rocket, wild. See Eruca sylvestris. ROHELLA. See Ros solis.

Ros CALABRINUS. The officinal manna is sometimes so termed.

Ros sours. (Ros, dew.) Rorella. Sundew. This elegant little plant, Drosera rotundifolia of Linnæus :- scapis radicatis; foliis orbiculatis, is said to be so acrid as to ulcerate the skin, and remove warts and corns, and to excite a fatal coughing and delirium in sheep who eat it. It is seldom given medicinally in this country but by the lower orders, who esteem a decoction of it as serviceable in asthmas and coughs.

ROSA. 1. The name of a genus of cordial and analeptic qualities. plants in the Linnean system. Class, Ico-flowers also comain a bitterish su sandria. Order, Polygynia. The rose. which is extracted by water along

2. A name sometimes given to the erysipelas, because it begins with a redness like that of a rose.

ROSA ALBA. The white rose. The flowers of this species possess similar but inferior virtues to those of the damask. They are directed in some officinal prepa-

the dog-rose. See Cynosbatus.

ROSA CENTIFOLIA. The pharmaco-poial and systematic name of the damask rose. Rosa damascena. Rosa pallida. The hispido aculeutis, are valued for their addamask rose. The pharmacopæias direct a stringent qualities, which are most consisyrup to be prepared from the petals of derable before the petals expand; and this rose. Rosa centifolia of Linnaus:— therefore in this state they are chosen for germinibus ovatis pedunculisque hispidis, medicinal use, and ordered by the pharcaule hispido aculeato, petiolis inermibus; macopaias in different preparations, as which is found to be a pleasant and useful those of a conserve, or confection, a honey, laxative for children, or to obviate cos ive- an infusion, and a syrup. The infusion of ness in adults. Most of the roses, though roses is a grateful cooling subadstringent, much cultivated in our gardens, are far from being distinctly characterised. Those morrhagic complaints; its efficacy, howdenominated varieties are extremely nu- ever, depends chiefly on the acid merous, and often permanently uniform; and the specific differences as hitherto pointed out, are in many respects so adequate to the purpose of satisfactory discrimination, that it becomes a difficult matter to distinguish which are species and which are varieties only. The London College, following Gerard and Parkinson, has still retained the name rosa damascena; but the damask rose is another species, widely different from the contifolia, as appears from the description given of it by Du Roi and Miller.

The petals are directed for medicinal people, is extremely agreeable; and therefore this and most of the other roses are ROCKAMBOLE. The Allium scorodophra- much used as nosegays. We may remark, sum of Linnaus. The root is used for however, that, in some instances, they have, under certain circumstances, produced alarming symptoms. The petals "impart their odorous matter to watery liquors, both by infusion and distillation. Six pounds of fresh roses impregnate, by distillation, a gallon, or more, of water, strongly with their fine flavour. On distilling large quantities, there separates from the watery fluid a small portion of a fragrant butyraceous oil, which liquifies by heat, and appears yellow, but concretes in the cold into a white mass. An hundred pounds of the flowers, according to the experiments of Tachenius and Hoffman, afforded scarcely half an ounce of oil." The smell of the oil exactly resembles that of roses, and is therefore much used as a perfume. It possesses very little pungency, and has been highly recommended for its flowers also contain a bitterish substance, which is extracted by water along with the odorous principle, and remains entire in the decoction after the latter has been separated by distillation, or evaporation.

This fixed sapid mater of the petals manifests a purgative quality; and it is on this account that the flowers are received

in the Materia Medica.

ROSA DAMASCENA. See Rosa centifolia.

ROSA CANINA. Rosa sylvestris. The ROSA GALLICA. The pharmaco-pharmacoperal and systematic name of perial and systematic name of the red rose. Rosa rubra The flowers of this species, Rosa gallica of Linnaus:-germinibus ovatis pedunculisque hispidis, caule petiolisque and useful in hæmoptysis, and other hæ-

> Rosa Pallida. See Rosa centifolia. Rosa Rubra. See Rosa gallica.

The dog-rose, or ROSA STLVESTRIS. Rosa canina of Linnxus. See Cynosbatus.

ROSACEA. The term gutta rosacea is applied to little rosy-coloured spots upon the face and nose

Ruse. See Rosa. Ruse, damask. See Rosa centifolia.

Rose, dog. See Cynosbutus et Rosa canina

Rosea radix. See Rhodia. Rose, red. See Rosa gallica.

Rose root. See Rhodia. Rose, white. See Rosa alba.

ROSEBAY WILLOW HERB. This is the Epilobium angustifolium of Linnxus, common in our woods, in moist situations. The young shoots are said to be little inferior to asparagus, when boiled.

Rosemary. See Rosmarinus. Rosewood. See Rhodium lignum. Rosewort. See Rhodia. Rosin. See Resina.

ROSMARINUS (Qnasi rosa, opueiva, because it smells like myrrh.) 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system.

Class, Diandria. Order, Monogymia. 2. The pharmacopæial name of the Rosmarinus hortensis. common rosemary. Libonatis coronaria. Dendrohbanus. Rosmarinus officinalis of Linnæus. The leaves sneezing, drowsiness; about the fourth and tops of this plant have a fragrant aro- day, eroption of small red points, dismatic smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. cernible by the touch, which, after three Rosemary is reckoned one of the most days, end in mealy desquamation. The powerful of those plants which stimulate blood, after venesection, exhibits an in- and corroborate the nervous system; it flammatory crust. In addition to the symphas therefore been recommended in variotoms already related, it is remarkable, ous affections supposed to proceed from that the eyes and eye-lids always shew the debility, or defective excitement of the presence of this disease, being somewhat brain at I nerves, as in certain head-aches, inflamed and suffused with tears. The sydeafness, giddinesses, and in some hysteri- nocha continues during the whole progress cal and dyspeptic symptoms. The offici- of the disease. In systems of nosology, nal preparations of rosemary are, an essen- several varieties of measles are mentioned, tial oil from their leaves, or from the herb but they may all be comprehended under in flower, a conserve of the flowers, and a two heads; the one attended with more spirit formerly called Hungary water, from or less of the symptoms of general inflamthe flowery tops. The tops are also used mation; the other accompanied by a puin the compound spirit of lavender, and trid diathesis. soap liniment.

ROSMARINUS HORTENSIS.

ROSMARINUS OFFICINALIS. tic name of the common rosemary. See

The plant ROSMARINUS SYLVESTRIS. which bears this name in the pharmacopaias, is the Ledum palustre of Linnaus, sons but once in their life; their contagion It has a bitter subadstringent taste, and was formerly used in Switzerland in the place of hops. Its medicinal use is confined to the continent, where it is occasionally given in the cure of hooping-cough, sore throat, dysentery, and exanthematous dis- fever. sickness, and vomiting, as happen eases.

(From rodo, to gnaw; because birds use it to tear their food with.) A beak. The piece of flesh which hangs between the division of the hare-lip is called rostrum leporinum.

Rotang cane. See Sanguis draconis.

ROTATOR. (From roto, to turn.) muscle whose office is to wheel about the thigh.

ROTULA. (Dim. of rota, a wheel; so called from its shape.) See Patella.

Round-leaved sorrel. See Rumex scuta-

ROUND LIGAMENTS. Ligamenta ro-A bundle of vessels and fibres very great, and, in general, the fever runs

contained in a duplicature of the peritonaum, that proceed from the sides of the uterus, through the abdominal ring, and disappear in the pudenda.

RUBEDO. (From ruber, rcd.) A dif. fused, but not spotted, redness in any part of the skin; such as that which arises from

RUBEFACIENTS. (Rubefacientia; from rubefacio, to make red.) Those substances which, when applied a certain time to the skin, induce a redness without blis-

tering. RUBEOLA. (From ruber, red; from rubio, to become red.) Morbilli. The measles A genus of disease in the class pyrexie, and order exanthemata of Cullen: known by synocha, hoarseness, dry cough,

The measles may prevail at all seasons See Rosma- of the year as an epidemic, but the middle of winter is the time they are usually most The systema- prevalent; and they attack persons of all ages, but children are most leable to them. They prove most unfavourable to such as are of a plethoric or scrophulous habit. Like the small-pox, they never affect perappears to be of a specific nature. The eruption is usually preceded by a general uneasiness, chilliness and shivering, pain in the head, in grown persons; but in children, a heaviness and soreness in the throat, in most fevers; but the chief characteristic symptoms are, a heaviness about the eyes, with swelling, inflammation, and a defluxion of sharp tears, and great acuteness of sensation, so that they cannot bear the light without pain, together with a discharge of serous humour from the nostrils, which produces sneezing. The heat, and other febrile symptoms, increase very rapidly; to which succeeds a frequent and dry cough, a stuffing, great oppression, and oftentimes retching to vomit, with violent pains in the loins, and sometimes a looseness; at other times there is great sweating, the tongue foul and white, the thirst regular small pox. The eruptions appear tal. Dropsy has also been known as a conabout the fourth or fifth day, and some- sequence of measles. times about the end of the third. On the third or fourth day from their first appear- on dissections of those who die of measles ance, the reduces diminishes, the spots, or are pretty much confined to the lungs and very small pustules, dry up, the cuticle intestines: the former of which always peals off, and is replaced by a new one, shew strong marks of inflamination, with The symptoms do not go off on the crup- sometimes a tendency to sphacelus. tion, as in the small pox, except the vomiting; the cough and head-ache continue, with the weakness and defluxion on the eyes, and a considerable degree of fever.

On the ninth or eleventh day, no trace of redness is to be found, but the skin assumes its wonted appearance; yet, without there have been some considerable evacuations either by the skin, or by vomiting, the patient will recover strength, but the cough will continue, the fever return with new violence, and bring on great distress

and danger

the limbs, subsultus tendinum, delirium, or what more frequently happens, coma This last symptom so fresupervene. quently attends the cruptive fever of measles, that by some practitioners it is regarded as one of its diagnostics.

In measles, as in other febrile diseases, of the madder-plant. See Rubia. the symptoms generally suffer some remission towards the morning, returning however in the evening with increased severity.

The measles, even when violent, are not usually attended with a putrid tendency; hut it sometimes happens, that such a disposition prevails both in the course of the disease and at its termination.

In such cases petechiæ are to be observed interspersed among the eruptions, and these last become livid, or assume almost a black colour. Hemorrhages break out from different parts of the body, the pulse becomes frequent, feeble, and perhaps irregular, universal debility ensues, and the

patient is destroyed.

In those cases where there is much fever, with great difficulty of breathing, and other symptoms of pneumonic inflamma-tion, or where there is great debility with a tendency to putrescency, there will always be considerable danger; but the consequences attendant on the measles are in general more to be dreaded than the immediate disease; for although a person shall ensue.

quently call into action a disposition to and thirst, and promoting the natural exscrophula, where such happens to exist in cretions. A grateful syrup prepared from the habit.

Another had consequence of the mensles is, that the bowels are often left by them in a very weak state; a chronic diarrhea

much higher than in the milder sort of the remaining which has sometimes proved fa-

The morbid appearances to be observed intestines: the former of which always

Where the patient dies under the eruption, the trachea and larger branches of the bronchia, as in the small-pox, are often covered with it, which Dr Thomas observes may account for the increase of the con h, after the appearance of the irruption.

RUBIA. (From ruber, rea; so called from its red roots.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Te-

tandria. Order, Monogynia.

2 The pharmacopolal name of what is also called Erythrodanum, Rubia major. Radix rubra. Dyer's madder. Rubia tinctorum In the more alarming bases, spasms of of Lunnaus; -folis annuis, caule aculento. The roots of this plant have a bitterish, somewhat austere taste, and a slight smell, not of the agreeable kind. It was formerly considered as a deobstruent, detergent, and diuretic, but it is now very seldom used.

RUMA TINCTORUM. The systematic name

RUBIGO CUPRI. See Verdigris.

Runigo fenni. (Rubigo a colore rubro, from its reddish colour.) Rust of iron. See Carbonas ferri.

RUBINUS. (From ruber, red, so named

from its colour.) A carbuncle.

(From ruber, red, so called RUBUS. from its red fruit.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Icosandria. Order, Polygynia.

RUBUS ARCTICUS. The systematic name of the shrubby strawberry. See Baccæ

Norlandice.

The systematic name RUBUS CÆSIUS. of the dewberry plant, whose fruit resemble the blackberry in appearance and qualities.

RUBUS CHAMEMORUS. The systematic name of the clodberry-tree. See Chama-

morus.

RUBUS FRUCTICOSUS. The systematic name of the common bramble, which affords blackberries. See Blackberry

RUBUS IDÆUS Batinon. Rubus ideus of Linnaus :- foliis quinatomay get through it, and appear for a time pinuatis ternatisque, caule aculeatu, petiolis to be recovered, still heetic symptoms and caualiculatis. The raspberry. The fruit pulmonary consumption shall afterwards of this plant has a pleasant sweet taste, arise, and destroy him, or an ophthalmia accompanied with a peculiar grateful flavour, on account of which it is chiefly va-Measles, as well as small pox, not unfre- lucd. Its virtues consist in allaying heat the juice is directed for officinal use.

RUCTUS. An eructation.

Rue. See Ruta. Rue, goats. See Galiga.

Rufus's pills. A com-RUFI PILULÆ. pound very similar to the aloetic pills with

Rum. A spirituous liquor, well known,

the produce of the sugar-cane.

RUMEX. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Hexandria. Order, Trigynia. The dock.

RUMEX ACETOSA. The systematic name of the common sorrel. See Acetosa.

RUMEX ACUTUS. The systematic name of the sharp-pointed wild-dock. See Oxylapathum,

RUMEX ALPINUS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the monks' rhu- foliis decompositis, floribus lateralibus quabarb. See Rhabarbarum monuchorum.

RUMEX AQUATICUS. The water-dock. See

Hydrolapathum.

RUMEX CRISPUS. of the crisp-leaved dock. See Oxylapa-

RUMEX HYDROLAPATHUM. tic name of the water-dock. See Hydrola- powerfully. The imaginary quality of the

of the garden patience. See Rhabarbarum erful stimulant, and is considered, like

The systematic RUMEN SANGUINEUS. name of the bloody dock, whose root has an austere and adstringent taste, and is Pharmacopæia it was directed in the form sometimes given by the vulgar in the cure of an extract; and was also an ingredient of dysentery.

RUMEX SCUTATUS. The systematic name of the French sorrel, sometimes called acetosa rotundifolia in the shops. Its virtues are similar to those of common sorrel, of the common rue. See Ruta,
See Acetosa. Ruta muraria. The plant to which

RUPELLENSIS SAL. chelle, where it was first made by Dr Seig- pæias, is the Asplenium ruta muriaria of nette.) A term applied to Rochelle salt. Linnaus. It is supposed by some to pos-Now called soda tartarisata.

RUPTURA. See Hernia. Rupture. See Hernia.

Rupture work. See Herniaria.

Myacantha. myrtle. ruscus aculeatus of Linnaus. Foliis supra the aqueous humour exhales through the foriferis nudis. It grows in woods and cornea, and no fresh humour is secreted: thickets in this country. The root, which so that the cornea becomes obscure and is somewhat thick, knotty, and furnished collapsed; this is a most certain sign of with long fibres, externally brown, inter- death. nally white, and of a bitterish taste, has been recommended as an aperient and cies of rue. diuretic in dropsies, urinary obstructions, and nephritic cases. It is seldom used in nal surface of the choroid membrane of this country.

RUSCUS ACULEATUS. name of butchers' broom. See Ruscus.

Ruscus htpoglossum. The systematic name of the uvularia. See Uvularia.

RUSH-NUT. The root of the Cyperus esculentus of Linnaus, a native of Italy, where it is collected and eaten, being more delicately and pleasantly tasted than our

Rush, sweet. See Juncus odoratus. Russia ashes. The impure potash, as imported from Russia.

RUTA. (From puw, to preserve, because it preserves health.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the common rue. Ruta graveolens of Linnaus :drifidis. Rue has a strong and grateful smell, and a bitter, hot, penetrating taste; the leaves are so acrid, that by much The systematic name handling they have been known to irritate and inflame the skin; and the plant, in its natural or uncultivated state, is said The systema- to possess these sensible qualities still more rue, in resisting and expelling contagion, RUMEX PATIENTIA. The systematic name is now laid aside. It is doubtless a powother medicines of the fetid kind, as possessing attenuating, deobstruent, and antispasmodic powers. In the former London in the pulvis e myrrha comp, but are now omitted. The dose of the leaves is from 15 grains to two scruples.

RUTA GRAVEOLENS. The systematic name

(From rupellum Ro- this name is given in the Pharmacosess specific virtues in the cure of ulcers of the lungs, and is exhibited in the form of decoction.

RUTIDOSIS A corrugation and sub-RUSCUS (A russo colore, from the siding of the corna of the eye. The specarnation colour of its berries.) 1. The cies are, 1. Rutidosis, from a wound or name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan puncture penetrating the cornea. 2. Rusystem. Class, Dioecia. Order, Syngenesia. tidosis, from a fistula penetrating the cornea. 2. The pharmacopæial name of the nea. 3. Rutidosis, from a deficiency of butchers' broom, or knee-holly. Bruscus. the aqueous humour, which happens from Oxymyrrhiue. Oxomyrrsine. Myrtacan old age, fevers, great and continued evaluation and in evaluation of the Scopa regia. Wild cuations, and in extreme dryness of the A small evergreen shrub, the air. 4. Rutidosis of dead persons, when

RUTULA. (From ruta, rue.) A small spe-

RUYSCHIANA TUNICA. The interthe human eye, which this celebrated ana-The systematic tomist imagined was a distinct lamina from the external surface.

RYAS. See Rhaas.

RYE, COMMON. A very common bread-

corn among the nothern parts of Europe; disposed to acescency; hence it is liable it is less nourishing than wheat, but a suf- to ferment in the stomach, and to produce ficiently nutritive and wholesome grain, purging, which people on the first using it It is more than any other grain strongly commonly experience.

quantity, imports semis, or half.

whose priests used it in their religious ceremonies.) Savina. Sabina. Sterilis. Bra- any other plant I have employed; but I thu. Common or barren Savin. Juniperus have been frequently disappointed in this, sabina of Linnaus:-foliis oppositis erectis and its heating qualitics always require a decurrentibus, oppositionibus pyxidatis. Sagreat deal of caution." Dr. Home appears vm is a native of the south of Europe and to have had very great success with this the Levant; it has long been cultivated in medicine, for in five cases of amenorrhea our gardens, and from producing male and female flowers on separate plants it was formerly distinguished into the barren and which he gave in powder from a scruple to quors, and the whole to rectified spirit. Distilled with water they yield a large quantity of essential oil. Decoctions of the leaves, freed from the volatile principle by inspissation to the consistence of an extract, retain a considerable share of their pungency and warmth along with their bit-On inspissating the spirituous tincture, distinct substances, of which one is yel- ratum Subinæ low, unctuous, or oily, bitterish, and very pungent; the other black, resmous, less pungent, and sub-adstringent. Savin is a powerful and active medicine, and has been long reputed the most efficacions in the materia medica, for producing a determination to the uterus, and thereby proving emmenagogue; it heats and stimulates the whole system very considerably, and is said to promote the fluid secretions. power which this plant possesses (observes Dr. Woodville) in opening uterine obstructions, is considered to be so great, that we are told it has been frequently employed, and with too much success, for purposes the most infamous and innatural. It seems probable, however, that its effects in this way have been somewhat overraicd, as it is found, very frequently, to fail as an emmenagogue, though this, in some measure, may be ascribed to the

S. A. The contraction of secundum artem. acrid and heating substance, and I have S, or ss. Immediately following any been often, on account of these qualities, prevented from employing it in the quan-SABINA. (Named from the Sabines, 1 must own, however, that it shews a more powerful determination to the aterus than which occurred at the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh, four were cured by the sabina, berry-bearing savin. The leaves and tops a drachm twice a day. He says it is well of this plant have a moderately strong suited to the debile, but improper in plesmell of the disagreeable kind, and a hot, there habits, and therefore orders repeat-bitterish, acrid taste. They give out great ed bleedings before its exhibition. Counpart of their active matter to watery litty people give the juice from the leaves and the whele to restified spirit. and young tops of savin mixed with milk to their children, in order to destroy the worms; it generally operates by stool, and brings them away with it. The leaves cut small, and given to horses, mixed with their corn, destroy the bots. Externally savine is recommended as an escharotic to terness, and have some degree of smell, foul ulcers, syphilitic warts, &c. A strong but not resembling that of the plant itself. decoction of the plant in lard and wax forms an useful ointment to keep up a conthere remains an extract consisting of two stant discharge from blisters, &c. See Ce-

SABULOUS. (Sabulosus. Gritty, sandy.) A term often applied to the calcareous matter in urine.

SABURRA. Dirt, sordes, filth. Foulness of the stomach, of which authors mention several kinds, as the acid, the bitter, the empyreumatic, the insipid, the putrid.

SACCATED DROPSY. Ascites saccatus. See Ascites

SACCHARI ACIDUM. Acid of sugar. If one part of sugar be distilled with three parts of nitric acid, till nitrous gas ceases to be developed, and then re-distilled with three parts of the same acid, a white crystallized salt is found in the liquid residue, which is the acid of sugar.

SACCHARUM. (Sangagor, from sucschar, Arab ) The Arabians call it suchar, succhar, sutter, zuchar, zucaro, and zozar; the Greeks called it sackohar, salcharion, and spodium Sugar. The cane from smallness of the dose in which it has been which the sugar is obtained in the West usually prescribed by physicians; for Dr. and East Indies, is the Arundo saccha-Cullen observes, "that savin is a very rifera of Lunaus: -foribus puniculates,

to the bottom. It may be taken into the canes at the joints, are also apt to enter inducing disease. It is much used in phar- is received into copper pans or caldrons, macy, as it forms the basis of syrups, lo- which have the name of clarifiers. oils, &c. in water, and is given as a pur- Each clarifier has a syphon or cock, by gative for infants. Dr. Cullen classes it which the liquor is to be drawn off. Each with the attenuantia, and Bergius states hangs over a separate fire; and this fire it to be saponacea, edulcorans, relaxans, must be so confined, that by the drawing pectoralis, vulneraria, antiseptica, nutri- of an iron slider fitted to the chimney, the also been advantageously used in calcul- juice from the receiver fills the clarifer ous complaints; and from its known pow- with fresh liquor. Lime in powder is ader in preserving animal and vegetable sub- ded in order to take up the oxalic acid, and stances from putrefaction, it has been giv- the carbonaceous matters which are minen with a view to its antiseptic effects. gled with the juice. The lime also in the The candy, by dissolving slowly in the new salts, into the composition of which mouth is well suited to relieve tickling it now enters, adds itself to the sugar, as coughs and hoarseness. Sugar is every a part of that which is to be obtained from where the basis of that which is called the process. The lime is to be put in in sweetness. Its presence is previously net the proportion of somewhat less than a cessary in order to the taking place of pint of lime to every hundred gallons of vinous fermentation. Its extraction from liquor. When it is in too great quantities, plants which afford it in the greatest abun- however, it is apt to destroy a part of the dance, and its refinement for the common pure saccharine matter. Some persons emuses of life, in a pure and separate state, are among the most important of the che- for the purpose of extracting the extranemical manufactures.

facture in the West Indies: The plants are than any other substance whatsoever. The cultivated in rows, on fields enriched by liquor is now to be heared almost to ebullisuch manures as ean most easily be pro- tion. The heat dissolves the mechanical cured, and tilled with the plough. They union, and thus favours the chemical changare annually cut. The cuttings are car- es in its different parts. When the proper ried to the mill. They are cut into short heat appears, from a rising scum on the pieces, and arranged in small bundles. surface of the liquor, to have been produ-The mill is wrought by water, wind, or ced, the fire is then extinguished by the cattle. The parts which act on the canes application of the damper. In this state of are upright cylinders. Between these the the liquor, the greater part of the impuricanes are inserted, compressed, squeezed ties, being different in specific gravity from till all their juice is obtained from them, the pure saccharine solution, and being also and are themselves, sometimes, even re- of such a nature as to yield more readily duced to powder. One of these mills of to the chemical action of heat, are brought the best construction, britises canes to up to the surface in a scum. After this such a quantity as to afford, in one day, scum has been sufficiently formed on the 10,000 gallons of juice, when wrought cooling lipuor, this liquor is carefully with only ten mules. The expressed juice drawn off, either by a syphon, which raises is received into a leaden bed. It is thence a pure stream through the scum, or by a conveyed into a vessel called the receiver. cock drawing the liquor at the bottom from The juice is found to consist of eight parts under the scum. The scum in either case of pure water, one part of sugar, one part sinks down unbroken, as the liquor flows;

folis planis. It is prepared from the ex- of oil and gummy mucilage. From the pressed juice boiled with the addition of greener parts of the canes there is apt to quick lime or common vegetable alkali. be at times derived an acid juice, which It may be extracted also from a number of tends to bring the whole unseasonably into plants, as the maple, birch, wheat, corn, a state of acid fermentation. Fragments beet-root, skirret, parsnips, and dried of the ligneous part of the cane, some porgrapes, &c. by digesting in alcohol. The tions of mud or dirt which unavoidably alcohol dissolves the sugar, and leaves the remain on the canes, and a blackish subextractive matter untouched, which falls stance called the crust, which coated the stomach in very large quantities, without into contaminating mixture with the juice. producing any bad consequences, although From the receiver the juice is conducted proofs are not wanting of its mischievous along a wooden gutter lined with lead, to effects, by relaxing the stomach, and thus the boiling house. In the boiling-house it zenges, and other preparations. It is very these clarifiers the number and the capauseful as a medicine, although it cannot city must be in proportion to the quantity be considered to posses much power, to of canes, and the extent of the sugar planfavour the solution or suspension of resins, tation on which the work is carried on. ens. In catarrhal affections both sugar fire may be at any time put out. In the and honey are frequently employed: it has progress of the operations, the stream of ploy alkaline ashes, as preferable to lime, ous matter; but it is highly probable, that The following is the mode of its manu-lime, judiciously used, might answer better

and is now, by cooling, of such tenacity, as neral process in the British West Indies. not to send to any intermixture with the In this state our West India sugar is imliquor. The liquor drawn, after this puriported into Britain. The formation of fication from the boiler, is received into a loaves of white sugar is a subsequent progutter or channel, by which it is conveyed cess. In the French West India Isles it to the grand copper, or evaporating boiler. has long been customary to perform the 1f made from good canes, and properly last part of this train of processes in a clarified, it will now appear almost transmanner somewhat different, and which parent. In this copper, the liq or is heated to actual ebullition, The scum raised rity. This preparation, taking the sugar to the surface by the boiling is skimmed off from the cooler, then puts it, not into as it rises. The ebullition is continued till hogsheads with holes in the bottom as as it rises. The ebullition is continued till the ebullition is continued till the liquor be a considerable diminution in the quantity of the liquor. The liquor now appears nearly of the coloar of Madeira which has at its bottom a hole half an inch appears nearly of the coloar of Madeira which has at its bottom a hole half an inch appears nearly of the coloar of Madeira which has at its bottom a hole half an inch appears nearly of the coloar of Madeira which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of the commencement which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, each of the colors, but into conical pots, and which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, and half all above, but into conical pots, each of the sugar its better that is, in the commencement which has at its bottom a hole half an inch adove, but into conical pots, and half has better the better the better the sugar its better that is, in the commencement of the process, stopped with a plug After remaining some time in the pot, the sugar is then removed out of the hole; the sugar is then removed out of the hole; the sugar is then removed out of the hole; the s that degree of thickness at which it appears parts of the sugar itself, and carrying these fit to be finally cooled. In the cooler, a off by the holes in the bottom of the pot, shallow wooden vessel of considerable renders that which resists the solution length and wideness, commonly of such a much purer than the museovado sugar size as to contain a hogshead of sugar, made in the English way. The sugar prethe sugar as it cools, granulates, or runs pared in this manner is called clayed sugar, into an imperfect crystallization, by which it is sold for a higher price in the European it is separated from the melasses, a mixed markets than the mascovado sugar; but saccharine matter too impure to be ca- there is a loss of sugar in the process by pable even of this imperfect crystalliza- claying, which deters the British planters tion. To determine whether the liquor be from adopting this practice so generally as fit to be taken from the last boiler to be do the French. finally cooled, it is necessary to take out a nulated sugar and melasses. house. This is a spacious airy building, tion; elarification with alkaline substances It is provided with a capacious cistern for fitted to attract away the oil, acid, and work, unfilled and uncovered. hogsheads, open at the head, bored at produce loaves of white sugar. the bottom with a few holes, and having a stalk of plaintain leaf thrust through each very impure refuse of the sugar from which of the holes, while it rises at the same they drip, are susceptible of being emtime through the inside of the hogshead, ployed in a new ebullition, by which a are disposed upon the frames. The mass second quantity of sugar may be obtained of the saccharine matter from the coolers from them. The remainder of the meis put into these hogsheads. The melasses lasses is employed to yield rum by distildrip into the cistern through the spongy lation.

plaintain stalks in the holes. Within the space of three weeks the melasses are ter, oxalic acid, and a mixture of empysufficiently drained off, and the sugar re-reumatic matter. The French prepare, mains dry. By this process it is at last from the nixture of melasses with water, brought into the state of what is called a species of wine of good quality. In its muscovado or raw sugar. This is the ge- preparation, the solution is brought into

The raw sugars are still contaminated portion from the boiler, and try separate- and debased by a mixture of acid carboly, whether it does not separate into gra- naecous matter, oil, and colouring resin. From the To free them from these is the business of cooler the sugar is removed to the curing. the European sugar-bakers A new soluthe reception of melasses, and over the other contaminating matters; slow evapocistern is erected a frame of strong joist- ration; and a final cooling in suitable Empty moulds; are the processes which at last

The melasses being nothing else but a

fermentation, then passed through strainers small proportion of oxygen, exist in any to purify it, then put in casks; after clearing itself in these, transferred into others,
in which it is to be preserved for use.

The ratio of these processes is extremely beautiful; they are all directed to purify obtain saccharine matter in a large proporthe sugar from contaminating mixtures, tion, from a variety of substances, from and to reduce it into that state of dryness which even germination does not yield a or crystallization, in which it is susceptible sufficient quantity. In the beet, and of being the most conveniently preserved some other European vegetables, sugar for agreeable use. The heat in general is naturally formed by the functions of of the cane juice, and chemically to pro- the vegetable, extracting by water its duce in it new combinations into which saccharine juice, evaporating the water caloric must enter as an ingredient. The charged with the juice to the consistency first gentle heat is intended chiefly to ope- of syrup, clarifying, purifying, and crystalrate with the mechanical influence, raising lizing it, just in the same manner as sugar to the surface impurities, which are more from the sugar-cane. easily removed by skimming, than by any other means; agentle, not a violent heat, is in this instance employed, because a violent heat would produce empyreumatic sugar. salts, the production of which is to be Saccharum aluminis. A carefully avoided. A boiling heat is, in dragon's blood and dried. the continuation of the processes, made Saccharum canadense. use of, because, after the first impurities tained from a species of maple-tree, the have been skimined off, contaminating em. Acer pseudo-platanus of Linnaus, in Canapyreumatic salts are less readily formed, da, and imported into some parts of Eua complete development of the saccha- disorders of the breast. Every part of rine matter, and because the gradual con-centration of the sugar is, by such a heat, The trunk, root, or branches, wounded to be best accomplished. Lime is em- early in the spring, bleed a large quantity ployed, because it has a stronger affinity of clear liquor, which in its dilute state than sugar with all the contaminating mattasts somewhat sweetish, and being inspisters, and particularly because it attracts sated, yields the concrete sugar, with a into a neutral combination that excess of syrupy matter resembling melasses. The oxalic acid which is apt to exist in the unboiled juice has been drank as an antisaccharine solution. Skimming removes scorbutic. The Canada sugar is much the new salts which the most easily assume esteemed in France in disorders of the a solid form. The dripping carries away breast. a mixture of water, oil, earth, sugar, from the crystallized sugar : for, in all our crys- . SACCHARUM NON PURIFICATUM. Brown tallizations we can never perform the pro. sugar. It is often exhibited as a laxative cess in the great way, with such nicety as in to preserve it free from an equality of proportions, that must necessarily occasion a residue. Repeated solution, clarification, evaporation, are requisite to produce pure white sugar from the brown and raw su- or loaf sugar. See Saccharum. gars; because the complete purification of this matter from acid and colouring matter, acetas. is an operation of great difficulty, and not to be finally completed without processes of milk in combination with oxygen. which are longer than can be conveniently performed at the first, upon the sugar plantation. From vegetables of European growth, sugar is not to be easily obtained, unless the process of germination be first produced in them; or unless they have of the joints. been penetrated by intense frost. Germination, or thorough freezing, develops A little bag. sugar into all vegetables in which its principles of hydrogen and carbon, with a of the chyle.

acts both mechanically to effect a sufficient vegetation to perfect combination. From dissolution of the aggregation of the parts these the sugar is obtained by rasping down

SACCHARUM ACERNUM.

White or refined

canadense. SACCHARUM ALBUM.

SACCHARUM ALUMINIS. Alum mixed with

The sugar obbecause a boiling heat is necessary to effect rope. It is supposed to be efficacious in

SACCHARUM CANDIDUM. Sugar candy.

clysters, and internally to children. SACCHARUM OFFICINARUM. The systema-

tic name in some pharmacopæias of the sugar-cane. See Saccharum.

SACCHARUM PURIFICATUM. Double refined

SACCHARUM SATURNI. See Plumbi super-

SACCHO-LACTIC ACID. The sugar

SACCHOLAT. Saccholas. A salt formed by the combination of the saccholactic acid with different bases, as saccholat of iron, saccoolat of ammonia, &c. &c.

The bursæ mucosæ SACCULI ADIPOSI.

SACCULUS. (Dim. of saccus, a bag.)

SACCULUS CHYLIFERUS. The receptacle

SACCULUS CORDIS. The pericardium or ends in the posterior and inferior part of receptacle of the heart.

SACCULUS LACHRYMALIS.

SACCUS LACHRYMALIS. the ductus lachrymalis.

were supposed to be immediately inflicted is inserted into the posterior and inferior from heaven, as sucer morbus, the epilepsy, part of the transverse processes of the five sacer ignis, erysipelas, &c. A bone is inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many called the as sacrum, because it was once d stinct tendons. This is generally describ-

SACRA HERBA. Common vervain. SACRA TINCTURA. Aloes, canella alba and mountain wine.

SACRAL. Of or belonging to the sa- nata with the os sacrum. crum; as sacral arteries, veins, nerves, muscles, &c.

coccyx of the back

authors. Lumbo-costo-trachelien of Du- haps from its supporting the organs of ge-mas. A long muscle, thicker and broader neration, which they considered as sacred. below than above, and extending from the in young subjects it is composed of five or os sacrum to the lower part of the neck, six pieces, united by cartilage; but in under the screati postici, rhomboideus, more advanced age it becomes one bone, trapezius, and latissimus dorsi. It arises in which, however, we may still easily in common with the longissimus dorsi, distinguish the marks of the former separatendinous without, and fleshy within, from tion. Its shape has been sometimes comthe posterior part of the os sacrum; from pared to an irregular triangle; and somethe posterior edge of the spine of the ilium; times, and perhaps more properly, to a from all the spinous processes, and from pyramid, flattened before and behind, with near the roots of the transverse processes its basis placed towards the lumbar verof the lumbar vertebræ. At the bottom of tebræ, and its point terminating in the the back it separates from the longissimus coccyx. We find it convex behind, and dorsi, with which it had before formed, as slightly concave before, with its inferior it were, only one muscle, and ascending portion bent a little forwards. Its anteobliquely outwards, gradually diminishes rior surface is smooth, and affords four, in thickness, and terminates above in a and sometimes five transverse lines, of a very narrow point. From the place where colour different from the rest of the bone. it quits the longissimus dorsi, to that of its These are the remains of the intermediate termination, we find it fleshy at its poste- cartilages by which its several pieces were rior, and tendinous at its anterior edge, united in infancy. Its posterior convex This tendinous side sends off as many long surface has several prominences, the most and thin tendous as there are ribs. The remarkable of which are its spinous prolowermost of these tendons are broader, cesses; these are usually three in number, thicker, and shorter than those above; and gradually become shorter, so that the they are inserted into the inferior edge of third is not so long as the second, nor the each rib, where it begins to be curved second as the first. This arrangement forwards towards the sternum, excepting enables us to sit with ease. Its transverse only the uppermost and last tendon, which pocesses are formed into one oblong pro-

the transverse process of the last vertebra See Saccus of the neck. From the upper part of the five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, or eleven The la- lower ribs, (for the number, though most chrymal sac is situated in the internal can- commonly seven or eight, varies in difthus of the eye, behind the lachrymal ferent subjects,) arise as many thin bundles caruncle, in a cavity formed by the os of fleshy fibres, which, after a very short unguis. It receives the tears from the progress, terminate in the inner side of puncta lachrymalia, and conveys them into this muscle, and have been named by Steno, musculi ad sacro lumbalem accessorii. Sacred. (From sagur, secret, Heb.) Resides these, we find the muscle sending Sacred. Applied to some diseases which off a fleshy slip from its upper part, which offered in sacrifices. It also means be- ed as a distinct muscle. Diemerbroeck, and longing to the os sacrum.

SACK. A wine used by our ancestors, vicalis descendens. Winslow names it transwhich some have taken to be Rhenish, and versalis collateralis colli. Morgagni consiothers Canary wine Probably it was what ders it as an appendage to the sacro lumis called dry mountain, or some Spanish balis. The uses of this muscle are to asswine of that sort. Howell, in his French sist in creeting the trunk of the body, in and English Dictionary, 1650, translates turning it upon its axis or to one side, and sack by the words vin d'Espagne. Vin in drawing the ribs downwards. By means of its upper slip, it serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, or to one side. SACRO-SCIATIC LIGAMENTS.

ligaments which connect the ossa innomi-

SACRUM. (So called from sacer, sacred; because it was formerly offered in SACRO COCCYGARUS. A muscle of the sacrifices.) Os sacrum. Os basilare. The os sacrum derives its name from its being SACRO LUMBALIS. Sacro-lumbaris of offered in sacrifice by the ancients, or percess, which becomes gradually smaller as it descends. At the superior part of the bone we observe two oblique processes, of a cylindrical shape, and somewhat concave, which are articulated with the last of the lumbar vertebræ. At the base of each of these oblique processes is a notch, which, with such another in the vertebræ above it, forms a passage for the twentyfourth spinal nerve. In viewing this bone, either before or behind, we observe four, and sometimes five holes on each side, situate at each extremity of the transverse lines which mark the divisions of the bone. Of these holes, the anterior ones, and of these again, the uppermost, are the largest, and afford a passage to the nerves. The posterior holes are smaller, covered with membranes, and destined for the same purpose as the former. Sometimes at the bottom of the bone there is only a notch, and sometimes there is a hole common to it and the os coccygis.

The cavi y between the body of this bone and its processes, for the lodgment of the spinal marrow, is triangular, and becomes smaller as it descends, till at length it terminates obliquely on each side at the lower part of the bone. Below the third division of the bone, however, the cavity is no longer completely bony, as in the rest of the spine, but is defended posteriorly only by a very strong membrane; hence a wound in this part may be attended with the most dangerous consequences. bone is articulated above, with the last lumbar vertebra: laterally, it is firmly united, by a broad irregular surface to the ossa innominata, or hip bone: and below it is joined to the os coccygis. In women the os sacrum is usually shorter, broader, and more curved, than in men, by which means the cavity of the pelvis is more enlarged.

Sufflower. See Carthamus.

Saffron. See Crocus.

Saffron, bastard See Carthamus.

Suffron, meadow. See Colchicum.

Suffron of steel. A red oxide of iron.

SAGAPENUM. (The name is derived from some eastern dialect.) Serapinum It is conjectured that this concrete gumminesinous juice is the production of an oriental umbelliferous plant. Sagapenum is brought from Persia and Alexandria in large masses, externally yellowish, internally paler, and of an horny clearness. It is falliaceous and fetid kind, and its virtues are similar to those which have been ascribed to assafotida, but weaker, and consequently it is less powerful in its effects.

Sage. See Salvia.

Sage of Bethlehem. See Pulmonaria.
Sage of Jerusulem. See Pulmonaria maculata.

Sage of virtue. See Salvia hortensis mi-

SAGITAL SUTURE. (Sutura sagittalis, from sagitta, an arrow.) Sutura virgata, obelæa, rhabdoides. The suture which unites the two parietal bones. It has been named sagittal, from its lying between the coronal and lamdoidal sutures, as an arrow betwixt the string and the bow.

SAGITTARIA ALEXIPHARMACA. Malacca radix. Canna indica. Arundo indica. Arrow-root: dartwort.

SAGITTARIA SAGITTIFOLIA. (From ragitta, an arrow.) The systematic name of the common arrow-head, whose roots are esculent but not very nutritious.

SAGO. Sagus. Sagu. A dry fecula, obtained from the pith of a species of palm, the Cycas circualis of Linnzus, in the islands of Java, Molucca, and the Philipppines. The same substance is also brought from the West-Indies, but it is inferior to that brought from the East. Sago becomes soft and transparent by boiling in water, and forms a light and agreeable liquid, much recommended in febrile, phthusical, and calculous disorders, &c. To make it palatable, it is customary to add to it, when boiled or softened with water, some lemon juice, sugar and wine.

SAGU. See Sago.

Saint Anthony's fire. See Erysipelas. Saint Ignatius's bean. See Faba in-

Saint James's wort. See Jacobæa.
Saint John's wort. See Hypericum.

Saint Vitus's dance. See Chorea sancti Viti

SAL ABSINTHII. Salt of wormwood. This salt is an imperfect carbonat of potash. See Potassæ subcarbonus.

SAL ACETOCELLE. The salt of woodsorrel, usually vended for salt of lemons, is an acidulated oxylat of potash, and called in the new chemical nomenclature oxylus potasse acidulus.

SAL ALKALINUS FIXUS. See Alkali,

SAL ALKALINUS VOLATILIS See Am-

SAL AMMONIAC. Murias ammoniæ. A saline concrete formed by the combination of the muriatic acid with ammonia. This salt is obtained from several sources. It is found in places adjacent to volcanoes.

1. It appears in the form of an efflorescence, or groups of needles, separate or compacted together, generally of a yellow or red colour, and mixed with arsenic and orpiment; but no use is made of that which is procured in this way.

2. In Egypt it is made in great quantities from the soot of camel's dung, which is burnt at Cairo instead of wood. This soot is put into large round bottles, a foot the crystallization of certain salts, the fixand a half in diameter, and terminating in atton and preservation of certain liquids, a neck two inches long. The bottles are naturally very subject to evaporation, &c. filled up with this matter to within four inches of the neck. Each bottle holds ammoniæ acetatis. about forty pounds of soot, and affords nearly six pounds of salt. The vessels are ammonia acetatis. put into a furnace in the form of an oven, so that only the necks appear above. A fire of camel's dong is kindled beneath it, and continued for three days and three nights. On the second and the third day the salt is sublimated. The bottles are quor ammonia acetata then broken, and the salt is taken out in cakes. These cakes, which are sent just as they have been taken out of the bottles in Egypt, are convex, and unequal on the one side; on the middle of this side they exhibit each a tuburcle, corresponding to the neck of the bottle in which it was prepared. The lower side is concave, and both are sooty.

3. In this country sal ammoniac is likewise prepared in great quantities. The volatile alkali is obtained from soot, bones, and other substances known to contain it. To this the sulphuric acid is added, and this vitrolic ammoniac is decomposed by muriate of soda or common salt in a double affinity. The liquor obtained in consequence of this decomposition contains sulphate of soda and muriate of ammonia. The first is crystallized, and the second sublimated so as to form cakes, which are

then exposed to sale.

Ammoniacal muriate has a poignant, acrid, and urinous taste. Its crystals are in the form of long hexahædral pyramids, a number of them are sometimes united together in an acute angular direction, so as to exhibit the form of feathers. M. Rome de Lille thinks the crystals of ammoniacal muriate to be octohadrons bundled together. This salt is sometimes, but not frequently, found in cubic crystals Soda murias. in the middle of the concave hollow part of the sublimated cakes. It possesses one singular physical property, a kind of ductility or elasticity, which causes it to yield under the hammer, or even the fingers, and makes it difficult to reduce it to a powder. Muriate of ammonia is totally volatile, but a very strong fire is requisite to sublime it. It is liable to no alteration from air; it may be kept for a long time without suffering any change; it dissolves very readily in water. Six parts of cold water are sufficient to dissolve one of the salt. A considerable cold is produced as the solution takes place, and this cold is still keener when the salt is mixed with ice. This artificial cold is happily applied to produce several phanomena which could not otherwise take place, such as the congelation of water on certain occasions, tartarisata.

SAL AMMONIACUM ACETOSUM. See Liquor

SAL AMMOSTACUM LIQUIDUM. See Liquor

SAL AMMONIACUM MARTIALE. rum ammoniatum.

SAL AMMONIACUM SECRETUM GLAUBERI. See Sulphus ammonia.

SAL AMMONIACUM VEGETABILE. See Li-

SAL AMMONIACUS FIXUS. The muriate of lime was formerly so termed.

SAL AMMONIACUS NITROSUS. See Nitras ammonia.

SAL ANTIMONII. Tartar emetic.

SAL ARGENTI. Salt of Silver. See Nitras argenti.

SAL CATHARTICUS AMARUS. See Magne. siæ sulphus.

SAL CATHARTICUS ANGLICANUS. See Magnesiæ sulphus.

SAL CATHARTICUS GLAUBERI. sulphus.

SAL COMMUNIS. See Soda murias.

SAL CORNU CERVI VOLATILE. See Carbonus Ammoniæ.

SAL CULINARIS. See Soile murias.
SAL DE DUOBUS. See Potassæ sulphas.
SAL DIURETICUS. See Potassæ acetas.

SAL DIGESTIVUS SYLVII. A natural salt, formed of muriatic acid and potash. Potassæ murias.

SAL EPSOMENSIS. See Magnesia phus.

SAL ESSENTIALIS TARTARI. See Tartar, acid of.

SAL FEBRIFCGUS SYLVII. See Potassæ murius.

SAL FONTIUM. See Soda murius.

SAL FOSSILIS. See Suda murias.

SAL GEMME. Common or rock salt. See

SAL GLAUBERI : See Sodie sulphas.

SAL HERBARUM. See Potasse subcarbo-

SAL MARINUS. See Sodle murias.

SAL MARTIS. See Ferri sulphas.

SAL MARTIS MURIATICUM SUBLIMATUM, See Ferrum ammoniatum.

SAL MICROCOSMICUS. The compound saline matter obtained by inspissating human urine.

SAL MIRABILIS GLAUBERI. See Sodæ sulphas.

SAL MURIATICUS. See Soda murias.

SAL PLANTARUM. See Potassæ subcarbo.

SAL POLYCURESTUS. See Potassæ sulphas. SAL POLYCHRESTUS GLASERI. See Potas-

sæ sulphus. SAL POLYCHRESTUS SEIGNETTI. See Soula into flat cakes or round balls.

SAL RUPELLENSIS. See Soda tartarisata. SAL SATURNI. See Plumbi superacetas.

SAL SEDATIVUS. See Boracic acid.

SAL SEDATIVUS HOMBERGII. See Boracic

SAL SEDLICENSIS. See Sulphas Magnesiæ.

SAL SEIGNETTI. See Soda tartarisata.

SAL SUCCINI. The succinic acid. See Succinic acid.

SAL TARTANI. See Potassa carbonas and

SAL THERMARUM CAROLINARUM. A union of sulphuric acid with magnesia. See Sulphas Magnesiæ.

SAL VEGETABILIS.

SAL VOLATILE. See Spiritus ammoniæ compositus and Ammonia.

SAL VOLATILIS SALIS AMMONIACI, See Carbonas Ammonia.

SALEP. Salap. Salab. the Orchis morio of Linnans :- bulbis indivisis, nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuso, petalis dorsalibus reflexis. This farinaceous powder is imported from Turkey. It may be obtained from several other species of the same genus of plants. It is an insipid substance, of which a small quantity, by a proper management, converts a large portion of water into a jelly, the nutritive powers of which have been greatly over-rated. Salep forms a considerable part of the diet of the inhabitants of Turkey, Persia, and Syria. The emthod of preparing salep is as follows: The new root is to be washed in water, and the fine brown skin which covers it is to be separated by means of a small brush or by dipping the root in warm water, and rubbing it with a coarse linen cloth. roots thus cleaned, are to be spread on a tin plate, and placed in an oven, heated to the usual degree, where they are to remain six or ten minutes. In this time they will have lost their milky whiteness, and ac- the maxilla and the tongue, and pour out quired a transparency like horn, without any diminution of bulk. Being arrived at this state, they are to be removed in order to dry and harden in the air, which will has mixed with it, 1. The mucus of the require several days to effect; or they may be dried in a few hours, by using a very gentle heat. Salep, thus prepared, con- the whole surface of the cavity of the tains a great quantity of vegetable aliment; mouth. The saliva is continually swallow-as a wholesome nourishment it is much ed with, or without masticated food, and superior to rice; and has the singular pro- some is also spit out. It has no colour nor perty of concealing the taste of salt water. smell; it is tasteless, although it contains Hence, to prevent the dreadful calamity a little salt, to which the nerves of the of famine at sea, it has been proposed, tongue are accustomed. Its specific gravity that the powder of it should constitute is somewhat greater than water. Its conpart of the provisions of every ship's com. sistence is rather plastic and spumous, from pany. With regard to its medicinal pro- the entangled and atmospheric air. The perties, it may be observed, that its resto- quantity of twelve pounds is supposed to

SAL PRUNELLE. Nitrat of potash cast rative, mucilaginous, and demulcent qua-to flat cakes or round balls. lities, render it of considerable use in various diseases, when employed as aliment, particularly in sea-scurvy, diarrhea, dysentery, symptomatic fever, arising from the absorption of pus, and the stone or gravel.

SALICORNIA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class.

Monandria. Order, Monogynia.

SALICORNIA EUROPEA. The systematic name of the jointed glass wort, which is gathered by the country people and sold for samphire. It forms a good pickle with vinegar, and is little inferior to the sam. phire.

SALINE SUBSTANCES. The num-See Potassa tar- ber of saline substances is very considerable; and they possess peculiar characters. by which they are distinguished from other substances. These characters are founded on certain properties, which it must be confessed, are not accurately distinctive The root of their true nature. All such substances, however, as possess several of the four following properties are considered as saline: 1. A strong tendency to combination, or a very strong affinity of composition; 2. A greater or lesser degree of sapidity; 3. A greater or lesser degree of solubility in water; 4. Perfect incombustibility.

Saliunca: See Nardus celtica.

SALIVA. (So called, a salino sapore, from its salt taste, or from oranos, spittle.) The fluid which is secreted by the salivary glands into the cavity of the mouth. The secretory organ is composed of three pair of salivary glands. 1. The parotid glands, which evacuate their saliva by means of the Stenonian duct behind the middle dens molaris of the upper jaw. 2. The submaxillary glands, which pour out their saliva through the Warthonian ducts on each side of the frenulum of the tongue by a narrow osculum. 3. The sublingular glands, situated between the internal surface of their saliva through numerous Riverian ducts at the apex of the tongue.

The saliva in the cavity of the mouth month, which exhales from the labial and genal glands. 2. A roscid vapour, from be secreted in twelve hours. During mas-tication and speaking the secretion is -foliis serratis glabris ovato lanceolatis, augmented, from the mechanical pressure petiolis dentato glandulosis. It manifests a of the muscles upon the salivary glands considerable degree of bitterness to the Those who are hungry secrete a great taste, and is very adstringent. It is requantity, from the sight of agreeable food. commended as a good substitute for Pevirtue, according to the experiments of the and of four or five years growth. trid in warm air, and gives off volatile has always failed with this bark. alkali.

Constituent Principles. Saliva appears to consist of water, albumen, ammoniacal salt, and animal earth. Of water, there is four-fifths given out by distillation. The albumen is detected by alcohol of wine. The ammoniacal salt is demonstrated by triturating quick lime with saliva; and the animal earth from salival calculus, and the

products of fire.

The use of the saliva is, 1. It augments the taste of the food, by the evolution of sapid matter. 2. During mastication, it mixes with, dissolves, and resolves into its principles, the food; and changes it into a pultaceous mass, fit to be swallowed: hence it commences chymification. 3. It moderates thirst, by moistening the cavity of the mouth and fauces.

SALIVAL DUCTS. The excretory ducts of the salival glands. That of the parotid gland is called the Stenonian duct; those of the submaxillary glands the Warthonian ducts; and those of the sublingual,

the Reverian ducts.

Those glands SALIVAL GLANDS. which secrete the saliva are so termed. See Saliva.

SALIVANTIA. (From saliva, spittle.) Medicines which excite salivation.

SALIVARIA. (From saliva, the spittle; so called because it excites a discharge of saliva.) Pellitory of Spain.

SALIVARIS HERBA. See Pyrethrum.

of saliva. Sce Ptyalismus. SALIX. (From sala, Heb.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Dioecia. Order, Diandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of Salix alba. Crack willow. The bark of the Sodie sulphas.

It is imperfectly dissolved by water; some- ruvian bark, and is said to cure intermitwhat coagulated by alcohol of wine; and tents and other diseases requiring tonic and is congealed with more difficulty than adstringent remedies. Not only the bark water. It is inspissated by a small dose, of this species of salix, but that of several and dissolved in a large dose, of mineral others possess similar qualities, particularacids. It is also soluble in acrated alkali. Iy of the Salix alba and S. pentandria, both Caustic alkali and quick lime extract vola- of which are recommended in the foreign tile alkali from saliva. It corrodes copper pharmac poias. But Dr Woodville is of and iron, and precipitates silver and lead opinion, that the bark of the salix triandria in the form of corneous luna. It assists is more effectual than that of any other the spirituous fermentation of farinaceous of this genus; at least its sensible qualities substances; hence barbarous nations pre- give a decided preference. The trials Dr. pare an inebriating drink from the chewed Cullen made was with the bark of the salix roots of the Jatropha Manihot and Piper pentrandria, the bark taken from its Methisticum. It possesses an antiseptic branches, the third of an inch diameter, celebrated Pringle. It easily becomes pu-theless, he adds, in intermittent fevers, he

SALIX ALBA. See Sulia.

SALIX CAPREA. The systematic name of a species of willow, the bark of whose branches possess the same virtues with that of the fragilis. See Salix.

SALIX FRAGILIS. The systematic name of the common crack willow. See Salix.

SALIX PENTANDRIA. The bark of the branches of this species of willow possesses the same virtues as that of the fragilis. See Salix.

SALIX VITULINA. The bark of the branches of this species of willow may be substituted for the fragilis. See Salix.

SALPINGO-PHARYNGERS. This muscle is composed of a few fibres of the palatopharyngeus, which it assists in dilating the mouth of the Eustachian tube.

SALPINGO-STAPHILINUS. palati.

Salpingo-staphilinus internus. See Le-

vator palati.
Salsafy. The root of the purple goat's

beard. See Tragopogon pratense. SALSOLA The name of a genus of plants in the Linn an system. Class, Pen-

tandria. Order, Digynia.

Salsola kali. Snail-seeded glass-wort salt-wort. Kali spinosum cochleatum. or salt-wort. Kali spinosum cochleatum. Tragus sive Tragum Matthioli. The systematic name of the plant which affords the mineral alkali. See Soda and Ba-

SALSOLA SATIVA. The systematic name of SALIVATIO. An increased secretion a plant, which affords the mineral alkali. See Soda and Barilla.

> Salsola sona. The systematic name of a plant which affords mineral alkali. See Barilla, and Soda.

Salt, cathartic. See Sulphas Magnesia, 712

Salt, common. See Murias Soda. Salt, Epsom. See Sulphas Mugnesia. Salt petre. See Potassa nitras. Sult, Rochelle. See Soda turtarizata. Salt, sea. See Murias Sode. Salt of steel. See Ferri sulphas.

SAL

SALTS. See Saline substances. with respect to their chemical properties, are divided into two classes; into acid salts or acids, and into alkaline salts or alkalis; and from the mutual combination of these two arises a third class, viz. that of neutral salts

SALTS, ACID. These are distinguished by their sour taste when diluted with

See Acia. water.

SALTS, ALKALINE. These possess a urinous, burning, and caustic taste, turn the syrup of violets to a green, have a strong affinity for acids, dissolve animal substances, unite readily with water, combines with oils and fat, and render them miscible with water, dissolve sulphur, and

are crystallizable. See Alkali

SALTS, NEUTRAL. Secondary salts. Under the name of neutral or secondary salis are comprehended such matters as are composed of two primitive saline substances combined together. These salts are called neutral, because they do not possess the characters of primitive salts; that is to say, they are neither acid nor alkaline salts; such as Epsom salts, alum,

nitre, &c.

SALTS, PRIMITIVE. Simple salts. Under this order is comprehended those salts which were formerly thought to be simple or primitive, and which are occasionally called simple salts. The accurate experiments of the moderns have proved that these are for the most part compounded; but the term is retained with greater propriety when it is observed, that these salts compose, when united, salts which are termed secondary. These salts are never met with perfectly pure in nature, but require artificial processes to render them so. This order is divided into three genera, comprehending saline terrestrial substances, alkalis, and acids. See Neutral

SALTS, SECONDARY.

salts.

Saltwort. See Salsola kali.

SALVATELLA. (Salvatellu, sc. vena, from salus, health, because the opening of it was formerly thought to be of singular use in melancholy.) This vein runs along the little finger, unites upon the back of the hand with the cephalic of the thumb, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubical veins

SALVIA. (A salvendo.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the

common sage. Elelisphacos. Salvia officinalis of Linnæus:-foliis lanceolata-ovatie integris crenulatis, floribus spicatis, calycibus acutis. In ancient times sage was celebrated as a remedy of great efficacy. as would appear from the following lines of the school of Salernita:

Cur moriatur homo, cui salvia crescit in

Contra vin mortis, non est medicamen in

Salvia salvatrix, naturæ conciliatrix.

Sulvia cum ruta faciant tibi pocula tuta. But at present it is not considered as an article of much importance. It has a fragrant strong smell; and a warm, bitterish, aromatic, taste, I ke other plants containing an essential oil. It has a remark. able property in resisting the putrefaction of animal substances, and is in frequent use among the Chinese as a tonic, in the form of tea, in debility of the stomach and newous system.

SALVIA HORTENSIS MINOR. The small sage, or sage of virtue. A variety of the officinal sage, possessing similar virtues.

The systematic SALVIA OPFICINALIS. name of the garden sage. See Salvia.

SALVIA SCLAREA. The systematic name of the garden clary, called horminum in the pharmacopæias. The leaves and seeds are recommended as corroborants and antispasmodics, particularly in leucorrhæas and hysterical weaknesses. They have a bitterish warm taste, and a strong smell, of the aromatic kind.

SAMBUCUS. (From subucca, Heb. 2 musical instrument formerly made of this tree.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pentan-

dria. Order, Trigyma.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the elder-tree. Sambucus vulgaris. Sambucue arborea. Acte. Infelix lignum. Sumbucus nigra of Linnaus :- cymis quinque partitis, foliis pinnatis, caule arboreo. This indigenous plant has an unpleasant narcotic smell, and some authors have reported its exhalations to be so noxious, as to render it unsafe to sleep under its shade. The parts of this tree that are proposed for medicinal use in the pharmacopæias are the inner bark, the flowers, and the berries. The first has scarcely any smell, and very little taste; on first chewing, it impresses a degree of sweetness, which is followed by a very slight but durable acrimony, in which its powers seem to reside. From its cathartic property it is recommended as an effectual hydragogue by Sydenham and Boerhaave; the former directs three handfuls of it to be boiled in a quart of milk and water, till only a pint remains, of which one half is to be taken night and morning, and repeated for seve-

rat days; it usually operates both upwards from sanguis, blood.) A natural function and downwards, and upon the evacuation of the body, by which the chyle is changed it produces, its utility depends. Boerhaave into blood. The uses of sanguification gave its expressed juice in doses from a are the generation of blood, which serves drachm to half an ounce. In smaller doses to fill the blood-vessels, to irritate and stiit is said to be an useful aperient and de- mulate the heart and arteries, to generate obstruent in various chronic disorders, or cause heat, to secrete the humours, and The llowers have an agreeable flavour; to excite the vital action. and infusions of them, when fresh, are Sanguins. (From sanguis, blood; gently laxative and aperient. When dry, so named from its uses in stopping bleedthey are said to promote chiefly the cuti- ings ) The Polygonum aviculare or knotcular excretion, and to be particularly grass, is sometimes so called. See Centumserviceable in crysipelatous and eruptive nodia. disorders. Externally they are used in fomentations, &c. and in the London Pharmacopæia are directed in the form of ings.) The Polygonian aviculare, or knot-an outment. The berries in taste are grass is sometimes so termed. See Cenan ointment. The berries in taste arc somewhat sweetish, and not unpleasant; on expression they yield a fine purple juice, which proves an useful aperient and resolvent in sundry chronic diseases, gently and purgo, to purge.) A gentle fever, or loosening the belly, and promoting the such a one as by its discharges is supposed urine and perspiration.

SAMBUCUS EBULUS. The systematic name

of the dwarf elder. See Ebulus.

SAMBUCUS NIGRA

of the elder-tree. See Sambucus.

SAMPHIRE. flavour, which induces the common peo- lucca islands, Java, and other parts of the esteem.

Sampsuchus. See Sambucus.

SAMPSYCHUM. (From oaw, to preserve, and \u2", the mind;) because of its cor-

dial qualities. See Sambucus. Sanativa. (From sano, to cure.) Me-

dicines which heal discases.

SANCTUM SEMEN. The worm-sced, or santonicum.

(From saghad narak, SANDARACHA. Arab.) A gummy resin; also a sort of arsenic. See Saudrack

SANDARACHA ARABUM. This resinous juice appears to have been the produce of a cus large species of juniper-tree.

Sanders. See Santalum rubrum.

SANDRACK. (An Arabian word.) Sundaracha. Gum juniper. A concrete resin which exudes in white tears, more transparent than mastich, from the bark of the Juniperus communis of Linnæus. See Juniperus. Sandrack is almost totally soluble in alcohol, with which it forms a white varnish that dries speedily. Reduced to powder it is called pounce, which prevents ink from sinking into paper from which the exterior coating of size has been scraped away.

SANDYX. (From sani dak, red, Arab.) Coruss burnt till it becomes red.

SANGUIFICATION. (Sanguificatio,

SANGUINALIS. (From sanguis, blood;

SANGUINARIA. (From senguis, blood; so named from its use in stopping bleedtumnodia.

Sanguineous apoplexy. See Apoplexia.

SANGUIPURGIUM. (From sanguis, blood, to purify the blood.

SANGIUS See Blood.

SANGUIS DRACONIS. Cinnabaris gra-The systematic name covum. Draconthama. Asagen. Asegen. Dragon's blood. The red resinous ju ce The Crithmum martinum of which is obtained by wounding the birk Linuxus. It is a low perennial plant, and of the Calamus rotang; -caudice densisgrows about the sea-coast in several parts sime aculeato, aculeis crectis, spadice erecof the island. It has a spicy aromatic to. It is chiefly obtained from the Mople to use it as a pot-herb. Pickled with East Indies. It is generally much adul-vinegar and spice it makes a wholesome terated, and varied in goodness and puand elegant condiment which is in much rity. The best kind is of a dark red colour, which, when powdered, changes to crimson; it readily melts and catches flame; has no smell, but to the taste discovers some degree of warmth and pungency. The ancients Greeks were well acquainted with the adstringent power of this drug; in which character it has since been much employed in hæmorrhages, in alvine fluxes. At present, however, it is not used internally, being superseded by more certain and effectual remedies of this numerous class.

SANGUIS UERCULIS. A name for the cro-

SANGUISORBA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Triandria Order, Monogynia.

The syste-SANGUISORBA OFFICINALIS. matic name of the Italian pimpinel. See

Pimpinella Italica.

SANGUISUGA. (From sanguis, blood, and sugo, to suck.) The leech, or bloodsucker. See Leech.

Sanicle. See Sanicula.
Sanicle, Yorkshire. Sec Pinguicula.

SANICULA. (From sano, to heal; so called from its virtues in healing.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Liunzan system. Class, Pentandria. gynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of shnicle

Cucullata. Sanicula mas. Diapensia cortusa. This herb, Samicula europea of Linnaus, was formerly recommended as a mild adstringent, and is supposed to have received its name from its sanative power. Its sensible qualities are a bitterish and somewhat austere taste, followed by an acrimony which ehiefly affects the throat. It is only in use in the present day amongst the country people.

SANICULA EBORACENSIS. Pinguicula Sanicula montana. Viola palustris. The Yorkshire sanicle or butter-wort. See Pingui-

SANICULA EUROPEA. The systematic name of the sanicle. See Sanicula.

See Sanicula. SANICULA MAS

SANIES. Ichor. This term is sometimes applied to a thin, limpid, and greenish discharge; and at other times to a thick and bloody kind of pus.

SANTALUM. (From zandal, Arab.) The name of a genus of plants in the Lin-

næan system. Saunders.

SANTALUM ALBUM. The systematic name of the yellow saunders. See Santalum citrinum.

SANTALUM ALBUM. The white saunders of the shop is said to be the alburnum of the tree whose medullary part is called Santalum citrimum.

SANTALUM CITRINUM. Santalum pullidum. Yellow saunders. Santalum album of Linnæus. White saunders wood is of a pale white eolour, often with a yellowish tinge, and, being destitute of taste or odour, it is superseded by the santalum citrinum, which is of a brownish yellow colour, of a bitterish aromatic taste, and of a pleasant smell, approaching to that of the rose. Both kinds are brought from the East Indies in billets, consisting of large thick pieces, which, according to Rumphius, are sometimes taken from the same, and sometimes from different trees. For though the white and yellow saunders are the wood of the same species of tree, yet the latter, which forms the central part of the tree, is not always to be found in sufficient quantity to repay the trouble and expense of procuring it especially, unless the trees be old; while the white, which is the exterior part of the wood, is always more abundant, and is consequently much cheaper.

Yellow saunders, distilled with water, yields a fragrant essential oil, which thickens in the cold into the consistence of a balsam, approaching in smell to ambergris, or a mixture of ambergris and roses; the remaining decoction, inspissated to the consistence of an extract, is bitterish and slightly pungent. Rectified spirit extracts, by digestion, considerably more than water; the colour of the tincture is

Dodecatheon. Symphytum pe- a rich yellow. The spirit distilled off is slightly impregnated with the fine flavour of the wood; the remaining brownish extract has a weak smell, and a moderate balsamic pungeney.

The wood is valued highly on account of its fragrance, hence the Chinese are said to fumigate their elothes with it, and to burn it in their temples in honour of their gods. Though still retained in the Materia Medica of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, it cannot be thought to possess any consider. able share of medicinal power. Hoffman eonsiders its virtues as similar to those of

restorative.

ed it in the character of a corroborant and SANTALUM PALLIDUM. See Santalum cit-

ambergris; and some others have esteem-

SANTALUM RUBRUM. Red saunders. Ptercarpus santalinus of Linnæus. There is some reason to believe that several red woods, eapable of communicating this colour to spirituous liquors, are sold as red saunders; but the true officinal kind appears, on the best authority, to be of this tree, which is extremely hard, of a bright garnet red colour, and bears a fine polish. It is only the inner substance of the wood that is used as a colouring matter, and the more florid red is mostly esteemed. being cut it is said to manifest a fragrant odour, which is more especially in old trees. According to Lewis, this wood "is of a dull red, almost blackish colour on the outside, and a deep brighter red within; its fibres are now and then curled, as in knots. It has no manifest smell, and little or no taste; even of extracts made from it with water, or with spirit, the taste is not considerable.

To watery liquors it communicates only a yellowish tinge, but to rectified spirit a fine deep red. A small quantity of an extract made with this menstroum, tinges a large one of fresh spirit of the same colour; though it does not, like most other resinous bodies, dissolve in expressed oils. Cf distilled oils, there are some, as that of lavender, which receive a red tineture from the wood itself, and from its resinous extract, but the greater number do not. Red saunders has been esteemed as a medicine; but its only use attaches to its colouring property. The juice of this tree, like that of some others, affords a species of sanguis draeonis.

Santolina. (From santalum, saunders, because it smells like the saunders wood.)

See Abrotamım fiemina.

SANTOLINA CHAMÆ-CYPARISSUS. The systematie name of the lavender cotton. See Abrotanum fæmina.

SANTONICUM. (From Santonia, its native place.) This plant and its seeds have received several names. Absinthium antonicum Alexandrinum. Sementina. Ab- Its virtues, according to Bergius, are desinthium seriphium Egytium Scheba Ara- tergent, resolvent, and aperiont, and its rum semina. Cina. Semen contra. Semen culous complaints, and in obstructions of sanctum. It is the Tartarean southern-wood the viscera. The efficacy of soap, in the or wormseed, Artemisia santonica of Lin- first of these diseases, was experienced by naus :- foliis caulinis linearibus pinnato mul- Sylvins, and since recommended very genetifidis, ramis indivisis, spicis secundis re- rally by various authors who have written a vellowish green colour, with a cast of medicine, in icterical cases, was inferred brown, easily friable, upon being rubbed chiefly from its supposed power of disbetween the fingers, into a fine chaffy solving biliary concretions; but this medicated of substance. They are brought eine has lost much of its reputation in purposes of an authelmintic.

SAPHENA. (Venu saphena: from σαφης,

veins.

SAPIENTLE DENTES. The four last grinders are so called, because they appear when the person is supposed to be at years of discretion. See Teeth.

The systematic SAPINDI'S SAPONARIA. name of the plant which affords soap-nuts.

See Suponuriæ muculæ.

SAPO. Soap. A composition of oils, or fats, with an alkalı The medicinal soap, sapo duras, sopo amygdatinus, is made withoil of sweet almonds, and half its weight of potash or caustic alkalı. Common or soft soap, sapo mollis, is made of tallow; Spanish, or Castile soap, of oil of almouds, and soda, or barilla. Black soap is a composition of train oil and an alkali; and green soap of hemp, linseed, or rape oil. The sape ex oleo olive et nutro confectus of the former London Pharmacopæia, or the sapo albus crispanus of the Edinburgh Pharmacapæia, (white Spanish soap,) being made of the finer kinds of olive oil, is the best, and therefore preferred for internal use. Soap was imperfectly known to the ancients. It is mentioned by Pliny as made of fat and ashes, and as an invention of the Gauls. Aretxus and others inform us, that the Greeks obtained their knowledge of its medical use from the Romans.

Zedoariæ sem. Xantolina. Lumbrico- use recommended in jaundices, gout, calflexis, floribus quinquefloris. The seeds on this complaint; and it has also been are small, light, and oval, composed of thought of use in supplying the place of a number of thin membranous coats of bile in the prime vize. The utility of this from the Levant shave a moderately strong jaundice, since it is now known, that gall-and not agreeable smell, somewhat of the stones have been found in many after wormwood kind, and a very bitter sub-acrd taste. Their virtues are extracted several months, and even years. Of its both by watery and spirituous menstrua, good effects in urinary calculous affections, They are esteemed to be stomachie, emmenagogue, and anthelmintic; but it is cally when dissolved in lime-water, by especially for the last-mentioned powers that they are now administered, and from their efficacy in this way they have obtained the name of wormseed. To admits supposes to be the chief agent in the forthe dose in substance is from one to two deadling twice a day. Lewis thinks that the incipient state of the disease that these drachms, twice a day. Lewis thinks that the incipient state of the disease that these the spirituous extract is the most eligible remedies promise effectual benefit, though preparation of the santonicum, for the they generally abate the more violent symptoms, where they cannot remove the With Boerhaave, soap was a genecause. visible.) The large vein of the leg, which ral medicine; for as he attributed most ascends along the little toe over the complaints to viscidity of the fluids, he, external ankle, and evacuates part of the and most of the Boerhaavian school, preblood from the foot into the popliteal scribed it, in conjunction with different resinous and other substances, in gout, rheumatism, and various visceral complaints. Soap is also externally employed as a resolvent, and gives name to several officinal preparations.

SAPO TEREBINTUINE. Starkey's soap. " R. Kalı præparati calidi, 3j. Olei terebinto. Zoii." The hot kali præparatum is to have the oil of turpentine gradually blended with it, in a heated mortar. Indolent swellings were formerly rubbed with this application, and perhaps some chronic affections of the joints might still

be benefited by it.

SAPONARIA. (From sapo, soap; so called because its juice, like soap, cleans clothes.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Decandria.

Order, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the soapwort. Bruise-wort. Struthium Lanaria. Lychnis sylvestris. Ibixuma. The root of this plant Saponaria officinalis of Linnaus :-Calycibus cylindricis, foliis ovato-lanceolatis, is employed medicinally; it has no peculiar smell; its taste is sweetish, glutinous, and somewhat bitter. On being chewed for some time, it is said to discover a degree of acrimony, which continues to affect the mouth a considerable time. According to

Neuman, two ounces of the root yielded eleven drachms of watery extract; but seeds are sometimes given in the form of Cartheuser, from a like quantity, only obtained six drachms and twenty four grains. This extract manifested a sweetish taste, followed by an acrid quality The spirituous extract is less in quality, but of a more penetrating acrid tas e. Decoctions of the root, on being sufficiently agitated, produce a saponaceous froth, a similar soapy quality is observable also in the extract, and still more manifestly in the leaves, insomuch that they have been used by the mendicant monks as a substitute for soap in washing of their clothes, and Bergius, who made several experiments with the saponaria, declares that it had all the ef- lour. fects of soap itself.

From these peculiar qualities of the saponaria, there can be little doubt of its possessing a considerable share of medical efficacy, which Dr. Woodville says he could wish to find faithfully ascertained.

The diseases for which the saponaria is recommended, as syphilis, gout, rheumatism, and jaundice, are not, perhaps, the complaints in which its use is most availing; for a fancied resemblance of the roots of saponaria with those of sarsaparilla, seems to have led physicians to think them similar in their effects; and hence they have both been administered with the same intentions, particularly in fixed pains, and venereal affections. Bergius says, "in arthritide, cura mercuriale, &c. nullum aptiorem potum novi." However, according to several writers, the most inveterate cases of syphilis were cured by a decoction of this plant, without the use of

Haller informs us, that Boerhaave entertained an high opinion of its efficacy in jaundice, and other visceral obstructions.

SAPONARIA NUCULA. Bacca bermuden-A spherical fruit, Soap-berries. about the size of a cherry, whose cortical part is yellow, glossy, and so transparent as to shew the spherical black nut which rattles within, and which includes a white kernel. It is the produce of the Sapindus saponuria of Linnans, which grows in Jamaica. It is said that the cortical part of this fruit has a bitter taste, and no smell; that it raises a scapy froth with water, and has similar effects with soap in washing; that it is a medicine of singular and specific virtue in chlorosis. They are not known in the shops of this country.

SAPONARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the soap-wort. See Saponaria. SAPONULES. Saponuli. Combinations of the volatile or essential oils with different bases; as saponule of alumine.

volatile or essential oils with different arids.

SAPOTA. The oval fruited sapota, whose emulsion in calculous complaints, is the Acrus sapota of Linnaus. It is a native of South America, and bears a fruit like an apple, which has, when ripe, a luscious taste, resembling that of the marmalade of quinces, whence it is called natural mar-

SAPPAN LIGNUM. Logwood has been so called. See Lignum campecheuse.

SAPPHARINA AQUA. Aqua cupri ammo. niati. Made by a solution of sal aminoniac in lime-water, standing in a copper vessel.

SAPPHIRE. A gem of a sky-blue co-

Saracens consound. See Virga aurea. SARCIUM. (Dim. of oags, flesh.) A carbuncle, or small fleshy excrescence.

SARCITES. (From oage, flesh.) anasarca.

SARCOCELE. (From oagk, flesh, and инан, a tumour.) Hernia carnosa. This is a disease of the body of the testicle, and, as the term implies, consists, in general, in such an alteration made in the structure of it, as produces a resemblance to a hard fleshy substance, instead of that fine, soft, vascular texture, of which it is, in a natural and healthy state, composed.

The ancient writers have made a great number of distinctions of the different kinds of this disease, according to its different appearances, and according to the mildness, or malignity of the symptoms with which it m y chance to be attended. Thus, the sarcocele, the hydro-sarcocele, the scirrhus, the cancer, the cara adnato ad testem, and the caro adnata ad vasa, which are really little more than descriptions of different states and circumstances of the same disease, are reckoned as so many different complaints, requiring a variety of treatment, and deriving their origin from a variety of different humours.

Every species of sarcocele consists primarily in an enlargement, induration, and obstruction of the vascular part of the testicle; but this alteration is, in different people, attended with such a viriety of circumstances, as to produce several different appearances, and to occasion the many distinctions which have been

If the body of the testicle, though enlarged, and indurated to some degree, be perfectly equal in its surface, void of pain, has no appearance of fluid in its tunica vaginalis, and produces very little uneasiness, except what is occasioned by its mere weight, it is usually called a simple sarcocele, or an indolent scirrhus; if, at SAPONULES, ACID. Combinations of the the same time that the testis is enlarged and hardened, there be a palpable accumulation of fluid in the vaginal coat, the disease has by many been named a hydrosurcocele; if the lower part of the sper- cavity of the tunica vaginalis; but the body matic vessels, and the epidydimis were of the testicle itself is formed into cells, enlarged, hard, and knotty, they supposed containing either a turbid kind of water, a it to be a fungous, or morbid accretion, bloody sanies, or a purulent totid matter. and called it the care adnata ad vasa; if the Sometimes the disorder seems to be merely testicle itself was unequalinits surface, but local, that is, confined to the testicle, at the same time not painful, they distin- not proceeding from a tainted habit, nor guish it by the title of caro adnata ad tes- accompanied with diseased viscera, the tem; if it was tolerably equal, not very parient having all the general appearances painful, nor frequently so, but at the same and circumstances of health, and deriving time hard and large, they gave it the ap- his local mischief from an external injury. pellation of an occult or benign cancer; if At other times, a pallid, leaden counteit was ulcerated, subject to frequent acute nance, indigestion, frequent nausea, choice pain, to hamorrhage, &c. it was known pains, sudden pargings, &c. sufficiently inby that of a malignant or confirmed can- dicate a vitiated habit, and diseased viscer. These different appearances, though cera, which diseased viscera may also distinguished by different titles, are really no more than so many stages (as it were) of the same kind of disease, and depend a great deal on several accidental circumstances, such as age, habit, manner of living, &c. It is true, that many people pass several years with this disease, under its most favourable appearances, and without encountering any of its worst; but, on the other hand, there are many, who, in a very short space of time, run through all its stages. They who are most conversant with it, know how very convertible its power of gluing together wounds) A mildest symptoms are into its most dread-concrete gummi-resinous jnice, supposed ful ones, and how very short a space of to be the produce of the Penæa mucronata time often intervenes between the one and the other.

There is hardly any disease affecting the human body which is subject to more variety than this is, both with regard to its first manner of appearance, and the changes

which it may undergo.

Sometimes the first appearance is a mere simple enlargement and induration of the body of the testicle; void of pain, without inequality of surface, and producing no uneasiness, or inconvenience, except what is occasioned by its mere weight. And some people are so fortunate to have it remain in this state for a very considerable length of trine of the muscles and soft parts. time without visible or material alteration. On the other hand, it sometimes happens, that very soon after its appearance in this mild manner, it suddenly becomes unequal the class locales, and order tumores of and knotty, and is attended with very acute pains darting up to the loins and back, but still remaining entire, that is, not bursting and omoganos, the navel.) A fleshy excresthrough the integuments. Sometimes the cence about the navel. fury of the disease brooks no restraint; but, making its way through all the membranes which envelope the testicle, it either produces a large, foul, stinking, phagedenic ulcer, with hard edges, or it thrusts forth a painful gleeting fungus, subject to frequent hæmorrhage

Sometimes an accumulation of water is made in the tunica vaginalis, producing that mixed appearance, called the hydro-

sarcocele.

Sometimes there is no fluid at all in the sometimes be discovered and felt

The progress also which it makes from the testis upward, toward the process, is very uncertain; the disease occupying the testicle only, without affecting the spermatic process, in some subjects, for a great length of time; while, in others, it totally spoils the testicle very soon, and, almost as soon, scizes on the spermatic

chord.

SARCOCOLLA. (From σαςξ, flesh, and xoxxa, gluc; because of its supposed of Linnaus. It is brought from Persia and Arabia in small grains of a pale yellow colour, having also sometimes mixed with them a few of a deep red colour. Its taste is bitter, but followed with some degree of sweetness. It has been chiefly used for external purposes, and, as its name imports, has been thought to agglutinate wounds and illers; but this opinion now no longer exists.

SAUCOEPIPLOCELE. Enlarged testicle, with rupture, containing omentum.

Sarcologia. From oaeg, flesh, and Aoyos, a discourse) The doc-

SARCOMA. (From ones, flesh.) Sarcosis. Porrus Sarcophya. Nevus fleshy excrescence. A genus of disease in Cullen.

SARCOMPHALUS. (From rage, flesh,

SARCOPHYIA. (From ozež, flesh, and ova.

to grow.) A fleshy excrescence.

SARCOPYODES. (From oage, flesh, and wov, pus.) Applied to the purulent, fleshy discharge which is thrown up in some stages of consumption.

SARCOSIS. (From oagg, flesh.) fleshy tumour. The general on of flesh. SARCOTICA. (From ough, flesh.) Medi-

cines which promote the generation of flesh in wounds.

SARDIASIS. (From oagsarm, the sardo- progress, during the regular administrania, or herb, which, being eaten, causes tion of the vegetable remedy. convulsive laughter.) The Risus sardoni- 2. When the sarsaparilla root is given in cus or a convulsive involuntary laughter.

SARDONIA.

soil.) A kind of smallage.

SARDONIC LAUGH nicus; so called from the herb sardonia, increase the efficacy of mercury," may which being eaten is said to cause a deadly imply; that a smaller quantity of this convulsive laughter. Hence risus sardo- mineral antidote will confer security on an nicus, the sardonian laughter, or spasmo- infected person, when sarsaparilla is added

SARSAPARILLA. (This word is of the aid of sarsaparilla. If a decoction of Spanish origin, signifying a red tree.) this root did indeed possess so admirable Smilax aspera Peruviana Sarsa. Caria quality, that the quantity of mercury nevillandi. Iva pecanga. Macapatli. Zaracessary to effect a cure might be safely za. Zarzaparilla. Salsaparilla. Zarcaparilla. The root of this plant, Smilax mercurial course, it would form a most sarsaparilla of Linnaus:-caule aculeato valuable addition to our Materia Medica, angulato, foliis inermibus ovatis retusomnero- This opinion has been, however, unfortunatis trinerveis, has a farinaceous, some- nately falsified by the most ample experiwhat bitter taste, and no smell. About ence, and whoever shall be so unwary as two centuries ago it was introduced into to act upon such a presumption, will be Spain, as an undoubted specific in syphisure to find his own and his patient's exlitic disorders; but owing to difference pectations egregiously disappointed of climate, or other causes, it has not answered the character which it had acquired tidote against the syphilitic virus, it ought in the Spanish West Indies. It is now to cure the disease when administered considered as capable of improving the alone; but, if no direct proof can be adgeneral habit of body, after it has been duced of its being equal to this, any argureduced by the continued use of mercury. ments founded on histories where mercury

possesses antisyphilitic virtues, Mr. Pear- the medicines were administered at the son, of the Lock Hospital, divides the sub- same time, must be ambiguous and undeject into two distinct questions. 1. Is the sarsaparilla root, when given alone, to be a very decided answer to this question: "I solemnly declare (says he) I never saw a single instance in my life where it cured that disorder without the assistance of mercury, either at the same time with it, or when it had been previously taken be-Pearson's experience, during many years, complain of nocturnal pains in their limbs; coincides entirely with the observations of they are sometimes afflicted with painful Mr. Bloomfield sarsaparilla, in powder and in decoctions, or they have membranous nodes, cutancin an almost infinite variety of cases, and ous exulcerations, and certain other sympfeels himself fully authorised to assert, that toms, resembling those which are the offthis plant has not the power of curing any spring of the venereal virus. one form of the lucs venerea. The sarsaparilla, indeed, like the guaiacum, is capa-ble of alleviating symptoms derived from true venereal affection, and, in conse-the venereal virus; and it sometimes maniquence of this error, mercury is adminifests the power of suspending, for a time, stered, which never fails to exasperate the destructive rayages of that contagion; the disease. Now, if a strong decocbut where the poison has not been previ- tion of sarsaparilla-root be given to perously subdued by mercury, the symptoms sons under these circumstances, it will will quickly return; and, in addition to seldom fail of producing the most benethem, we often see the most indubitable ficial effects; hence it has been contended, proofs that the disease is making an actual that symptoms derived from the contagion

conjunction with mercury, does it render (From Surdonia, its native the mercurial course more certain and efficacious? In replying to this query it is Risus sardo- necessary to observe, that the phrase, "to to it; or it may mean, that mercury would SARDONICUS RISUS. See Sardonic laugh. be sometimes unequal to the cure, without

If the sarsaparilla root be a genuine an-To refute the opinion that sarsaparilla has been previously given, or where both

cisive.

It appears probable, that Sir William safely relied on in the treatment of lucs Fordyce, and some other persons, entervenerea? The late Mr. Bloomfield, his tained a notion, that there were certain predecessor, and during some years his venereal symptoms which commonly re-colleague, at the Lock Hospital, has given sisted the potency of mercury, and that the sarsaparilla was an appropriate remedy in these cases. This opinion, it is presumed, is not correct, for it militates against all Mr. P. has ever observed of the progress and treatment of lues venc-rca. Indeed those patients who have rca. fore the decoction was directed." Mr. lately used a full course of mercury, often He has employed the enlargements of the elbow and knce-joints;

It may and does often happen, that ap-

of lucs venerea, which could not be cared lus; from sartor, a tailor, because tailby mercury, have finally yielded to this ors cross their legs with it.) Sartorius seu vegetable remedy. It must be acknow- longissimus femoris of Cowper, and Ilio ledged, that representations of this kind cresti tibial of Dumas. This flat and slenhave a specious and imposing air; never- der muscle, which is the langest of the theless, Mr. Pearson endeavours to prove, human body, and from an incli and a half that they are neither exact nor conclusive. to two inches in breadth, is situated im-If any of the above-named symptoms mediately under the integraments, and should appear near the conclusion of a extends obliquely from the upper and ancourse of mercury, when that medicine terior part of the thigh, to the upper, anwas operating powerfully on the whole terior, and inner part of the tibia, being system, it would be a strange and inex- enclosed by a thin membranous sheatli,

pable contradiction, that the antidote spinous process of the ilium, but soon beshould be operating with sufficient efficacy comes fleshy, and runs down a little way to cure the venereal symptoms, for which obliquely inwards, and then for some space it was directed, while, at the same time, upon the rectus, nearly in a straight directhe venereal virus was proceeding to contion; after which it passes obliquely over

order of appearances.

to which some of the mistakes committed tor magnus and the gracilis, is inserted,

to be ascribed to it as its true cause.

Every experienced surgeon must, however, he aware, that very little of truth and reality exists in a representation of this kind. The contagious matter, and the mineral specific, may jointly produce, in certain habits of body, a new series of symptoms, which, strictly speaking, are not venereal, which cannot be cured by mercury, and which are sometimes more to be dreaded than the simple and natural effects of the venereal virus,

Some of the most formidable of these appearances may be sometimes removed by sarsaparilla, the venereal virus still remaining in the system; and, when the force of that poison has been completely subdued by mercury, the same vegetable is also capable of freeing the patient from what may be called the sequelæ of a mer- smell, and a sweetish, aromatic, subacrid curial course.

The root of the sarsaparilla is sometimes employed in rheumatic affections, tioned in the pharmacopoias; but the bark scrofula, and cutaneous complaints, where is the most fragrant, and thought to be an acrimony of the fluids prevail.

SARSAPAHILLA GERMANICA. the Carex arenaria of Linnxus, which grows plentifully on the sea coast, is so drug was formerly held in great estimation, termed, and it appears, that the carex and publications were professedly written disticha and hirtu have also been collected, on the subject, It is now, however, thought and their roots used indifferently instead of the true sarsaparilla. The root of the carex arenaria has been found servicea- cines, as a corrector of the fluids ble in some mucal affections of the tra- an ingredient in the decoctum sursupurille chea, in rheumatic pains, and gouty affec-

SARTORIUS.

plicable thing if they could possibly be which is derived from the adjacent facia derived immediately from the uncontrolled agency of the venereal virus.

Lata it arises, by a tendon of about half an inch in hreadth, from the outer surface This would imply something like a pal- and inferior edge of the anterior superior tammate new parts, and to excite a new the vasus internus, and the lower part of the adductor longus, and then running One source, and a very common one, down between the tendons of the adducupon this subject may be traced, is a per- by a thin tendon, into the inner part of suasion that every morbid alteration which the tibia, near the inferior part of its tu-arises in an infected person is actually berosity, and for the space of an inch or tainted with the venereal virus, and ought two below it. This tendon sends off a thin to be ascribed to it as its true cause. per and posterior part of the leg. This muscle serves to bend the leg obliquely inwards, or to roll the thigh outwards, and at the same time to bring one leg across the other, on which account Spigelius first gave it the name of surtorius, or the tailor's muscle.

SASSAFRAS. (Quasi saxifraga; from saxum, a stone, and frango, to break; so called because a decoction of its wood was supposed good for the stone.) Cornus mas odarota. Lignum pavanum. Anhuiba. The wood of the sassafras-tree, Laurus sassafras of Linnans:-foliis trilobis integrisque, is imported from North America, in long straight pieces, very light, and of a spongy texture, and covered with a rough fungous bark. It has a fragrant taste; the root, wood, and bark, agree in their medicinal qualities, and are all menmore efficacious than the woody part; and The root of the branches are preferred to the large pieces. The medical character of this to be of little importance, and seldom used but in conjunction with other medicompositum, or decoctum lignorum; but the only officinal preparation of it is the essen-(Sartorius, sc. muscu- tial oil, which is carminative and stimulant, and which may be given in the dose of two drops to ten.

SATANUS DEVORANS. The red lions, or

SATELLITE VEINS. The veins which accompany the brachial artery as far as the bend of the cubit.

SATRE. The penis.

SATURANTIA. Medicines which neutralize the acid in the stomach.

SATURATION. A term employed in pharmacy and chemistry to express the state of a body which has a power of dissolving another, to a certain extent only, in which it has effected that degree of solution: thus, nitric acid, for instance, can only dissolve a certain quantity of lime, beyond which it does not act, having lost its former affinity; this degree of solution is termed the point of saturation, and it is then said that the nitric acid is saturated with lime.

SATUREJA. (From satyri, the lustful satyrs, because it make those who eat it lascivious. Blanch.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Gymnospermia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the summer savory. Satureca sativa. Culina sativa Plinii. Thymbra. This low shrub is the Satureja sativa of Linnaus, cultivated in our gardens for culinary pur- and pungent, which we have not been able poses. It has a warm, aromatic, pene- to discover: neither the tubercles of the trating taste, and smells like thyme, but It is an ingredient in most of the warm stews and made dishes.

SATUREJA CAPITATA. The systematic name of the ciliated savory. See Thymus

SATUREJA HORTENSIS. pame of the sommer savory. See Satureja. SATUREJA SATIVA See Satureja.

SATURNUS. (From the planet, or heathen god, of that name.) The chemical

name of lead.

SATYRIASIS. (From σατυξος, a sa'yr, because they are said to be greatly addicted to venery ) Satyriasmus Priapismus. regetation, by supplying the plants with Salacitas. Brachuna. Arascon. Excessive and violent desire for coition in men. abling them to resist the effects of that A genus of disease in the class locales, and drought to which the dry soils they inhabit order dysorexie of Cullen.

SATYRION. (From σατυζος, an animal given to venery, so called because it was supposed to excite venery if only held in the hand.) Dog stones. Male orchis. The this species of saxifrage is extolled by root of the Orchis mascula of Linnaus: - Professor Pallas as an antiseptic. bulbis indivisis, necturii labio quadrilobo crenulata, cornu obtuso petalis dorsalibus re- name of the white saxifrage. flexis, which has a place in the Materia Me- fraga alba. dica of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, on account of the glutinous slimy juice which it contains. The root of the orchis bifolia glica. Hippomarathrum. is also collected Satyrion root has a sweet- meuit. English, or meadow saxifrage, ish taste, a faint and somewhat unpleasant Peccudanum silaus of Linnaus. The roots,

quality has recommended it as a demulcent. Salep, which is imported here from the East, is a preparation of this root, which, considered as an article of diet, is account. ed extremely nutritious, as containing a great quantity of farinaceous matter in a small bulk. The supposed aphrodisiac qualities of this root, which have been noticed ever since the days of Dioscorides, seem, says Dr. Woodville, to be founded on the fanciful doctrine of signatures, thus orchis, i. e. og xis, testiculus, habet, radices. instar testiculorum See Salep.

SATYRIUM. See Satyrion. Sauce alone. See Alliaria.

Saunders, red. See Santalum rubrum. Saunders, yellow. See Santalum citri.

SAUR KRAUT. Sour crout. Cabbage preserved in brine. Antiscorbutic.

See Sabina.

Savin ointment. See Ceratum sabine.

SAVINA. See Sabina.

Savoury See Satureja. SAXIFRAGA. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class,

Decandria. Order, Digynia.

SAXIFRAGA ALBA. Called by Oribasius Besto. Sanicula sedum. White saxifrage. Saxifraga granulata of Linnæus, who describes the taste of this plant to be acrid root nor the leaves manifest to the organs of taste any quality likely to be of medicinal use, and therefore, though this species of saxifrage has been long employed as a popular remedy in nephritic and gravelly disorders, yet we do not find, either from The systematic its sensible qualities, or from any published instances of its efficacy, that it deserves a place in the Materia Medica. The superstitious doctrine of signatures suggested the use of the root, which is a good example of what Linnaus has termed radix The bulbs, or tubercles of granulata. such roots answer an important purpose in nourishment and moisture, and thereby enpeculiarly expose them.

SAXIFRAGA ANGLICA. See Saxifraga vul-

garis.

The roots of SAXIFRAGA CRASSIFOLIA.

SAXIFRAGA GRANULATA. The systematic

SAXIFRAGA RUBRA. See Filipendula.

Saxifraga an-SAXIFRAGA VULGARIS. Faniculum erra smell. Its mucilaginous or gelatinous leaves, and seeds of this plant have been

commended as aperients, diuretics, and verse processes of the six inferior verteto these virtues. They are rarely used.

Saxifrage burnet. See Pimpinella. Saxifrage, English. See Saxifraga vul-

Saxifrage, meadow. See Saxifraga vulgaris

Suxifrage, white. See Saxifraga alba.

SCAB A hard substance covering supertion of the fluid discharged from them.

SCABIES. See Psora.

næan system.

Monogynia.

2 The pharmacopean name of the com- and longest of the three. This arises from mon scabious. This herb, Scabiosa arventhe transverse processes of the second, sis, corollis quadrifdis, radiantihus; foliis third, fourth, and fifth vertebræ of the pinnatffdis, incisis; caule hispido of Linnack, and its flowers are sometimes used into the upper edge of the second rib, at medicinally. The whole plant possesses a bitter and subadstringent taste, and was from its articulation, by a broad flat tenformerly much employed in the cure of don. The use of the scalenus is to move the neck to one side, when it acts singly, and diseases of the hunes. and diseases of the lungs.

SCABIOSA ARVENSIS. name of the common field scabious. See to elevate the ribs, and dilate the ehest.

Scabiosa.

Scaniosa succisa. The systematic name of the devil's bit scabious. See Morsus diaholi.

ral eavity of the cochlea,

SCALA VESTIBULI. The inferior spi- rugire, used in trepanning. nal cavity of the cochlea.

Scald head. See Tinea capitis.

SCILE. Squama. A lamina of morbid riacus. entiele, hard, thickened, whitish, and dium. opaque, of a very small size and irregular, mi-resinous juice of the Convolvulus often increasing into layers, denominated scammonia of Linnaus :- folis sagitais crusts. Both scales and ernsts repeated- postice truncatis, pedunculis teretibus subly fall off, and are reproduced in a short tifloris. This plant grows plentifully about time.

SCALENUS. portion arises commonly from the trans- time is sufficient for drawing off the whole

earminatives; and appear, from their aro- bra of the neck, by as many short tendons, matic smell, and moderately warm, pun- and descending obliquely outwards, is ingent, bitterish taste, to have some claim scrted tendinous and fleshy, into the upper side of the first rib, near its cartilage. The axillary artery passes through this portion, and sometimes divides it into two slips, about an inch and a half above its inser-The middle portion arises by distion. tinct tendons, from the transverse processes of the four last vertebræ of the neek, and descending obliquely outwards and a little ficial ulcerations, and formed by a concre- backwards, is inserted tendinous into the outer and upper part of the first rib, from its root to within the distance of an inch SCABIOSA. (From seaber, rough; so from its cartilage. The space between called from its rough harry surface.) 1, this and the anterior portion, affords a pas-The name of a genus of plants in the Lin- sage to the nerves going to the upper ex-Class, Tetrandria. Order, tremities. It is in part covered by the third or posterior portion, which is the tlumnest 2 The pharmacopoial name of the com- and longest of the three. This arises from or to bend it forwards, when both muscles The systematic act; and when the neck is fixed, it serves

> SCALENUS PHIMUS. See Scalenus. SCALENUS SECUNDUS. See Scalenus. SCALUNUS TERTIUS. See Scalenus.

SCALPELLUM. A scalpel, or common SCALA TYMPANI. The superior spidisscoting knife. A raspatory. I cavity of the cochlea.

SCALPELLUM. A scalpel, or common dissecting knife. A raspatory or described by the cochlea.

SCAMMONIUM. (A corruption of the Arabian word chamoz ih.) Convolvulus sy-Scammonium syriacum. Diagry-Scammony. The concrete guin-Maraash, Antioch, Edlib, and towards (Scalenus sc. Musculus; Tripoli, in Syria. No part of the dried from σχαλεύος, irregular, or unequal.) Ana- plant possesses any medicinal quality, but tomical writers have differed greatly in the root, which Dr. Russel administered their descriptions of this muscle, which is in decoction, and found it to be a pleasunt situated at the side of the neck, between and mild cathartic. It is from the miky the transverse processes of the cervical juice of the root that we obtain the officivertebra and the upper part of the thorax, had scammony, which is procured in the The ancients, who gave it its name from following manner, by the peasants, who its resemblance to an irregular triangle, collect it in the beginning of Junc: having considered it as one muscle. Vesalins and cleared away the earth from about the Winslow divide it into two, Fallopius and root, they cut off the top in an oblique Cowper into three, Douglas into four, and direction, about two inches below where Albinus into five portions, which they de- the stalks spring from it. Under the most scribe as distinct muscles. Without de- depending part of the slope they fix a shell, viating in the least from anatomical accu- or some other convenient receptale, into racy, it may be considered as one muscle which the milky juice gradually flows. It divided into three portions. The anterior is left there about twelve hours, which

juice; this, however, is in small quantity, gradually higher and broader as it apeach root affording but a very few drachms. proaches the anterior and superior angle of This juice from the several roots is put to- the bone, till at length it terminates in a gether, often into the leg of an old boot, broad and flat process, at the top of the for want of some more proper vessel, shoulder, called the processus acromion, where, in a little time, it grows hard, and On the anterior edge of this processus acrois the genuine scammony. The smell of mion, we observe an oblong, concave, arscammony is rather unpleasant, and the ticulating surface, covered with cartilage, taste bitterish and slightly acrid. The for the articulation of the scapula with the different proportions of gum and resin, clavicle. At its lower part, the acromion of which it consists, have been variously is hollowed, to allow a passage to the sustated, but as proof spirit is the best men-struum for it, these substances are sup-pread to be nearly in qual parts. It is for the insertion of the trapezius and delbrought from Aleppo and Smyrna in masses, toid muscles. Of two the fossæ into which generally of a light shining grey colour, the external surface of the bone is divided and friable texture; of rather an unplead by the spine, the superior one, which is sant smell, and bitterish and slightly acrid the smallest, serves to lodge the supra taste. The scammony of Aleppo is by far spinatus muscle; and the inferior fossa, the purest. That of Smyrna is ponder- which is much larger than the other, gives ous, black, and mixed with extraneous origin to the infra spinatus. The triangular matters. Scammony appears to have been shape of the scapula leads us to consider its well known to the Greek and Arabian angles and its sides. The upper posterior physicians, and was exhibited internally as angle is neither so thick, nor has so rough a a purgative, and externally for the itch, surface, as the inferior one; but the most tinea, fixed pains, &c. It is seldom given remarkable of the three angles of this bone alone, but enters several compounds, which is the anterior one, which is of great thickare administered as purgatives.

Scammony. See Scammonium.

plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pen- in the recent subject, is furnished with cartandria. Order, Digynia.

The systematic SCANDIX CEREFOLIUM. name of the officinal chervil. See Cerefolium.

SCANDIX ODORATA. The systematic name of the sweet cicely, which possesses virtues similar to the common chervil. See Cerefolium.

SCAPHA. (A skiff, or cock-boat; from σκαπτω, to make hollow; because formerly they were made by excavating a large tree.) 1. The excavation or cavity of the auricula, or external ear, between the helix and antihelix.

2. The name of a double-headed roller.

Scaphoid. See Scaphoides.

SCAPHOIDES. (Erom σκαφη, a little vessel, or boat, and eifos, resemblance.) Boat-like. See Naviculare os.

pha.) Omoplata. Os homoplata. Scopiu- two processes with which it is connected, la. Epinotion. The shoulder blade. This are evidently intended for the protection bone, which approaches nearly to a tri- of the joint, and to prevent a laxation of angular figure, is fixed, not unlike a buck- the os humeri upwards. ler, to the upper, posterior, and lateral sides of the scapula, the posterior one, part of the thorax, extending from the first which is the longest, is called the basis. This to about the seventh rib. The anterior side is turned towards the vertebra. Its and internal surface is irregularly concave, other two sides are called costa. The sufrom the impression, not of the ribs, as perior costa, which is the upper and the generality of anatomists have supposed, shortest side, is likewise thinner than the but of the subscapularis muscle. Its pos-other two, having a sharp edge. It is terior and external surface is convex, and nearly horizontal, and parallel with the divided into two unequal fossæ by a con- second rib; and is interrupted, near the siderable spine, which, rising small from the bas's of the coracoid process, by a semiposterior edge of the scapula, becomes circular niche, which is closed by a liga-

ness, and formed into a glenoid cavity of an oval shape, the greatest diameter of SCANDIX. The name of a genus of which is from below upwards. This cavity, tilage, and receives the head of the os humeri. The cartiloginous crust, which surrounds its brims, makes it appear deeper in the fresh subject than in the skeleton. A little beyond this glenoid cavity, the bone becomes narrower, so as to give the appearance of a neck; and above this rises a considerable process, which, from being thick at its origin, becomes thinner, and, in some degree, flattened at its extremity. This process projects considerably, and is curved downwards. From its supposed resemblance to the beak of a bird, it is called the coracoid process. From the whole external side of this process, a strong and broad ligament is stretched to the processus acromion, becoming narrower as it approaches the latter process, so as to be of a somewhat SCAPULA. (From the Hebrew schi- triangular shape. This ligament, and the Of the three

ment that extends from one end of it to the other, and affords a passage to vessels and nerves. Besides this passage, there scarifico, to scarify.) are other niches in the scapula for the transmission of vessels; viz. one between instrument called a scarificator, for the the cor coid process and the head of the bone, and another between its neck and the processus acromion. The third side of the scapula, or the inferior costa, as it is called, is of considerable thickness, and extends obliquely from the neck of the bone to its inferior angle, reaching from about the third to the eighth rib. The red. Ital.) The scarlet fever, a genus of scapula has but very little cellular sub-disease in the class pyrexix, and order stance, and is of unequal thickness, being exanthemata of Cullen; characterised by very thin at its middle part, where it is contagious syno ha; the fourth day the covered by a great number of muscles, and face swells; a scarlet eruption appears on having its neck, the acromion, and cora- the skin in patches; which, after three or could process, of considerable strength. In four days, ends in the desquaration of the the factus, the hasis and the neck of the cuticle, or is succeeded by anasarca-scapula, together with its glenoid cavity, has two species: 1. Scarlatina simples, acromion, coracoid process, and the ridge mild. 2. Scarlatina cynanchica, or ungiof the spine, are so many epiphyses with nosa, with ulcerated sore-throat. respect to the rest of the bone, to which they are not completely united till a con. attacks the same person a second time; siderable time after birth. The scapula is articulated to the clavicle and os humeri, to which last it serves as a fulcrum; and, by altering its position, it affords a greater scope to the bones of the arm in their dif. subject to it, and it appears at all seasons ferent motions. It likewise affords attach- of the year; but it is more frequently met ment to a great number of muscles, and with towards the end of autumn, or begin-

SCAPULARIA. (From scapula, the shoulder-hone.) A bandage for the shoulder- doubt, a very contagious disease. blade.

the subclavian and axillary.

shire. There are two species of chalybeate of the measles, but which do not usually water found in this spot, and they differ attend on the scarlatina, or at least in any considerably in their composition, though high degree. they rise nearly contiguous to each other. The one is a simple carbonated chalybeate, similar to the Tunbridge water: the other, shiverings, alternated by fits of heat. The which is better known and more frequent- thirst is considerable, the skin dry, and ed, and more particularly distinguished as Scarborough water, has, in conjunction with the iron, a considerable admixture of a purging salt, which adds much to its value. The diseases in which it is ordered are similar to those in which Cheltenham water is prescribed, only it is necessary to increase the purgative effect of this water by adding similar salts. It is, therefore, chiefly as an alterative that this water can be employed in its natural state.

Scarborough has an advantage belonging to its situation which Cheltenham does not possess, that of affording an opportunity for sea-hathing, the use of which will, in many cases, much assist in the plan of cure for many of the disorders for which fever. On the departure of the effloresthe mineral water is resorted to.

Scarf-skin. See Cuticle and Skin.

SCARIFICATION. (Scarificatio, from A superficial incision made with a lancet, or a chirurgical purpose of taking away blood, or letting out fluids, &c.

SCARIOLA. See Lactuca sylvestris.

SCARIOLA GALLORUM. The lactuca scariola is sometimes so termed. See Lactuca sylvestris.

SCARLATINA. (From scarlatto, a deep

has two species: 1. Scarlatina amplex, the

Some have asserted that scarlatina never more extensive observation has confuted

this opinion.

Scarlatina attacks persons of all ages, but children and young persons are most posteriorly serves as a defence to the tho-at which time it very often becomes a very prevalent epidemic. It is, beyond all

The one to which it bears the greatest SCAPULARIÆ ARTERIÆ. The sca- resemblance is the measles; but from this pulary arteries and veins are branches of it is readily to be distinguished by the absence of the cough, watery eye, running SCARBOROUGH WATER. A ferru- at the nose and sneezing, which are the ginous spring at Scarborough in Vork- predominant symptoms in the early stage

> It begins like other fevers, with languor, lassitude, confusion of ideas, chills and the patient is of en incommoded with

anxiety, nausea, and vomiting.

Soon after the appearance of these symptoms, a stiffness is perceived in the neck, accompanied with a soreness in the throat, and a difficulty and pain in swallowing. On inspecting the internal fauces, they are found very red, and more or less swelled. On the tonsils, velum pendulum palati and usula, the parts most affected with inflam. mation, there generally, not always, appears a number of small whitish or greyish specks or sloughs.

About the third day, the scarlet efflorescence appears on the skin, which seldom produces however any remission of the cence, which usually continues out only for three or four days, a gentle sweat comes same morbid appearances are to be obon, the fever subsides, the cuticle or scarfskin then falls off in small scales, and the patient gradually regains his former strength and health.

On the disappearance of the efflores- tina. cence in scarlatina, it is, however, no uncommon occurrence for an anasarcous swelling to affect the whole body, but this is usually of a very short continuance.

Scarlatina in several instances approaches very near to the cynanche maligna, and the patient is then seized not only with a coldness and shivering, but likewise with great languor, debility and sickness, succeeded by heat, nausea, vomiting of bilious matter, soreness of the throat, inflammation, and ulceration in the tonsils, a frequent and laborious breathing, and a quick and small depressed pulse. When the effloresecnce appears, which is usually on the third day, it brings no relief, on the contrary the symptoms are much aggrated, and fresh ones arise.

In the progress of the disease, one universal redness, unattended however by any pustular cruption, pervades the face, body, and limbs, which parts appear somewhat swollen. The eyes and nostrils partake likewise more or less of the redness, and in proportion as the former have an inflamed appearance, so does the tendency

to delirium prevail.

When scarlatina anginosa is to terminate in health, the fiery redness abates gradually, and is succeeded by a brown colour, and the skin becomes rough, peels off in small scales, the tumefaction subsides, and health is gradually restored. On the contrary, when it is to terminate fatally, the febrile symptoms run very high from the first of its attack, the skin is intensely hot and dry, the pulse is very frequent but small, great thirst prevails, the efflorescence makes its appearance on the second day, or sooner, and about the third or fourth is probably interspersed with large livid spots, and a high degree of delirium ensuing, or hamorrhages breaking out, the patient is cut off about the sixth or eighth day. In some cases a severe purging arises, which never fails to prove fatal. Some again, where the symptoms do not run so high, instead of recovering, as is usual, about the time the skin begins to regain its natural colour, fall into a kind of lingering way, and are carried off in the course of a few weeks,

Scarlatina of itself is not usually attended with danger, although a considerable degree of delirium sometimes prevails for a day or two; but when it partakes See Innominatum os. much of the nature of cynanche maligna, or degenerates into typhus putrida, which it is apt to do, it often proves fatal. The in the thigh.

served on dissection, when it destroys the patient, as in these diseases.

SCARLATINA ANGINOSA. Sec Scarlatina. SCARLATINA CYNANCHICA. See Scarla-

SCARLATINA SIMPLEX. See Scarlatina. Scarlet fever. See Scarlatina.

Sceleton Sec Skeleton.

Scelotyrbe. (From oxenos, the leg, and Tuesn, riot, intemperance.) A debility of the legs from scurvey or an intemperate way of life.

SCHEROMA. A dryness of the eve from the want of the lacrymal fluid. The effects of this lacrymal fluid being deficient, the eyes become dry, and in their motions produce a sensation as though sand, or some gritty substances, were between the eye and the eyelid; the vision is obscured, the globe of the eye appears foulish and dull, which is a bad omen in acute diseases. The species are, 1. Scheroma febrile, or a dryness of the eyes, which is observed in fevers, complicated with a phlogistic density of the humours. 2. Scheroma exhaustorum, which happens after great evacuations, and in persons dying. 3. Scheroma inflammatorum, which is a symptom of the ophthalmia sicca. 4. Scheroma itinerantium, or the dryness of the eyes, which happens in sandy places to travellers, as in hot Syria, or from dry winds, which dries up the humidity necessary for the motion of the eyes.

Schidacedon. (From σχιδαξ, a splinter.) A longitudinal fracture of the bone. SCHINELAUM. (From oxivos, the mastich, and sharr, oil.) Oil of mastich.

SCHNEIDER'S MEMBRANE. very vascular pituatory membrane of the nose, called Schneiderian, from its disco-

Schoenanthus. (From oxonos, a rush, and arbos, a flower.) Sweet rush, or camel's hay. See Juncus odoratus.

Schenolagurus. (From oxowos, a rush, and hayos, a hare, and sea, a tail; so called from its resemblance to a hare's tail.) Hare's tail. Cotton-grass.

SCIATIC ARTERY, Arteria sciatica. Ischiatic artery. A branch of the internal

SCIATIC NERVE. Nervus sciaticus. Ischiatic nerve. A branch of a nerve of the lower extremity, formed by the union of the lumbar and sacral nerves. It is divided near the popliteal cavity into the tibial and péroneal, which are distributed to the leg and foot.

SCIATIC NOTCH. Ischiatic notch.

SCIATIC VEIN. Fena sciatica. vein which accompanies the sciatic artery fection of the hip-joint.

andria. Order, Monogynia.

dicinal squill or sea-onian. Ornithogalum of dropsy, that is, when there is an effurmaritinum. Squilla Scilla maritima of sion of water into the cavities, and there-lamacus—nudifora, bracteis refractis. A fore that less water goes to the kidneys, we native of Spain, Sicily, and Syria, groware of opinion that neutral salt, accompany on the sea coast. The red-rooted vanying the squill, may be of use in determined the proposed to be proposed to the proposed to be propos the squill, which appears to have been that it will be always useful, and gene-known as a medicine in the early ages of rally safe, during the exhibition of the Groece, and has so well maintained its squills, to increase the usual quantity of character ever since as to be deservedly in drink." great estimation, and of very frequent use at this time, seems to manifest a poisonous been supposed to be promoted by the addiquality to several animals. In proof of tion of some mercurial; and the less purthis, we have the testimonies of Hillefield, gative preparations of mercury, in the Bergius, Vogel, and others. Its acrimo opinion of Dr. Cullen, are best adapted to ny is so great, that even if much handled this purpose; he therefore recommends a it exulcerates the skin, and if given in solution of corrosive sublimate, as being large doses, and frequently repeated, it more proper than any other, because most not only excites nausea, tormina, and vin- diuretic. Where the prime vie abound lent vomiting, but it has been known to with mucous matter, and the lungs are opproduce strangury, bloody urine, hyperca-thursis, cardialgia, hemorrhoids, convul-is likewise in general estimation. sions, with fatal inflammation, and ganthe scilla do not derogate from its medi- of respiration very generally depends. cinal virtues; on the contrary, we feel our- Therefore in all pulmonic affections, exselves felly warranted, says Dr. Woodville, cepting only those of actual or violent in-in representing this drug, under proper, flammation, ulcer, and spasm, the squill management, and in certain cases and constitutions, to be a medicine of great prac- dicine. The officinal preparations of squills tical utility, and real importance in the are, a conserve, dried squills, a syrup, and cure of many obstinate diseases. Its ef- vinegar, an oxymel, and pills. fects, as stated by Bergius, are incidens, tioners have not, however, confined them-diuretica, emetica, subpurgans, hydrogoga, selves to these. When this root was inexpectorans, emmenagoga. In hydropsi- tended as a diuretic, it has most commonly cal cases it has long been esteemed the been used in powder, as being in this state most certain and effectual dinretic with less disposed to nauseate the stomach; and which we are acquainted; and in asthma- to the powder it has been the practice to tic affections, or dyspnow, occasioned by add neutral salts, as nitre, or crystals of the lodgment of tenaceous phlegm, it has tartar, especially if the patient complained been the expectorant usually employed, of much thirst; others recommend calo-The squill, especially in large doses, is mel; and with a view to render the squills apt to stimulate the stomach, and to prove less offensive to the stomach, it has been emetic; and it sometimes acts on the in-usual to conjoin an aromatic. The dese of testines, and becomes purgative; but when dried squills is from two to four or six these operations take place, the medicine grains once a day, or half this quantity is prevented from reaching the blood vestwice a day; afterwards to be regulated sets and kidneys, and the patient is de-according to its effects. The dose of the prived of its diuretic effects, which are to other preparations of this drug, when fresh, be obtained by awing the squill in smaller should be four times this weight; for this doses, repeated at more distant intervals, root loses in the process of drying four

SCIATICA. Ischias. A rheumatic af- or by the joining of an opiate to this medicine, which was found by Dr. Cullen to SCIATICA CRESSES. The ibexis or cardi- answer the same purpose. The Doctor mantica, raised in gardens for culinary further observes, that from a continued repetition of the squill, the dose may be gra-(From oninho, to dry; so dually increased, and the interval of its called from its properties of drying up exhibitions shortened; and when in this humours.)

1. The name of a genus of way the dose comes to be tolerably large, plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Hex- the opiate may be most conveniently employed to direct the operation of the squill 2 The pharmacoporal name of the me- more certainly to the kidneys. "In cases riety has been supposed to be more effica-mining this fluid more certainly to the kid-cious than the white, and is therefore still neys; and whenever it can be perceived preferred for medicinal use. The root of that it take this course, we are persuaded

The diuretic effects of squills have

As an expectorant, the squill may be grene of the stomach and bowels. But as supposed not only to attenuate the mucous many of the active articles of the materia follicles to excite a more copious excretion medica, by injudicious administration, be- of it from the lungs, and thereby lessen come equally deleterious, these effects of the congestion, upon which the difficulty

fifths of its original weight, and this loss their connexion with a cancerous part; is merely a watery exhalation.

SCILLA EXSICCATA. Dried squill.

SCILLA HISPANICA. The Spanish squill. SCILLA MARITIMA. The systematic name of the officinal squill. See Scilla.

SCILLE ACETUM. Squills macerated in

SCILLE CONSERVA. Squills beat up with

SCILLE MEL. Tincture of squills boiled with honey.

SCILLE OXYMEL. Vinegar of squills boil-

ed with honey. SCILLE PILULE. Squill pills. Dried squills, ginger, soap, and ammoniacum.

SCILLE TINCTURA. Squills digested in

spirit of wine.

Scillites. (From suilla, the squill.)

A wine impregnated with squills.

(From sheque, Heb.) This amphibious animal is of the lizard kind, and caught about the Nile, and thence brought dried into this country, remarkably smooth and glossy, as if varnished. The flesh of the animal, particularly of the belly, has been said to be diuretic, alexipharmic, aphrodisac, and useful in leprous disorders.

Scirrhoma. (From origgow, to harden.)

Scirrhosis. A hard tumour See Scirrhus. SCIRRHUS. (From oxiggow, to harden.) A genus of disease in the class locales, and order tumores of Cullen; known by a hard tumour of a glandular part, indolent, and not readily suppurating. The following observations of Mr. Pearson are deserving of attention. A scirrhus, he says, is usually defined to be a hard, and almost insensible tumour, commonly situated in a glandular part, and accompanied with little or no discolouration of the surface of nature of the disease; and as glands in the skin. This description agrees with the their healthy state are not endowed with true or exquisite scirrhus; but when it has proceeded from the indolent to the malignant state, the tumour is then unequal in its figure, it becomes painful, the skin acquires a purple or livid hue, and the cutaneous veins are often varicose. Let us now examine whether this enumeration of ptoms alone can yield no certain information symptoms be sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.

It is probable, that any gland in the living body may be the seat of a cancerous disease; but it appears more frequently as an idiopathic affection in those glands that form the several secretions than in the absorbent glands: and of the secreting organs, those which ment which we find to be successful in separate fluids that are to be employed in scrophula; and when they prove unconthe animal economy, suffer much oftener querable by the powers of medicine, we than the glands which secrete the excre- generally see them continue stationary and mentitious parts of the blood. Indeed, it innocent to the latest period of life. Wrimay be doubted whether an absorbent ters have indeed said much about certain gland be ever the primary seat of a true tumours changing their nature, and assumscirrhus. Daily experience evinces, that ing a new character; but I strongly susthese glands may suffer contamination from pect that the doctrine of the mutation of

but under such circumstances, this morbid alteration being the effect of a disease in that neighbouring part, it ought to be regarded as a secondary or consequent affection. I never yet met with an unequivocal proof of a primary scirrhus in an absorbent gland; and if a larger experience shall confirm this observation, and establish it as a general rule, it will afford material assistance in forming the diagnosis of this disease. The general term scirrhus hath been applied, with too little discrimination, to indurated tumours of lymphatic glands. When these appendages of the absorbent system enlarge in the early part of life, the disease is commonly treated as strumous; but as a similar alteration of these parts may, and often does occur at a more advanced period, there ought to be some very good reasons for ascribing malignity to one rather than the other. In old people the tumour is indeed often larger, more indurated, and less tractable than in children; but when the alteration or ginated in the lymphatic glands, it will very rarely be found to possess any thing cancerous in its nature.

If every other morbid alteration in a part were attended with pain and softness, then induration and defective sensibility might point out the presence of a scirrhus. But this is so far from being the case, that even encysted tumours, at their commencement, frequently excite the sensa-tion of impenetrable hardness. All glands are contained in capsulæ, not very elastic, so that almost every species of chronic enlargement of these bodies must be hard; hence this induration is rather owing to the structure of the part, than to the peculiar much sensibility, every disease that gradually produces induration, will rather diminish than increase their perceptive powers. Induration and insensibility may therefore prove that the affected part does not labour under an acute disease; but these symconcerning the true nature of the morbid alteration. Those indolent affections of the glands that so frequently appear after the meridian of life, commonly manifest a hardness and want of sensation, not inferior to that which accompanies a true scirrhus; and yet these tumours will often admit of a cure by the same mode of treatdiseases into each other, stands upon a tion are commonly met with on a variety very uncertain foundation. Improper of other occasions, and in this particular treatment may, without doubt, exaspe- instance they may be the effects of the rate diseases, and re der a complaint which disease, but are not essentially connected appeared to be mild and tractable, dan- with its presence. gerous, or destructive; but to aggravate the symptoms, and to change the form of panied with a discolouration of the skin the disease, are things that ought not to be and a dusky redness, purple, or even livid confounded. I do not affirm, that a breast appearance of the surface, is commonly which has been the seat of a mammary seen when there is a malignant scirrhusabscess, or a gland that has been affected. The presence or abscence of colour can, ous; for they might have suffered from this precarious criterion of the true n ture of disease had no previous complaint existed; the complaint. When the disease is clearly but these morbid alterations generate no known, an altered state of the skin may greater tendency to cancer than if the assist us in judging of the progress it has parts had always retained their natural made; but as the skin may suffer similar condition. that one is convertible into the other.

Chirurgical writers have generally enumerated tumour as an essential symptom its stalks are hard and dry, Blanch.) The of the scirrhus; and it is very true, that this disease is often accompanied with an Sclarea inspa-increase of bulk in the part affected. minum sylvestre. From long and careful observation, I am however induced to think, that an addition to the quantity of matter is rather an accidental than a necessary consequence of the presence of this peculiar affection.

When the breast is the seat of a scirrhus, the altered part is hard, perhaps uneq al in its figure, and definite; but these symptoms are not always connected with an and σαζαφμα, a fleshy tumour.) A hard actual increase in the dimensions of the fleshy excrescence on the gums. breast. On the contrary, the true scirrhus is frequently accompanied with a contraction and diminution of bulk, a retractica; from σμληςοω, to harden; so called tion of the nipple, and a puckered state of from its hardness) Sclerotis. The outerthe skin.

substance lying in the breast, will very which is transparent, is termed the cornea often cause a determination of blood to transparens. It is into this coat of the eye that organ, and a consequent enlargement that the muscles of the bulb are inserted. of it; but I consider this as an inflammatory state of the surrounding parts, excited by the scirrhus, acting as a remote a gum; so called from its supposed virtues cause, and by no means essential to the in healing gun-shot wounds.) Arquebuoriginal complaint. utility of topical blood-letting under these circumstances, a notion has prevailed that the scirrhus is an inflammatory disease; gun, and plaga, a wound.) but the strongly-marked dissimilarity of a wound. phlegmon and an exquisite scirrhus, in their appearances, progress, and mode of A distortion of the spine. termination, obliges me to dissent from that opinion. That one portion of the miltwaste is sometimes so called. breast may be in a scirrhous state, while Ceterach the other parts are in a state of inflammation, is agreeable to reason and experience; but that an inflammation, which is an acute disease, and a scirrhus, whose essential characters are almost directly the pleutum ecolopendrium of Linnxus:—frondirect in the same part, is not a very intellimis stillus hirstill, grows on most shady barber with a proposition. Tumor and inflammation, shall be co-exist. gible proposition. Tumor and inflamma- banks, walls, &c. It has a slightly adstrin-

An incipient scirrhus is seldom accomwith scrophula, may not become cancer- however, at the best, afford us but a very condition There is no necessary connex-variations in a number of very dissimilar ion between the cancer and any other discusses, it would be improper to found ease, nor has it ever been clearly proved an opinion upon so delusive a phenomenon.

> SCLAREA. (From oxxepos, hard; because garden clary. See Sulvia sclarea.

Sclarea HISPANICE. Wild clary, or hor-

Scieniasis. (From oxangow, to liarden.) Sclerosis. A hard tumour or Scleroma. induration.

SCLEHOPHTHALMIA. (From o'khegos, hard, and oppaxmos, the eye.) A protrusion of the eye-ball. An inflammation of the eye, attended with hardness of the parts.

Scherosancoma. (From oxxegos, hard,

Schenosis. See Scleriusis

SCLEROTIC COAT. (Tunica scleromost coat of the eye, of a white colour, The irritation produced by an indurated dense, and tenacious. Its anterior part,

SCLEROTIS. See Sclerotic cont.

SCLOPETARIA ARCA. (From sclopetum, From the evident sade. It is made of sage, mugwort, and ment, distilled in wine.

> Scloretoplaga. (From sclopetum, a A gun-shot

Scoliasis. (From σχολιοω, to twist.)

SCOLOPENDRIA. The spleenwort or

Scolorenbritm. (From exchonersea, the

gent and mucilaginous sweetish taste. When fresh and rubbed, it imparts a disagreeable smell. Harts-tongue, and the five capillary herbs, of which it is one, was formerly much used to strengthen the viscera, restrain hæmorrhages and alvine fluxes, and to open obstructions of the liver and spleen, and for the general purposes of demulcents and pectorals.

SCOLOFOMACHERIUM. (From σκολωπαξ, the woodcock, and maxaiga, a knife; so called because it is bent a little at the end like a woodcock's bill.) An incision-

SCOLYMUS. (From σκολος, a thorn; so named from its prickly leaves.) The artichoke is sometimes so called. See Ci-

Scora REGIA. The butcher's broom, or knee-holly, was formerly so termed

Scorbutia. (From scorbutus, the scur-

vy.) Medicines for the scurvy.

SCORBUTUS. (From schorboet, Germ.) Gingibrachium, because the gums and arms, and gingipedium, because the gums and legs, are affected by it. The scurvy. A genus of disease in the class cachexia, and order impetigines of Cullen; characterised by extreme debility; complexion pale and bloated; spongy gums; livid spots on the skin; breath offensive; adematous swellings in the legs; hæmorrhages; foul ulcers; fetid urine; and extremely offensive stools. The scurvy is a disease of a putrid nature, much more prevalent in cold climates than in warm ones, and which chiefly affects sailors, and such as are shut up in besieged places, owing, as is supposed, to their being deprived of fresh provisions, and a due quantity of acescent food, assisted by the prevalence of cold and moisture, and by such other causes as depress the nervous energy, as indolence, confinement, want of exercise, neglect of cleanliness, much labour and fatigue, sadness, despondency, &c. These several debilitating causes, with the concurrence of a diet consisting principally of salted or putrescent food, will be sure to produce this disease. It seems, however, to depend more on a defect of nourishment, than on a vitiated state; and the reason that salted provisions are so productive of the scurvy, is, most probably, because they are drained of their nutritious juices, which are extracted and run off in brine. As the disease is apt to become pretty general amongst the crew of a ship when it has once made its appearance, it has been supposed by many to be of a contagious nature; but the conjecture scems by no means well founded.

A preternatural saline state of the blood has been assigned as its proximate cause. It has been contended by some physicians,

disease is a debilitated state of the solids. arising principally from the want of ali-

The scurvy comes on gradually, with heaviness, weariness, and unwillingness to move about, together with dejection of spirits, considerable loss of strength, and debility. As it advances in its progress, the countenance becomes sallow and bloated, respiration is hurried on the least motion, the teeth become loose, the gums are spongy, the breath is very offensive, livid spots appear on different parts of the body, old wounds which have been long healed up break out afresh, severe wandering pains are felt, particularly by night, the skin is dry, the urine small in quantity, turning blue vegetable infusions of a green colour; and the pulse is small, frequent, and, towards the last, intermitting; but the intellects are, for the most part, clear and distinct.

By an aggravation of the symptoms, the disease, in its last stage, exhibits a most wretched appearance. The joints become swelled and stiff, the tendons of the legs are rigid and contracted, general emaciation ensues, hæmorrhages break forth from different parts, fetid evacuations are discharged by stool, and a diarrhea or dysentery arises, which soon terminates the tragic scene.

Scurvy, as usually met with on shore, or where the person has not been exposed to the influence of the remote causes before enumerated, is unattended by any violent symptoms, as slight blotches, with scaly eruptions on different parts of the body, and a sponginess of the gums, are the chief ones to be observed.

In forming our judgment as to the event of the disease, we are to be directed by the violence of the symptoms, by the situation of the patient with respect to a vegetable diet, or other proper substitutes, by his former state of health, and by his constitution not having been impaired by previous diseases.

Dissections of scurvy have always discovered the blood to be in a very dissolved The thorax usually contains more or less of a watery fluid, which, in many cases, possesses so high a degree of acrimony, as to excoriate the hands by coming in contact with it; the cavity of the abdomen contains the same kind of fluid; the lungs are black and putrid; and the heart itself has been found in a similar state, with its cavity filled with a corrupted fluid. In many instances, the epiphyses have been found divided from the bones, the cartilages separated from the ribs, and srveral of the bones themselves dissolved by caries. The brain seldom shows any marks of disease.

Scordium. (From oxopodov, garlic; so that the primary morbid affection in this called because it smells like garlic.) Tris-

cago palustris. redolens. Water germander. plant have a smell somewhat of the garlic kind, from which dirennistance it is supposed to take its name: to the taste they are bitterish and slightly pungent. The plant was formerly in high estimation, but is now justly fallen into disuse, although recommended by some in antiseptic cataplasms and fomentations.

Scoule. (Scoria, from oxop, excrement.) Dross. The refuse or useless parts of any

substance.

Sconoporasum. (From oxogodov, garlic, and measor, the leek.) The wild garlic or leek shalot.

SCORODUM. (A TO TE ORWE ofer, from its

filthy smell.) Garlie.

Scorpiaca. (From oxognios, a scorpion.) Medicines against the bite of serpents.

Scorpinibes. (From σκοςπιος, a scorpion, and eidos, a likeness; so called because its leaves resemble the tail of a scorpion.) Scorpioides. Resembling the scorpion. Scorpion-wort. Bird's foot.

Scourieurs. See Scorpioides.

SCORZONERA. (From escorza, a serpent, Span.; so called because it is said to be effectual against the bite of all venemous animals.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia æquales.

2. The pharmacoperial name of the plant called also escorzonera. Viperuria. Serpentaria hispanica. Goats' grass. Vipers' grass. The roots of this plant, Scorzonera humilis of Linnaus :- cante falundo, unificro; foliis lato lanccolatis, nervosis, planis, has been sometimes employed medicinally as alexipharmics, and in hypochondriacal disorders, and obstructions of the viscera. The Scorzonera hispanica mostly supplies ple, we very frequently meet with gout in the shops, whose root is esculent, oleraceous, and against diseases inefficacious.

Scorzonera hispanica. The systematic name of the esculent vipers' grass.

SCORZONERA HUMILIS. The systematic name of the officinal vipers' grass. See Scorzonera.

SCOTODINE. (From oxotos, darkness, and fives, a giddiness.) Scotodinia. Scotodinos. Scotoma. Scotomia. Giddiness with impaired sight.

SCROBICULUS CORDIS. (Dim. of scrobs, a ditch.) The pit of the stomach.

SCROFULA. (From scrofu, a swine; because this animal is said to be much subject to a similar disorder.) Scrophula. Charas. Ecrnelles, Fr. Struma. Coiras. Scrophula. The king's evil. A genus of usually some time in the winter and spring, disease in the class cachexia, and order impetigines of Cullen He distinguishes four ed, in summer and autumn. The first apspecies. 1. Scrophula vulgaris, when it is pearance of the disorder is commonly in without other disorders external and permanent. 2. Scrophula mesenterica, when internal, with loss of appetite, pale coun- discolouration. These appear, in general,

Chamædrys palustris allium tenance, swelling of the belly, and an un-Teucrium usual foctor of the excrements. 3. Scroscordium of Linnaus. The leaves of this phula fugax. This is of the most simple kind; it is seated only about the neck, and for the most part is caused by the resorption from sores on the head. 4. Scrophula Americana, when it is joined with the yaws. Scrophula consists in hard indolent tumours of the conglobate glands in various parts of the body; but partieularly in the neck, behind the ears, and under the chin, which after a time suppurate and degenerate into ulcers, from which, instead of pus, a white curdled matter, somewhat resembling the coagu-

lum of milk, is discharged

The first appearance of the disease is most usually between the third and seventh year of the child's age; but it may arise at any period between these and the age of puberty; after which it seldom makes its first attack. It most commonly affects children of a lax habit, with smooth fine skins, fair hair, and rosy cheeks. It likewise is apt to attack such children as shew a disposition to rachitis, and marked by a protuberant forehead, enlarged joints, and a tumid abdomen. Like this disease, it seems to be peculiar to cold and variable climates, being rarely met with in warm ones. Scrophula is by no means a contagious disease; but, beyond all doubt, is of an hereditary nature, and is often entailed by paren's on their children. There are, indeed, some practitioners who wholly deny that this, or any other disease, can be acquired by an hereditary right; but that a peculiar temperament of body, or predisposition in the constitution to some diseases, may extend from both father and mother to their offspring, is, observes Dr. Thomas, very clearly proved. For examyoung persons of both sexes, who could never have brought it on by intemperance, sensuality, or improper diet, but must have acquired the predisposition to it in this way.

Where there is any predisposition in the constitution to scrophula, and the person happens to contract a venereal taint, this frequently excites into action the causes of the former; as a venereal bubo not unfrequently becomes scrophulous, as soon as the virus is destroyed by mercury. The late Dr. Cullen supposed scrophula to depend upon a peculiar constitution of the lymphatic system. The attacks of the disease seem much affected or influenced by the periods of the seasons. They begin and often disappear, or are greatly amendthat of small oval or spherical tumours under the skin, unattended by any pain or

5 A

upon the sides of the neck, below the ear, lungs, with hectic fever, arise, the conseor under the chin; but, in some cases, the joints of the elbows or ankles, or those of the fingers and toes, are the parts first af- have died of this disease, many of the visfected. In these instances, we do not, however, find small moveable swellings; but, on the contrary, a tumor almost uniformly surrounding the joint, and interrupting its motion.

After some length of time the tumors become larger and more fixed, the skin which covers them acquires a purple or livid colour, and, being much inflamed, they at last suppurate and break into little holes, from which, at first, a matter somewhat puriform oozes out; but this changes by degrees into a kind of viscid serous discharge, much intermixed with small pieces of a white substance, resembling the curd of milk.

The tumors subside gradually, whilst the ulcers at the same time open more, and spread unequally in various directions. After a time, some of the ulcers heal; but aquatica. other tumors quickly form in different parts of the body, and proceed on, in the same slow manner as the former ones, to suppuration. In this manner the disease goes on for some years, and appearing at last to have exhausted itself, all the ulcers heal up, without being succeeded by any fresh swellings; but leaving behind them an ugly packering of the skin, and a scar of nel-wort. The root and leaves of this considerable extent. This is the most mild plant, Scrophularia nodosa of Linnaus:form under which scrophula ever appears. foliis cordatis, trinervatis; caule obtusan. In more virulent cases, the eyes are par- gulo, have been celebrated both as an ticularly the seat of the disease, and are internal and external remedy against inaffected with ophthalmia, giving rise to flammations, the piles, scrophulous tuulcerations in the tarsi, and inflammation mors, and old ulcers; but they are now of the tunica adnata, terminating not un- only used in this country by the country frequently in an opacity of the transparent people

fected, they swell and are incommoded by dominial viscus or viscera into the scrotum. excruciating deep-seated pain, which is See Hernia. much increased upon the slightest motion. The swelling and pain continue to increase, the muscles of the limb become at length much wasted, Matter is soon afterwards formed, and this is discharged at small openings made by the bursting of the skin. Being, however, of a peculiar acrimonious nature, it erodes the ligaments and cartilages, and produces a caries of the neigh- small stone ) A scruple or weight of 20 bouring bones. By an absorption of the matter into the system, hectic fever at last arises, and, in the end, often proves fatal.

When scrophula is confined to the external surface, it is by no means attended with danger, although on leaving one part, it is apt to be renewed in others; but when the ulcers are imbued with a sharp acrimony, spread, erode, and become deep, without sis. shewing any disposition to heal; when deep seated collections of matter form tensis. amongst the small bones of the hands and feet, or in the joints, or tubercles in the rina.

quences will be fatal.

On opening the bodies of persons who cera are usually found in a diseased state. but more particularly the glands of the mesentery, which are not only much tunefied, but often ulcerated. The lungs are frequently discovered bent, with a number of tubercles or cysts, which contain matter of various kinds. Scrophulous glands, on being examined by dissection, feel somewhat softer to the touch than in their natural state, and when laid open, they are usually found to contain a soft curdy matter, mixed with pus.

SCROPHULARIA. (From scrofula, the king's evil; so called from the unequal tubercles upon its roots, like scrophulous tumors.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Didynamia. Order, Angiospermia. The fig-wort.

See Betonica SCROPHULARIA AQUATICA.

SCROPHULARIA MINOR. The pile-wort is sometimes so called. minus.

SCROPHULARIA NODOSA, The systematic name of the fig-wort. See Scrophularia vulgaris.

SCROPHULARIA VULGARIS. Millemorbia. Scrophularia. Common fig-wort or ker-

SCROTAL HERNIA. Hernia scrotalis. Scro-In similar cases, the joints become af- tocele. A protrusion of any part of an ab-

> (From scrotum, and xnan, SCROTOCELE. a tumour ) A rupture or hernia in the scrotum.

> SCROTUM. (Quasi mortum, a skin or hide.) Bursa testium. Oscheus. Oscheon. Orchea of Galen. The common integuments which cover the testicles.

> SCRUPULUS. (Dim. of scrupus, a grains

> SCURF. Furfura Small exfoliations of the cuticle, which take place after some eruptions on the skin, a new cuticle being formed underneath during the exfoliation.

Scurvy. See Scorbutus.

See Cochlearia horten-Scurvy-grass.

Scurry grass, lemon. See Cochlearia hor-

Scurvy-grass, Scotch. See Brassica ma-

SCUTIFORM CARTILAGE. See Thyroid cartilage.

tematic name of the skull-cap. See Ter- compound of the acid of fat.

Dry hard ex-SCYBALA. INUGANA. crements.

Serrnicus. soil.) An epithet of the liquorice-root or cemstriatis of Linnæus. any thing brought from Scythia.

SEA-AIR. Is prescribed in a variety of complaints, being considered as more dis ases of the cliest, hoarseness, cough, medicinal and salubrious than that on land, it is supposed to possess in its composition a greater quantity of oxygen. This is a most plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Tripowerful and valuable remedy. It is resorted to with the happiest success against most cases of debility, and particularly against scrophulous diseases affecting the used as an article of diet, and in the northexternal parts of the body. See Bath, cold.

Sea holly. See Eryngium. Sea moss. See Corallina Sea.ouk. See Quercus marina. Sea-onion. See Scilla Sea-salt. See Murius sode.

SEA-SICKNESS. A nausca or tendency to vomit, which varies, in respect of duration, in different persons upon their tion which arises after a crisis, or the first going to sea With some it continues discharge of some morbid matter, as after only for a day or two; while with others it the declension of the small-pox or the remains throughout the voyage. The diseases in which sca-sickness is principally recommended are asthma and consump-

the simple saline waters. Its chemical ana- it with its characteristic properties lysis gives a proportion of one of salme contents to about twenty-three one-fourth of visibly connected with those of the organs water; but on our shores it is not greater employed for their formation. Thus artethan one of salt to about thirty of water. rial exhalation, that take place throughout Sea-water on the British coast may, there- the whole extent of internal surfaces, and fore, be calculated to contain in the wine preserves their contiguity, affords nothing pint, of muriated soda 186.5 grains, of but an albuminous serosity, which is only muriated magnesia fifty-one, of selenite the serum of the blood slightly altered by six grains; total two hundred and forty- the weak action of organization very little three one-half grains, or half an ounce and complicated. The analysis of the water in three and one-half grains of saline con-dropsy, which is merely in the serosity tents. The disorders for which the internal that continually transudes the surface of use of sea-water has been and may be re- serous membranes, as the pleura or peritosorted to, are in general the same for which næum, has demonstrated that this fluid has all the simple saline waters may be used. the greatest resemblance to the serum of The peculiar power of sea-water and sea- the blood, and is only distinguished from salt as a discutient, employed either inter- it, by the variable proportions of albunally or externally in scrophulous habits, is men, and the different salts it contains in well known, and is attended with considerable advantage when judiciously applied.

Sea-wrack. See Quercus marina. Sealed earths. See Terra sagillata.

SEARCHING. ducing a metallic instrument through the or not.

SEBACEOUS GLANDS. (Glandule sebace.e, from sebum, suet.) Glands which constituent of the blood. secrete a sebaccous or suetty humour.

SEBADILLA: See Cevadilla.

SEBATE. (From sebum, suet.) Sebas. SCUTTELLARIA GALERICULATA. The sys- The name in the new chemistry of every

SEBESTEN. (An Egyptian word.) Sebestina Sebsten. The dark black fruit of the cordia myxa; foliis ovatis, subra (From Scythia, its native glabris; corymbis lateralibus; calycibus de-It possesses glutinous and aperient qualities, and is exhibited in form of decoction in various difficult respiration, &c.

SECALE. 1. The name of a genus of

andria. Order, Digynia. Rye.

2. The common name of the seed of the Secule cereale of Linnaus. It is principally ern countries of Europe is employed for affording an ardent spirit.

SECALE CEREALE The systematic name

of the ryc-plant. See Secule.

SECONDARY. This term in general denotes something that acts as second or in subordination to another. Thus in diseases, we have secondary symptoms.

SECONDARY FEVER. That febrile affec-

measles

SECRETION. The word secretion is used to express that function by which an organ separates from the blood the consti-SEA-WATER, This is arranged amongst tuent parts of a fluid that does not exist in

The difference of secreted humours is solution

This first kind of secretion, this perspiratory transudation, would seem, then, to be a simple filtration or percolation of a The operation of intro- liquor already formed in the blood through the porous parts of arteries; yet we must urethra into the bladder, for the purpose here acknowledge a peculiar action of of acertaining whether the patient has stone membranes, the surface of which it perpetually lubricates; without this action the serum would remain united to the other This kind of action is termed exhalation. The distin-

guishable character of this kind of secre- power peculiar to them, and which forms tion is the absence of any mediate struction; their distinguishing character. Lymphature between the vas efferens and the extics and excretory ducts arise from the cretory duct: the minute arteries and sides of these little cells, and both these veins that run into the structure of mem- species of vessels absorb; one attracts the branes also constitute both.

a very simple organization, follows the secretion by cryptæ, glandular follicles, and mucous lacunæ, Each of these small glands contained in the texture of membranes lining the internal surface of the less into the structure of secretory organs, digestive, arterial, and urinary passages, and come principally from the great symand which, when conglomerated, form amygdalæ, &c. may be compared to a small bottle, the bottom of which is round, and the neck short; the membranous parieties of these vesicular cryptz are supplied with a great quantity of vessels and nerves. It terials of the humour they are destined to is to the peculiar action of these parietes prepare, and select it by a real preference. that the secretion of mucus by these glands Besides they cause them to take on a pecushould be attributed. These mucous li- liar mode of activity, the exercise of which quids are less fluid and more viscid than causes these separate elements to undergo the fluid produced by the first kind of se- a certain composition, and impresses the cretion, but contain more albumen and fluid produced with specific properties, salts; they are more different from the se- always relative to the mode of action of rum of the blood, and of a more excremen- which they are the result. Thus the liver titious nature; the nature of these bottle- retains the constituent principles of bile kind of glands is turned towards the parts contained in the blood of the vena porta, to which the mucous membrane adheres, elaborates, combines them, and forms the their mouth or neck opens on the surface bile, and animal fluid, distinguishable by contiguous to these membranes.

glands discharge themseives are easy to be contains the elements which enter into its perceived on the amygdalæ, mucous sur-

face of the urethra, rectum, &c.

Secretion and excretion are facilitated by the irritation occasioned by the presence of air, aliment, or urine; by the compression induced by them, and, finally, by the peristaltic contractions of the muscular fibres to which mucous membranes adhere throughout the whole extent of the

The fluids, which are considerably different from the blood, require for their secretion organs of a more complicated structure; these are called conglomerate glands with health, escape observation, while to distinguish them from hymphatic glands, those which are more complete, and dewhich are named conglobate. These glands are visceral masses, formed by an assemblage of nerves and every species of vessels, disposed in packets, and united by cellular structure; a proper membrane, or an elongation of that which lines the cavity that includes them, surrounds their external surface, and separates them from the circumjacent parts.

The arteries do not form an immediate continuation with their excretory ducts, as Rysch affirmed; nor do there exist immediate glands between these vessels as Malpigli believed; it seems more probable that each gland has its cellular or parenchymatous substance in the areola, into which the arteries pour the materials of Barden observed, are asleep or awake

secreted liquor, carrying it into recepta. After serous transudation, requiring only cles, where it accumulates, while the other receives that part which the action of the organ could not completely elaborate, or the residue of the secretion.

The nerves which always enter more or pathetics, terminate variously in their substance, and furnish each of them with a particular sensibility, by means of which they distinguish in the blood brought thither by the vessels the constituent parts or macertain characteristic properties that are The apertures by which the mucous subject to variations according as the blood composition in a greater or less degree; according to the increased or diminished disposition of the gland to retain them, and to effect a more or less complete mixture of them. The qualities of the bile dependent on the concurrence of all these circumstances, should present so many differences as the blood contains principles, and as the hepatic organ may offer varieties relative to the composition of the former, and degree of activity of the latter. Hence arise alterations of the bile, the most inrange the natural order of the functions, become evident by diseases of which they may be sometimes considered the effect, and at other times the cause. These alterations of the bile (and what is here said of the secretion of this humour may extend to almost every other secretion of the animal economy) never extend so far as to prevent it from being distinguished; it always preserves in a greater or less degree its essential and primitive characters, it never acquires the qualities of another liquor so as to resemble serum, urine, or saliva, &c.

The action of secretory glands is not continual, most of them are subject to the alternate state of action and rest, all, as the fluid they prepare; in consequence of a when any irritation operates on them, or

mastication, &c.

tion, the surrounding parts, or such as are situated in its vicinity, for instance, the vey, not as one of the membranes of the liver, is comprised in the sphere of action of the duodenum, since the repletion of this intestine irritates it, determines a more branes of the ovum, at the full period of abundant afflux of humours, and a more copious secretion of bile.

gland, before it arrives there, suffers prepathe whole ovum, and lining the uterus. ratory changes which dispose it to furnish 2dly, The middle membrane, which is

secreted.

rives at an organ; the length, diameter, but does not pass between the placenta angles of the vessels, and the disposition and uterus. Sdly, The inner membrane, of their ultimate ramifications, are all eir- which is transparent, of a firmer texture cumstances which ought to be observed in than the others, and lines the whole ovum, the examination of each secretion, since they have an influence on the nature of vering for the placenta and funis with the the secreted fluid, and on the mode in two last. The ovum is clothed when it is irritated it becomes the centre of fluxion, where the first is provided for its recepand acts on the blood brought by its ves- tion. sels. Secretion dependent on a peculiar action inherent in a glandular organ is of pregnancy, cohere slightly to each assisted by the action of surrounding other, though, in some ova, there is a con-

longer or shorter time in a state of excita- one of the outer membranes is broken. tion, relax, become collapsed, and fluids forms one of the circumstances which have are not conveyed to them in such abundance, they remain in a state of sleep, and false waters. during repose renew their sensibility, which

is consumed by long exertion.

is, that they mutually replace and supply each other, so that when the urine is less containing milky lymph, which afterwards copious perspiration is more abundant. A sudden coldness of the skin frequently occasions diarrheas, the humours are immediately repelled lowards the intestinal tube, and pass off by the mucous glands of the intestines, the action of which is considerably increased.

SECRUM ACRE. The system the stone-cross. See Illecebra. The systematic name of

SECTIO CESAREA.

Sce Casarian opera-

SECTIO FRANONICA, Sectio hypogastrica. The high operation for the stone. See Lithotomu.

SECUNDINES. membranes which are expanded from its edge, and which form a complete involuc- nishing the animal energy, without desrum of the factus and its waters, go under troying life. They are divided into sedathe common term of after-birth, or se- tiva soporifica, as opinm, papaver, hvoscicundines.

The membranes of the ovum have usually been mentioned as two, the amnion and the chorion; and the latter has again been divided into the true and the false, ischia.

in their vicinity, and determines their im- The third membrane, which, from its apmediate or sympathetic action. Thus sa- pearance, has likewise been called the villiva is secreted in greater quantity during lous or spongy, and from the consideration of it as the inner lamina of the uterus, When a secretory organ enters into ac- is cast off like the exuvix of some animals. The decidua has been described by Harovum, but as a production of the uterus. The following is the order of the memgestation: 1st, There is the outer or connecting, which is flacculent, spongy, and The blood conveyed to a secretory extremely vascular, completely investing the constituents of the liquor about to be nearly pellucid, with a very few small blood-vessels scattered over it, and which The celerity with which the blood ar- forms a covering to the placenta and funis, making, like the middle membrane, a cowhich secretion is effected. When a gland passes from the ovarium into the uterus,

These membranes, in the advanced state siderable quantity of fluid collected be-The glands, after having remained for a tween them, which being discharged when been distinguished by the name of by or

Between the middle and inner membrane, upon or near the funis, there is a small, A remarkable circumstance in secretions flat, and oblong body, which, in the early that they mutually replace and supply part of pregnancy, seems to be a vesicle becomes of a firm and apparently fatty texture. This is called the vesicula umbiliealis; but its usc is not known. See Pla-

> SECUNDUM ARTEM. According to art. A term frequently used in prescription, and denoted by the letters S. A. which are usually affixed, when the making up of the recipe in perfection requires some uncommon care and dexterity.

> SECURIDACA. (From securis, an axe: so called because its leaves resemble a

small axe.) Henbane.

SEDATIVES. (Medicamenta seditava. The placenta and from sedo, to ease or assuage ) Sedantia, medicines which have the power of dimiamus, and sedativa refrigerantia, as neutral salts, acids, &c.

Sedative salt of Homberg. See Boracic acid. SEDENTARIA OSSA. The os coccygis and Sedge. See Iris palustris.

SEDIMENT. The heavy parts of liquids, which fall to the bottom.

Sediment latiritious. See Latiritious sediment

A simple saline mineral water. From thee thicker and of a darker colour, to make mical analysis it appears, that it is strongly impregnated with vitriolated magnesia or Epsom salt, and it is to this, along with probably the small quantity of muriat of magnesia, that it owes its bitter and saline action of light, these like all other organs of the micro of the darker in order the better to fulfil the intention for which they were designed. The eye-lids, as concerned in the organs of probably the small quantity of muriat of vision, shade the eyes from the continual magnesia, that it owes its bitter and saline taste, and its purgative properties. The have occasion for repose, which could not diseases in which this water is recommend- have been procured had the rays of light ed are, crudities of the stomach, hypo- constantly excited their sensibility. A rechondriusis, amennorrhea, and the an-moval of the eyelids occasions loss of omalous complaints succeeding the cessa- sleep. The cilia, or hairs, growing upon tion of the catamenia, edematous tumours of the legs in literary men, hæmorrhoidal affections, and scorbutic eruptions.

called because it allays inflammation.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Penta-

SEDUM LUTEUM MURALE. Navel wort.

MAJUS. Aizoon. Barba Jovis. House-leek or sangreen. Sempervivum tectorum of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable smell, discover to the taste a mild subacid austerity; they are frequently applied by the vulgar to bruises and old ulcers.

SEDUM MINUS See Illecebra.
SEDUM TELEPHIUM. The systematic name of the orpine. See Faba crassa.

A sensation by which we perceive bodies around us, and their sen-The organ of sight is sible qualities. formed of three parts perfectly distinct, which serve to protect the globe of the eye, to withdraw it suddenly from the influence of light, and to preserve it in a condition necessary for the exercise of these functions: These consist in the supercilia, palpebræ, and lachrymal passages, parts accessory to the organ. The eye-ball itself presents two portions very different from each other, one formed by almost the whole, and may be called an optic instrument; the other formed by a medullary expansion of the optic nerve is the immediate organ of sight, this is the retina, alone adapted to receive the impression of light, and to be affected by the delicate contact of this extremely subtle This impression or sensation is transmitted to the cerebral organ by the optic nerve, of which the retina is merely the expanded extremity.

The eye-brows, as being accessory organs to vision, have the effect of diminishing the effect of a too strong light by partly absorbing its rays. The supercilia answers this purpose better in proportion to the

of the hair; thus we knit the brow trans. versely in passing from dark to a lighted place, the strong light of which has a disa. greeable effect on the organ of sight. Hence arose the custom of certain south-SEDLITZ WATER. Seydschutz water, ern people in whom the eye-brows are the margin are destined to prevent insects or other light bodies in the atmosphere from insinuating between the globe of the SEDUVI. (From sedo, to assuage; so eye and its covering. The anterior part of the eye, thus defended against external injuries, is continually moistened by the tears, they also guard against the effects of friction, to which the eye is exposed. Eye.)

> Luminous rays, emanating from a light object, form a cone, the apex of which corresponds to the point of a body which we are looking at, and its base is applied to the anterior part of the cornea; all those rays which touch the mirror of the eye pass through it, experience a refraction proportioned to the density of the cornea, and to the convexity of this membrane, greater than that of the atmosphere: when approaching the perpendicular they pass through the aqueous humours less dense, and meet with the iris. All those rays which fall on this membrane are reflected, and shew its colour different in different individuals. It is only the most central rays that penetrate the pupil, and serve for sight: these enter the pupil in greater or less number, according as it may be more or less dilated. The pupil becomes larger or smaller conformable to the expansion or contraction of the iris. The motions of the iris depend entirely on the mode in which light affects the retina; it is of itself insensible to the impression of luminous rays, as proved by Fontana, who always found it immoveable when he directed rays of light exclusively to it.

The rays to which the pupil give passage pass through the aqueous humour of the posterior chamber; and soon come into contact with the crystalline lens, which powerfully refracts them, on account of its density and lenticular form. When more approaching the perpendicular by this body, they proceed as far as the retina, through the vitreous humour, that is less dense, and which preserves, without augmentation, the effect of the refraction proprojection formed, and the darker colour duced by the crystalline lens; the rays single point of the retina, and produce an means, without much trouble, he was impression that gives us an idea of certain enabled to acquire a fortune. It must, properties of the bodies it reflects. It is however, be allowed that he was a skilgenerally thought that luminous pyramids ful chemist, who, by his writings, and which emanate from all points of the obother to render the impression stronger 1719.
and more durable. The correspondence He recommended this salt, which enof affection requires the direction of the riched him, and rendered his name famous, optic axes on the same objects, and how- in some small treatises, printed in partireally see double, which happens in strabismus, or squinting.

power of refraction either from too great a convexity of the cornea or crystalline lens, or more considerable density of the humours and excessive depth of the globe of the eye, the luminous rays being united too soon, cross each other, again diverge, fall scattered on the retina, and produce only a confused sensation. In this disease of vision called myopia, patients can only distinguish very near objects, whence rays only observe with distinct objects, because the rays that come from them being very convergent, have not occasion to be much refracted. The sensibility of the retina is, under certain circumstances, so much raised, that the eye hardly supports the are called nyctalopes, who distinguish objects in the midsi of utter darkness, as a few rays are sufficient to affect their organ of vision. The eyes are not immoveable in the part they occupy, they are directed the former published his observations in towards all the objects of which we wish the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences; muscles, and it is observed that there is printed in the Philosophical Transactions. such a correspondence of action in muscles Newman, therefore, was not the first who that move both eyes, that these organs turn made known the composition of Seignette's at the same time towards the object, so salt, in his treatise on salt-petre; for that the visual axes are exactly parallel.

consists of soda, potash, and tartaric acquainted with the Rochelle salt. See acid. It was prepared and made known Soda turterisata by a Frenchman named Peter Seignette, towards the end of the last century. It white stone, having a figure upon it rewas then employed in preference to many sembling a moon. Sulphat of lime. other medicines long known, which had

assembled into one focus strike only a been equally serviceable; and by these the invention of various other medicines, ject we behold, decussate in passing had obtained considerable reputation as a through the globe of the cyc, so that the physician and naturalist. He was esta-object itself is figured in a reverse direc-blished as an apothecary at Rochelle; tion. Although the image of each object published papers on various natural obis traced at the same time in each of our jects which he had observed in his neigheyes, we have but one sensation, because bourhood, in the Memoirs of the Academy both sensations are in harmony or com- of Sciences at Paris, as well as in other bined, and only serve by assisting each works; and died on the 11th of March,

ever little this direction be changed we cular about the year 1762. He called it sometimes alkaline salt, sometimes sal polycrest, and sometimes Rochelle salt. After If the eyes possess a too energetic his death, his son continued to prepare and to vend it with the greatest success.

Scignette discovered this salt while he was engaged in making soluble tartar, and, according to the old opinion, imagining that both the fixed alkalis were the same, used soda instead of potash. By this means he procured, not without surprise, a salt different from the common soluble tartar which he wished to prepare, and from the other well-known salt also. are given off which require an instrument. He was induced, therefore, to examine possessing a considerable power of refrac- it. The experiments of learned chemists tion. In presbyopia, on the contrary, the discovered the component parts of this cornea being too flat, the crystalline not sait. The mode of preparing it was then very convex, or being deep scated, the hu- made publicly known; and, by more aemours not sufficiently abundant, cause the curate examination, the difference, before rays not to be yet assembled, when they overlooked, between vegetable and minefall on the retina; so that patients can ral alkali, was determined; by which new light was thrown upon chemistry, and an important service rendered to a variety of

Among those who contributed to bring this salt into repute was Nicholas Lemery, to whom Seignette sent a large quantity weakest light. Persons in this situation of it, which he distributed at Paris, though unacquainted with its component parts. Its composition was discovered at the same time, about the year 1731, by two French chemists, Balduc and Geoffroy, to form a knowledge by different motions, and the latter communicated his to Sir regulated by four recti and two oblique Hans Sloane, who caused them to be Newman's salt is essentially different; SEIGNETTL'S SALT. A neutral salt, which and he himself confesses that he was not

SELENITES. (From GEASTH, the moon.) A

SELENITM. (From GERMAN, the moon:

so called from its usefulness in lunacy.) by the oscula of the lymphatic vessels. A kind of pcony.

Self-heal. See Prunella.

SELINE. A disease of the nails, in which white spots are occasionally seen in their

SELINUM. (From GENNUM, the moon; from its supposed usefulness in disorders proceeding from the influence of the moon.)

Marsh smallage.

SELLA TURCICA. (Sella, quasi sedda, from sedeo, to sit, and turcica; from its supposed resemblance to a Turkish saddle.) Ephippium. A cavity in the sphænoid bone, containing the pituitary smell of semen is specific, heavy, affect-

SELTZER WATER. A saline water, slightly alkaline, highly acidulated with carbonic acid, containing more of this volatile principle than is sufficient to saturate the alkali, and the earths which it holds in solution. It is particularly serviceable in flesh of the stag, tempore coitus, is unfit relieving some of the symptoms that indi- to eat. The taste of semen is fatuous cate a morbid affection of the lungs; in and somewhat acrid. In the testes its conslow hectic fever, exanthematous crup- sistence is thin and diluted; but in the vetions of the skin, foulness of the stomach, siculæ seminales, viscid, dense; and rather bilious vomiting, acidity and heart-burn, pellucid: and by venery and debility it is spasmodic pains in any part of the alimen- rendered thinner stools. On account of its property in re-lieving spasmodic pains, and from its ra-pid determination to the kidneys and row pid determination to the kidneys, and per- it covers like very fine threads mutually haps its alkaline contents, it has been connected together in the form of a cobweb. sometimes employed with great advantage in diseases of the urinary organs, especial- yellow, and in the vesiculæ seminales it ly those that are attended with the for- acquires a deeper hue. That emitted by mation of calculus. A large proportion pollution or coition, becomes white from of the Seltzer water, either genuine or ar- its mixture with the whitish liquor of the tificial, that is consumed in this country, prostate gland during its passage through is for the relief of these disorders. Even the urethra. In those people who labour in gonorrhæa, either simple or venereal, under jaundice, and from the abuse of Hoffman asserts that advantage is to be saffron, the semen has been seen yellow, derived from this medicine. dosc is from half a pint to a pint.

SEMECARPUS ANACARDIUM. The systematic name of the tree which is supposed to afford the Molucca bean. See Amacardium

orientale.

Semeiosis. (From onmeson, to notify.) See Semiotice.

of the fruit of any vegetable.

2. The seed or prolific liquor secreted in the testicles, and carried through the epididymis and vas deferens into the vesiculæ seminales, to be emitted sub coitu into the female vagina, and there, by its aura, to penetrate and impregnate the ovulum in the ovarium.

In castrated animals, and in eunuchs, the vesiculæ seminales are small, and contracted; and a little lymphatic liquor, but the oxygenated acid of salt, by which it is no semen, is found in them. The semen is coagulated in the form of white flakes. It detained for some time in the vesiculæ is also acted upon by alcohol of wine. seminales, and rendered thicker from the continual absorption of its very thin part, small portion of empyreumatic oil, and

In lascivious men, the semen is sometimes, though rarely, propelled by nocturnal pollution from the vesiculæ seminales, through the ejaculatory ducts, (which arise from the vesiculæ seminales, perforate the urethra transversely, and open themselves by a narrow and very nervous mouth at the sides of the caput gallinaginis,) into the uvethra, and from it to some distance. But in chaste men the greatest part is again gradually absorbed from the vesicula seminales through the lymphatic vessels, and conciliates strength to the body. The gland, surrounded by the four clinoid pro-ccsses. The same odour is observed in the roots of the orchis, julæ of chesnuts, and the anthere of many plants. The smell of the semen of quadrupeds, when at heat, is so penetrating as to render their flesh fetid and useless, unless castrated. Thus the

Colour. In the testicles it is somewhat The usual and in an atrabiliary young man, black.

Quality. Semen exposed to the atmospheric air, loses its pellucidity, and becomes thick, but after a few hours it is again rendered more fluid and pellucid than it was immediately after its emission. This phenomenon cannot arise from water or oxygen attracted from the air. At SEMEN. 1. The seed, kernel, or stone length it deposits a phosphorated calx,

and forms a corneous crust.

Experiments with semen prove that it turns the syrup of violets green, and dissolves earthy, mediate, and metallic salts. Fresh semen is insoluble in water, until it has undergone the above changes in atmospheric air. It is dissolved by alkaline salts. By atherial oil it is dried noto a pellucid pellicle, like the cortex of the brain. It is dissolved by all acids except

By dry distillation somen gives out a

volatile alkali. The remaining incinerated carbone affords soda and phosphorated tor indicis manus.

mical analysis demonstrates that one hun- artery and aorta are so termed, from their dred parts of semen contain, 1. Of water, half-moon shape. ninety parts, 2. Of animal gluten, six ts 3. Of phosphorated calx, one part. Semeions. That part of parts Of pure soda, three parts. 5 By mitreats on the signs of diseases croscopical examination, i is asserted that an immense number of very small animal. liti-femoral of Dumas. This muscle arises culæ with round tails, called spermatic anifrom the outer surface of the tubemulcules, may be seen. 6. The addrous rosity of the ischium, by a broad flat
principle, which flies off immediately from
fresh semen. It appears to consist of a
From this tendon it has gotten the name of
peculiar vital principle, and by the ansemi-membranosus. It then begins to

vital power. The other principles of the semen appear to be only a vehicle of the men returning through the lymphatic ves-sels into the mass of the blood, gives strength to the body and mind; hence the bull is so herce and brave, the castrated ox so gentle and weak; hence every animal languishes post coitum; and hence tabes sus. dorsalis from onanism. 3. It is by the stimulus of the absorbed semen, at the age urine. of puberty, into the mass of the humours; that the beard and hair of the pubes, but in animals the horns, are produced; and the weeping voice of the boy changed into that of a man.

SEMEN ADJOWAEN. A seed imported from the East, of a pleasant smell, a grateful aromatic taste, somewhat like savory. It possesses exciting, stimulating, and carminative virtues, and is given in the East in nervous weakness, dyspepsia, flatulency, and heart-burn.

SEMEN AGAVE. An East Indian seed, exhibited there in atonic gout.

SEMEN CONTRA. See Santonicum. SEMEN SANCTUM. See Santonicum.

SEMI. (Semi, from nuiou, half ) Semis in composition universally signifies half, as semicupium, a half-bath, or bath up to the navel; semilunaris, in the shape of a halfmoon

SEMICIRCULAR CANALS. These canals are three in number, and take their name from their figure. They belong to the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and open into the vestibulum.

SEMICUPIUM. Excathisma. Inces-A half-bath, or such as receives only the hips, or extremities.

SEMI INTEROSSEUS INDICIS. See Abduc-

SEMILUNAR VALVES. The constituent principles of semen. Che- valves at the beginning of the pulnonary

> SEMIOTICE. (From onmeior, a sign.) Semeions. That part of pathology which

SEMIMEMBRANOSUS. cients was called aura seminis.

Use. 1 Emitted into the female vagina long head of the biceps, and afterwards sub coitn, it possesses the wonderful and stupendous power of impregnating the ovulum in the female ovarium. The odorous principle, or aura spermatica only, in a short tendon, which is inserted chiefly appears to penetrate through the cavity of into the upper and back part of the head the uterus and fallopian tubes to the female of the tibia, but some of its fibres are ovarium, and there to impregnate the albuspread over the posterior surface of the minous latex of the mature ovulum by its capsular ligament of the knee. Between this capsular ligament and the tendon of the muscle, we find a small bursa mucoseminal aura. 2. In chaste men, the se- sa. The tendons of this and the last described muscle form the inner ham-string. This muscle bends the leg, and seems likewise to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched

SEMI-NERVOSUS. See Semitendino-

See Accelerator

SEMINIS EJACULATOR.

SEMI-ORBICULARIS ORIS. See Orbicularis oris.

SEMI-SPINALIS COLLI. Semi spinalis sive transverso-spinalis colli of Winslow, Spinulis cervicis of Albinus, Spinulis colli of Douglas, Transversalis colli of Cowper, and Transverso-spinal of Dumas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side. arises from the transverse processes of the uppermost six vertebræ of the back by as many distinct tendons, ascending obliquely under the complexus, and is inserted into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the neck, except the first and last.

SEMI-SPINALIS DORSI nalis externus seu transverso spinalis dorsi of Winslow. Semi spinatus of Cowper, and Transverso-spinal of Dumas. A muscle situated on the back, which extends the spine obliquely backwards. It arises from the transverse processes of the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth vertebræ of the the organ of hearing, and are situated in back, by as many distinct tendons, which soon grow fleshy, and then become tendinous again, and are inserted into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the back above the eighth, and into the lowermost of the neck, by as many tendons.

5 B

SEMI-SPINALIS EXTERNUS. See Semi-spinalis dorsi.

SEMI SPINATUS. See Semi-spinalis darsi.

SEMI-TENDINOSUS. This muscle, which is the semi-nervosus of Douglas and Winslow, and Ischio-creti tibial of Dumas, is situated obliquely along the back part of the thigh. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the inferior, posterior, and outer part of the tuberosity of the ischium, in common. with the long head of the biceps crunis, to the posterior edge of which it continues to adhere, by a great number of oblique fibres, for the space of two or three inches. Towards the lower part of the os femoris, it terminates in around tendon, which passes behind the inner condyle of the thigh bone, and becoming flat, is inserted into the upper and inner part of the ridge of the tibia, a little below its tuberosity. This tendon sends off an aponeurosis, which helps to form the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the leg. This muscle assists in bending the leg, and at the same time draws it a little inwards.

SEMPERVIVUM. (From semper, always, and vivo, to live; so called because it is always green.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Dodecandria. Order, Polygynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of some plants. See Sedum majus

SEMPERTIVUM ACRE. The stone-crooccasionally so termed See Illecebra. The stone-crop is

SEMPERVIVUM TECTORUM. The systematic name of the house-leek. See Sedum majus.

SENECIO. (Senecia from senesco, to grow old; so called because it has a greyish down upon it, like the beard of old men.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Syngenesia, Order, Polygamia superflua.

2. The pharmocopæial name also of the groundsel. See Erigerum.

SENECIO VULGARIS. The systematic name of groundsel. See Erizerum.

SENECIO JACOBÆA The systematic name

of the ragwort. See Jacobaa.

SEVECTA ANGUIUM. The cast skin of a serpent; its decoction is said to cure deafness.

SENEGA. See Seneka.

SENEGA GUM. See Gummi senegalense. Senegaw milkwort. See Seneka.

SENEKA. (So called because the Senecca or Senegaw-Indians use it against the bite of the rattle-snake) The rattlesnake-root indkwort. Polygula senega of Linnærs :- floribus imberbibus spicatis, caule erecto herbaceo simplicissimo, folis lato lanceolutis. The root of this plant was formerly much esteemed as a specific against the poison of the rattle snake, and as an antiphlogistic in plenrisy, pneumonia, &c. but the knowledge we have of it is so weak, it is now very much laid aside. Its dose is

from ten to twenty grains; but when employed, it is generally used in the form of decoction, which, when prepared according to the formula of the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia, may be given every second or third hour.

Sengreen. See Sedum majus.

SENNA. (From senna, an Arabian word, signifying acute; so called from its sharp pointed leaves.) Sennu alexandrina. Senna italica. Folium orientale. or Egyptian cassia. Cussia senna of Linnæus:-foliis sejugis subovatis, petiolis eglandulatis. The leaves of senna, which are imported here from Alexandria for medicinal use, have a rather disagreeable smell, and a subacrid, bitterish, nauseous taste. They are in common use as a purgative. The formulæ given of the senna by the colleges, are those of infusion, a powder, a tincture, and an electuary. See Infusum senua, &c.

SENNA ALEXANDRINA. See Senna. SENNA ELECTUARIUM E. See Electuarium

SENNA ITALICA. See Senna.

SENNA PAUPERUM. Bastard senna, or milk-vetch.

SENNA SCORPIUM. The scorpion senna. SENNÆ EXTRACTUM. Extract of senna.

SENNÆ INFUSUM. SEE Infusum sennæ.

SENNA, INFUSUM TARTARIZATUM. Senna, coriander, and cream of tartar, infused in water.

SENSATION. Sensation, or feeling. is the consciousness of a change taking place in any part, from the contact of a foreign body with the extremities of our nerves. The seat of sensation is in the

pulp of the nerves. The impression produced on any organ by the action of an external body constitutes sensation. This sensation, transmitted by nerves to the brain, is perceived, that is, felt by the organ; the sensation then becomes perception; and this first modification implies, as must be evident, the existence of a central organ, to which impressions produced on the senses are conveyed. The cerebral fibres are acted on with greater or less force by the sensations propagated by all the senses influenced at the same time; and we could only acquire confused notions of all bodies that produce them, if one particular and stronger perception did not obliterate the others. and fix our attention. In this collective state of the mind on the same subject, the brain is weakly affected by several sensations which leave no trace behind. It is on this principle that, having read a book with great attention, we forget the different sensations produced by the paper and characters.

When a sensation is of short duration, that soon afterwards there does not remain any knowlege of having experienced hair, epidermis, nails, &c.; but the sensible it. In proportion as a sensation, or an idea, parts are the skin, eyes, tongue, ear, nose, which is only a sensation transformed or muscles, stomach, intestine, &cs. perceived by the cerebral organ, has produced in the fibres of this organ astronger or weaker impression, the remembrance of brum. it becomes more or less lively and permanent. Thus we have a reminiscence of it, that is, call to mind that we have already been affected in the same manner: a memory, or the act of recalling the object of the sensation with some of its attributes, as colour, volume, &c.

When the brain is easily excitable, and, tremities of the nerves. at the same time, accurately preserves SEPARATORIUM. (From separo, to sepa-impressions received, it possesses the pow-rate.) An instrument for separating the er of representing to itself ideas with all pericranium from the skull, and a chetheir connexions, and all the accessory mical vessel for separating essential parts circumstances by which they are accom- of liquids. panied, of reproducing them in a certain degree, and of recalling an entire object, pitans magnum. The cuttle fish. The while the memory only gives us an idea of systematic name of the fish whose shell its qualities. This creative faculty is call- possesses calcalious qualities, and is often ed imagination. When two ideas are brought mixed into tooth powders together, compared, and their analogy considered, we are said to form a judg-

ther constitute reasoning.

Besides the sensations that are carried from the organs of sense to the brain, place; and the cud of this period is therethere are others, internal, that seem to be transmitted to it by a kind of sympathetic at every seventh year. The grand climacreaction. It is well known what uneasiness the affection of certain organs conveys time, age, it is considered, may be protouched the mind, how much an habitual obstruction of the liver is connected with a certain order of ideas; these internal sense, and the considered is this bestruction of the liver is connected with a lief, that the passing of 60 generally gives much anxiety to most people. sations are the origin of our moral faculties, in the same manner as impressions that are conveyed by the organs of sense are the trely.) Relating to putrefaction, source of intellectual faculties. We are not on that account to place the scat of the passions of the mind in the viseera; it is folium, a leaf; so named from the number only necessary to remember that the appe- of its leaves.) Coralwort, or setfoil toothtites, whence arise the passions, reside in wort this organ, and are a phenomenon purely physical, while passion consists, at the and nervus, a string; so called from the same time, in the intellectual exertion, seven strings upon its leaf.) A species of Thus an accumulation of semen in the ca- plantain. vities that are employed as a reservoir for it, excites the appetite for venery, very distinct from the passion of love, although it may be frequently the determinate cause parts. of it.

the following heads, viz. the sense of vision, called See Falciform process.

a nerve possesses of conveying the sensation produced by the contact of another body with it. All parts possessed of a dum. The thin and tender portion of the power of producing a change, so as to ex- brain, dividing the lateral ventricles from cite a sensation, are called sensible; those each other which are not possessed of this property, insensible. To the insensible parts by nature belong all our fluids, the blood, bile, saliva, &c. and much of the solids, the the palate.

SENSORIUM COMMUNE.

SENSUS EXTERNI. The external senses are seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, and feeling

SENSUS INTERNI. The internal senses are imagination, memory, judg-

ment, attention, and the passions. SENTIENT EXTREMITIES.

SEPARATORIUM. (From separo, to sepa-

SEPIA OFFICINALIS. Sepium.

SEPTEMARY YEARS. Climacteric years. ment; several judgments connected toge. A supposed period, or succession of years in human life, at which important consti-

Septfoil. See Tormentilla. SEPTIC. (Septica; from σηπω, to pu-

SEPIUM. See Sepia officinalis.

SEPTIFOLIA. (From septem, seven, and

SEPTINERVIA. (From septem, seven,

SEPTUM CEREBELLI. A process of the dura mater, dividing the cerebellum perpendicularly into two principal

SEPTUM CEREBRI. The falciform The senses may be enumerated under process of the dura mater is sometimes so

SEPTUM CORDIS. hearing, smelling, tasting, touching SEPTUM CORDIS. (Septum; from SENSIBILITY. The capability which sepio, to separate) The partition between the two ventricles of the heart.

SEPTUM LUCIDUM. Septum pelluci-

SEPTUM NARIUM. Interseptum. The

partition between the nostrils.

SEPTUM PALATI. The partition of

SEPTUM THORACIS. See Mediastinum.

SEPTUM TRANSVERSUM See Diaphragm. SERAPIAS. (From Serapis, a lascivious idol; so called because it was thought to promote venery; or from the testiculated shape of its root ) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Gynandria Order, Diandria.

SERAPINUM. The gum-resin sagapenum

is sometimes so called. See Sagapenum. Seripuium. (From Seriphus, an island upon which it grew ) Flix-weed.

Yegis. Endive. SERIS. Sermountain. See Seseli. Serous apoplexy. See Apoplexia. SERPENTARIA GALLORUM. arum

The viper's SERPENTARIA HISPANICA.

dracanculus. See Dracanculus.

grass See Scorzonera.

SERPENTARIA VIRGINIANA. (So called from the resemblance of its roots to the tail of the rattle-snake.) Colubrina from serra, a saw; so called from its saw. Virgineana. Viperina virgineana. Aris- like appearance.) Serratus major anticus, tolochia. Pestilochia. gineana. Virginian snake-root. plant which affords this root is the Aristo- Dumas. This muscle is so named by lochia serpentaria of Linnæus:—foliis cor Winslow and Albinus Douglas calls it dato oblongis planis, caulibus infirmis flexus serratus major anticns, but improperly, as osis teretibus floribus solitariis. Caulis it is seated at the side, and not at the angeniculata valde nodosa. Flores ad radicem. terior part of the thorax. It is a broad Snake root has an aromatic smell, ap- fleshy muscle, of a very irregular shape, proaching to that of valerian, but more and is in part covered by the subscapularis, agreeable; and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. It was first recommended as by fleshy digitations, from the eight supea medicine of extraordinary power in rior ribs, and is inserted fleshy into the counteracting the poisonous effects of the whole basis of the scapula internally, bites of serpents; this, however, is now between the insertion of the rhomboides, wholly disregarded: but as it possesses and the origin of subscapularis, being tonic and antiseptic virtues, and is gene-rally admitted as a powerful stimulant and of the scapula. This muscle may easily diaphoretic, it is employed, in the present be divided into two and even three porday, in some fevers where these effects tions. The latter division has been adopt-are required. A tinctura serpentariæ is ed by Winslow. The first of these pordirected both by the London and Edin- tions is the thick and short part of the burgh Pharmacopæias.

SERPENTUM LIGNUM. this root does not appear to be yet ascer- of the scapula, its fibres ascending obtained. It is the produce of the Ophioxy - liquely backwards. The second portion lum serpentium of Linnæus: by whom it is arises from the second rib, behind the orisaid to be very bitter. In the cure of the gin of the first portion, and likewise from bite of venomous serpents and malignant the third and fourth ribs; this portion is diseases it is said to be efficacious.

SERPENTUM RADIX. cause it creeps on the surface of the skin most considerable portion, is that which by degrees.) A ring-worm, or tetter. See arises from the fifth, sixth, seventle, and Herpes

or a serpendo, by reason of its creeping serves to move the scapula forwards, and nature.) Se pillim. Gilarum. Serpyllium it is chiefly by the contraction of this vulgare minus. Wild or mother of thyme, muscle that the shoulder is supported, Thymus serpillum of Linnaus:-erectus, when loaded with any heavy weight. The foliis revolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato- ancients, and even many of the moderns, spicatio. This plant has the same sensible particularly Douglas and Cowper, supposed

SEPTUM PELLUCIDUM. See Septum luci- qualities as those of the garden thyme. (see Thymus), but has a milder and rather more grateful flavour.

SERPYLLUM CITRATUM. Lemon thyme. A variety of the Thymus serpillum of Linnaus. It is very pungent, and has a particular. ly grateful odour, approaching to that of lemons.

SERPYLLUM VULGARE MINUS. pyllum.

SERRATA. (From serra, a saw; so called from its serrated leaves.) See Serratula,

SERRATULA. (From serra, a saw: so called from its serrated leaves.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia aquales.

SERRATULA AMARA. The systematic name of a species of saw-wort which is said to cure agues.

See Pectoralis mi-SERRATUS ANTICUS.

SERRATUS MAGNUS.

(Serratus: Contrayerva vir- of Douglas and Cowper. Serratus major The of Winslow, and Costo basi scapulaire of pectoralis, and latissimus dorsi. It arises, muscle that arises from the first and second The nature of ribs, and is inserted into the upper angle thin and short, and its fibres run nearly in See Mungos radix. a horizontal direction, to be inserted into SERPIGO. (From serpo, to creep; be- the basis of the scapula. The third, and eighth ribs, and is inserted into the lower SERPYLLUM. (From egwa, to creep, angle of the scapula. The serratus magnus

its chief use to be to dilate the thorax, by do not exist in the fœtus, but as we elevating the ribs; but it can only do this advance in life, begin first to appear in a when the scapula is forcibly raised.

SERHATUS MAJOR ANTICUS. See Serratus subjects, are completely ossified.

magnus

SEURATUS MINOR ANTICUS. ralis minor.

Cervice dorso-costal of Dumas. This is a seem likewise to be of use, by forming a small, flat, and thin muscle, situated at groove for lodging the flexor tendons the upper part of the back, immediately secure from compression. under the thomboideus. It arises, by a broad thin tendon, from the lower part of the ligamentum colli, from the spinous The name of a genus of plants in the Linprocess of the last vertebra of the neck, næan system. and the two or three uppermost of the back, and is inserted into the second, Sesamum orientale of Linnaus. The seed third, fourth, and sometimes fifth ribs, and leaves are used medicinally in some

wards and outwards.

SENTULA CAMPANA. See Melilotus.

SERUM. (From serus, late; because name of the sesamum of the pharmacoit is the remainder of the milk, after its poias See Sesamum. better parts have been taken from it.) The Sesell. (Παζα το σαωσαι ελλον; because serum of the blood. The yellow and it is salutary for young fawns.) Siler monsomewhat greenish fluid which separates tanum. Hart-wort. Sermountain.

SERUM ALUMINOSUM. Alum whey.

SURUM LACTIS. Whey.

SERVICE-TREE. is considered powerfully adstringent, and and, though neglected in this country, do recommended in fluxes and dysenteries, not appear to be deservedly so. It is given in the form of rob, and it is equally useful in distilling brandy and fusion amongst the species of the seseli.

making cider.

SESAMOID BONES. dea; from onoaun, an Indian grain, and of Linnaus. eisoc, likeness.) This term is applied to diuretic. the little bones, which, from their supposed general resemblance to the seeds of seilles. This plant is the Seseli tortuosum the sesamum, are called ossa sesamoidea. of Linnaus. The seeds are directed for They are found at the articulations of the medicinal use, and have a warm biting great toes, and sometimes at the joints of taste, and a greater degree of pungency the thumbs; now and then we meet with than those of the Laserpitium. them upon the condyles of the os femoris, at the lower extremity of the fibula, under of the hart-wort of Marseilles. See Seseli the os cuboides of the tarsus, &c. They massilienss.

cartilaginous state, and, at length, in adult and hard labour seem to add to the num-See Pecto- ber and size of these bones, and being most commonly found wherever the ten-SERRATUS POSTICUS INFERIOR. dons and ligaments are most exposed to Dorno-lumbo-costal of Dumas. This is a pressure from the action of the muscles, thin nuscle of considerable breadth situated at the bottom of the back, under the anatomists as the ossified parts of tendons middle part of the latissimus dorsi. It and ligaments. These bones are usually arises by a broad thin tendon, in common smooth and flat on the side of the bone on with that of the last-described muscle, which they are placed; their upper surface from the spinous processes of the two, and is convex, and, in general, adheres to the sometimes of the three interior derest very sometimes of the three inferior dorsal vertendon that covers it, and of which it may, tebra, and from three, and sometimes in some measure, be considered as a part, four of those of the lumbar vertebra. It Although their formation seems to be then becomes fleshy, and, ascending a owing to accidental circumstances, yet, as little obliquely outwards and forwards, the two at the first joint of the great-toe divides into three, and sometimes four are much larger than the rest, and are lower edges of the three or four inferior as if these bones were of some utility; ribs, at a little distance from their cartilages. Its use seems to be to pull the ribs downwards, backwards, and outwards.

SERRATUS SUPERIOR POSTICUS.

SERRATUS SUPERIOR POSTICUS.

Converted of Durant This is a cartilage of the great toe and thumb

by as many distinct slips. Its use is to ex- countries on account of the bland oil the pand the thorax, by pulling the ribs up-former contains, and for the mucilaginous nature of the latter.

SESAMUM ORIENTALE. The systematic

from the blood when cold and at rest. See seeds and roots of this plant, Laserpitium siler of Linnaus, which grows in the southern parts of Europe, are directed as officinals. They have an agreeable smell, The fruit of this tree and a warm, glowing, aromatic taste;

SESELI CRETICUM. There is great con-The plant which bears this epithet in the (Ossa sesamoi- pharmacopæias is the Tordylium officinale The seeds are said to be

SESELI TORTUOSUM. The systematic name

SESQUI. This word, joined with any number, weight, measure, &c. signifies one integer and an half; as sesqui granum, a grain and a half.

SE l'ACEUM. (From seta, a bristle; because horse-hairs were first used to keep open the wound ) A seton. See Seton.

SETON. Setaceum. An artificial ulcer made under the skin by means of an instrument called the seton needle, which carries with it a portion of thread or silk, that is moved backwards or forwards, and thus keeps up a constant irritation.

Setterwort. Sec Helleboraster. SEVUM CETI. Sec Spermaceti.

SEVUM OVILE. Sevum ovillum. Mutton

SEXUAL ACTION. Sexual functions. Those functions proper to each sex, by which the species is propagated, as the excretion of semen in men; menstruation, conception, the evolution of the fætus, parterition, &c. in women.

PLANTS. SEXUAL SYSTEM OF Linnæan system. The sexual system of plants was invented by the immortal Linnæus, professor of physic and botany at Upsal in Sweden. It is founded on the parts of fructification, viz. the stamens and pistils; these having been observed with more accuracy since the discovery of the uses for which nature has assigned them, a new set of principles have been derived from them, by means of which the distribution of plants has been brought to a greater precision, and rendered more conformable to true philosophy, in this system, than in any one of those which preceded it. The author does not pretend to call it a natural system, he gives it as artificial only, and modestly owns his inability to detect the order pursued by nature in her vegetable productions; but of this he seems confident, that no natural order can ever be framed without taking in the materials out of which he has raised his own; and urges the necessity of admitting artificial systems for convenience, till one truly natural shall appear. Linnæus has given us his Fragmenta methodi naturalis, in which he has made a distribution of plants under various orders, putting together in each such as appear to have a natural affinity to each other; this, after a long and fruitless search after the natural method, he gives as the result of his own speculation, for the assistance of such as may engage in the same pursuit.

Not able to form a system after the natural method, Linnaus was more fully convinced of the absolute necessity of adopting an artificial one. For the student to enter into the advantages this system maintains over all others, it is necessary that he be instructed in the science of and the species into varieties, where they botany, which will amply repay him for are worthy of note. his inquiry. The following is a short out-

line of the sexual system:

The parts of the fructification of a plant

1. The calyx, called also the empalement,

or flower-cup.

2. The corols, or foliation, which is the gaudy part of the flower, called vulgarly the leaves of the flower.

3. The stamens, or threads, called also the chives; these are considered as the male parts of the flower.

4. The pistil, or pointal, which is the female part. 5. The pericarp, or seed-vessel.

6. The seed.

7. The receptacle, or base, on which

these parts are seated.

The four first are properly parts of the flower, and the three last parts of the fruit. It is from the number, proportion, position, and other circumstances attending these parts of the fructification that the classes and orders, and the genera they contain, are to be characterised, according to the sexual system.

Such flowers as want the stamens, and

have the pistil, are termed female.

Those flowers which have the stamens, and want the pistils, are called male.

Flowers which have both stamens and pistils are said to be hermaphrodite.

Neuter flowers are such as have neither stamens nor pistils.

Hermaphrodite flowers are sometimes distinguished into male hermaphrodites and female hermaphrodites. This distinction takes place when, although the flower contains the parts belonging to each sex, one of them proves abortive or ineffectual; if the defect be in the stamina, it is a female hermaphrodite, if in the pistil, a male one.

Plants, in regard to sex, take also their denominations in the following man-

1. Hermaphrodite plants are such as bear flowers upon the same root that are all hermaphrodite.

2. Androgynous plants, are such as, upon the same root, bear both male and female flowers, distinct from each other, that is,

in separate flowers. 3. Male plants, such as bear male flowers

only upon the same root.

4. Female plants, such as bear female flowers only upon the same root.

5. Polygamous plants, such as, either on the same or on different roots, bear hermaphrodite flowers, and flowers of either or both sexes.

The first general division of the whole body of vegetables is, in the sexual system, divided into twenty-four classes; these again are subdivided into orders; the orders into genera, the genera into species;

## A Table of the Classes and Orders.

ORDERS.

1. Monadria. Monogynia. Digynia. 2. Dandria. Monogynia. Digynia. Trigynia.

CLASSES.

22. Dioecia.

a husband.

Monogynia. Digynia. Trigynia. 3. Tr andria. Monogynia Digynia. Tetragynia. 4. Tett indria.

Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia, Polo-5. Pentandria. gynia.

6. Hexandria.

Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pologynia, Monogynia, Dyginia, Tetragynia, Heptagynia, Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, 7. Heptandria. 8. Octandria.

9. Enneandria.

Monogynia. Trigynia. Hexagynia. Monogynia. Digynia. Trigynia. Pentagynia. Decagynia. Monogynia. Digynia. Trigynia. Pentagynia. Dodecagynia. Monogynia. Digynia. Trigynia. Pentagynia. Pologynia. 10. Decandria. 11. Dodecandria, 12. Icosandria. Monogynia, Digynia, Trigynia, Tetragynia, Pentagynia,

13. Polyandria. agynia. Pologynia.

14. Didynamia. Gymnospermia. Angiospermia. 15. Tetradynamia. Siliculosa Siliquosa.

16. Monadelphia. Pentandria. Decandria. Enneandria. Dodecandria. Polyandria.

17. Diadelphia. Pentandria. Hexandria.

18. Polyadelphia. Pentandria. Icosandria. Polyandria.

19. Syngenesia. Polygamia æqualis. Polygamia superflua. Polygamia frustranea. Polygamia necessaria. Polygamia segregata. Monogamia. Diandria. Triandria. Tetrandria. Pentandria. Hexandria. De-20. Gynandria.

candria. Dodecandria. Polyandria. Monandria. Diandria. Triandria. Tetrandria. Pentandria. Hex-21. Monoecia.

andria. Heptandria. Polyandria. Monadelphia. Syngenesia. Gynandria,

Monandria, Diandria, Triandria, Tetrandria, Pentandria, Hexan-Octandria. Enneandria. Decandria. Dodecandria. Polyandria, Monadelphia. Syngenesia. Gynandria.

Monoecia. Dioecia. Trioecia. 23. Polygamia. 24. Cryptogamia. Filices. Musci. Algæ. Fungi. Appendix. Palmæ.

Explanation of these terms.

As these terms in the Greek language, flowers must all be hermaphrodite in these from whence they are taken, are all exclasses; for should the female part be pressive of the principal circumstance that wanting, the plant would belong to some obtains in the class to which they are ap-other class, notwithstanding the number plied, the explanation of them will give of stamina may be such as would otherthe reader a good insight into the proper wise refer it to one of these. characters of the several classes, and the sexual distinctions on which they are armp, a husband.

husband, that is, a stanien.

Diandria; from dis, two, and avnp, a husband.

Triandria; from Tpus, three, and armp, a husband.

Tetrandria; from Teorapes, four, and avnp. a husband.

Pentandria; from werls, five, and arnp, a husband.

Hexandria; from &, six, and annp, a

Heptandria; from 1772, seven, and armp, a husband. Octandria; from outw, eight, and armp,

Enneandria; from errez, nine, and armp, a husband

Decundria; from sena, ten, and armp, a husband.

It is necessary to observe here, that the

Dodecundria; from Sasena, twelve, and

Notwithstanding the term implies that Monandria; from moros, one, and arng, a the flowers have twelve husbands, the class is not confined to this number, but includes all such hermaphrodite flowers as are furnished with any number of stamina, from twelve to nineteen inclusive. No flowers have yet been discovered that have eleven stamina, which is the reason no class has been allotted to that number.

Icosandria; from eixogi, twenty, and arne, a husband.

Here, again, the title is to be understood with considerable latitude; for though it means that the flowers have twenty stamens, yet the plants belonging to this class are rarely found with less, and they frequently have a greater number, and are therefore not to be known with certainty from the next class.

Polyandria; from woxus, many, and 2740, a husband.

phrodite plants whose flowers have more this title, it must be observed, that the stamens disunited than twenty.

Didynamia; from Sis, two, and Suvapies,

This term imports the power or superiority of two, and is applied to this class, because its flowers have four stamina, of ludes to this circumstance, that in this which there are two longer than the rest. class the male and female flowers are both This circumstance alone is sufficient to distinguish this from the fourth class, where the four stamens are equal.

Tetradynamia; from reovepes, four, and

Surauis, power.

This term implies the power or superiority of four, and accordingly there are in the flowers of this class six stamens, four of which are longer than the rest, which circumstance distinguishes them from those of the sixth class where they are equal.

Monadelphia; from moves, one, and adex-

φος, a brotherhood.

The word here compounded with the numerical term, signifies a brother. This relation is employed to express the union of the filaments of the stamen, which in this class do not stand separate, but join at the base, and form one substance, out of which they proceed as from a common mother, and the title, therefore, expresses a single brotherhood, meaning, that there is but one set of stamens so united, which distinguishes this class from the two following. The number of stamens, it is to be recollected, is not limited.

Diadelphia; from Sis, two, and asexpos,

a brotherhood

This term implies a double brotherhood, or two sets of stamens, united in the manner explained in the former class. number of stamens is not limited.

Polyadelphia; from woxus, many,

αθελφος, a brotherhood.

Many brotherhoods or sets of stamens is meant by this term.

Sungenesia; from our, together, and

ywers, generation.

This term implies congenegation, alluding to the circumstance of the stamens; in which, though the stamens stand separate, yet their anthers or tops, which are the parts more immediately subservient to generation, are united in a cylinder, and perform their office together.

Gynundria; from youn, a wife, and aunp, woman.

a husband.

This term alludes to the singular cir- woman. cumstance of this class, in the flowers of which the stamens grow upon the pistil; thirteen first classes, and the general exso that the male and female parts are united, and do not stand separate, as in other hermaphrodite flowers.

Monoecia; from moves, one, and omes, a

The word here compounded with the numerical term, signifies a house or habita- σπερμα, a seed.

This class comprehends those herma- tion. To understand the application of plants of this class are not hermaphrodite. but androgynous; the flowers that have the stamens wanting the pistil, and those that have the pistil wanting the stamen, so that monoecia signifying a single house, alfound on the same plant or house.

Dioecia; from Sis, two, and oings, a

This term signifies two houses, and is applied to this class, the plants of which are male and female, to express the circumstance of the male flowers being on one plant, and the female on another; the contrary of which is the case of the androgynous class Monoecia.

Polygamia; from woxus, many, and ya-

mos, nuptials.

This term implies plurality of marriages. This class produces, either upon the same or different plan's, hermaphrodite flowers, and also flowers of one sex only, be it male or female; or flowers of each sex; and the latter receiving impregnation from, or giving it to the hermaphrodites, as their sex happens to be the parts essential to generation in the hermaphrodite flowers, do not confine themselves to the corresponding parts within the same flower, but become of promiscuous use, which is the reason of giving this title.

Cryptogamia; from neumlos, concealed,

and yamos, nuptials.

This term means a concealment of marriages; the class consists, therefore, of such plants as either bear their flowers concealed within the fruit, or have them The so small as to be imperceptible.

Explanation of the titles of the orders.

Monogynia; from moves, one, and your, a woman, that is, a pistil.

Diagynia; from dis, two, and youn, a woman.

Trigynia; from Tpess, three, and youn, 2 woman.

Tetragynia; from reorapes, four, and yuvn, a woman.

Pentagynia; from wavle, five, and yuvn, a woman.

Hexagynia; from &, six, and yuvn, 2 woman.

Decagynia; from Sena, ten, and yuvn, 2

Polygynia, from woxus, many, and yuvn, 2

These are the titles that occur in the planation of one pistil, two pistils, &c. will be sufficient to make it appear how they are employed in the class.

The class didynamia contains the or-

Gymnospermia; from yumos, naked, and

Angiospermia; from alyos, a vessel, and σπερμα, a seed; which are distinguished by the seed being either naked, or en- system has been introduced, in order to closed in a pericarp or seed-vessel.

The two orders in the class Tetradynamia are founded on a distinction in the

pericarp.

Siliculosa; means a little siliqua.

Siliqua; which is a particular kind of title Materia Medica seed-vessel

To explain the orders contained in the elass Syngenesia, viz. Polygamia aqualis, Polygamia superfina, Polygamia frustranea, Polygumia necessaria, Polygumia segregata, Monogamia, it is necessary to explain what is meant by polygamy in flowers. It has been before observed, what is meant by for punch before the spirit is added. polygamous plants: but, in respect to flowers, the term is applied to a single flower only, for the flowers of this class being compound, a polygamy arises from the intercommunication of the several florets in one and the same flower. Now, the polygamy of flowers, in this sense of the word, al- jaw fords tour cases, which are the foundations of the four first orders of this class: equal gogu; from σιαλαγωγα, saliva, and αγω, polygamy, is when all the flowers are here to expel.) Those medicines are so called, maphrodite: superfluous polygamy, is when which excite an uncommon flow of saliva: males is a superfluity: frustraneous poly- parations of mercury. gamy, is when some of the florets are hermaphrodite, and others neuter; for, in this case, the addition of the neuters is of no assistance to the fructification: necessury polyzumy, is when some of the florets are male, and the rest female; for, in this case, there being no hermaphrodites, the polygamy arising from the composition of the florers of different sexes, is necessary to perfect the fructification; polygumia segreguta implies separation; the plants of this order having partial cups growing out of the common calyx which surround and divide the florets: the order Mouogiamia signifies a single marriage, and is opposed to the polygamy of the four other orders; for in this, although the anthers are united which is the essential character of the flowers of this class, the flower is simple, and not compounded of many florets, as in the other orders.

The tule of the other order to that of Trioccia, in the class Polygamia, have al-

ready been explained.

Telorcia; from Tests, three, and sixos, a house; because the polygamy is on three distinct plants, one producing male flowers, another female, and a third hermaphrodite or androgynous

The class Cryptogamia contains the or-

ders of

Flices, or ferns; Musei, or mosses;

Alga, or flags;

Fungi, or mushrooms.

This short explanation of the Linnaan convey a general idea to medical students of its nature, and also the meanings of the several terms.

The various medicinal plants will be found systematically arranged under the

Seudschutz water See Sedlitz water.

Shallot. A species of onion.

Sharp-pointed dock. See Oxylapathum. Shedding-teeth. The primary or milkteeth. See Teeth.

Shells, prepared. See Testa praparata. Sherbet A compound liquor prepared

Slangles. See Erysipelus.

SHRUB A compound prepared from spirits, lemon-juice and sugar.

Stagov. Ziayar. The jaw

SAIGONAGHA. (From σιαγων, the jaw, and αγεα, a seizure.) The gout in the

SIALAGOGUES. (Medicamenta Sialasome of the florets are hermaphrodite, such are mercurial preparations, pyreand others female only; for, in this case, thrum, &c. They are divided into siulaas the fructification is perfected in the goga topica, as seilla, nicotiana, piper, &c. hermaphrodites, the addition of the fe- and sinlagoga interna, as the various pre-

Sibbens A disease resembling syphilis. SICCANTIA. (From sicco, to dry.) Dry-

ing medicines.

Sicchasta. (From ouxxos, weak, weary.) An impleasant lassitude and debility peculiar to women with child.

SICULA. (Dim. of sica, a short sword; so called from its dagger-like root.)

SICTEDON. (From TIXUGE, a cucumber.) A transverse fracture like a cucumber broken in two parts.

SICTORE (From TIRVOS, a cucumber or gourd; so named from its resemblance to

a gourd.) A cucurbit.

Sideratio. (From sidus, a planet, because it was thought to be produced by the influence of the planets.) An apoplexy; a blast: a slight erysipelas.

SIDERIUM. (From oidness, iron;) an herb so called from its supposed virtues in healing wounds made by iron instruments

SIGESBECKIA ORIENTALIS. The systematic name of a plant which is said to be useful in removing strangury, and in calculoos diseases, gout, and fluor albus.

SIGHT. See Seeing

SIGILLATA TERRA. Sealed earth; a species of bolar earth made into cakes.

SIGILLUM BEATE MARIE.

SIGILLUM HERMETICUM. An hermetic seal; mad by closing the end of a glass tube by melting it.

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SIGILLUM SALOMONIS. (Dim. of signum, a sign. It is called sigillum sulomonis, Solomon's seal, because it has upon its root the resemblance of an impression made by a seal.) Solomon's seal. Convolvulus polygonutum of Linnæus:—foliis alternis amplexicaulibus, caule ancipiti, pedunculis axillaribus subunifloris. The roots are applied externally as adstringents, and are administered internally as corroborants.

SIGMOID. (Sigmoides, from the Greek letter  $\Sigma$ , and sides, a likeness; resembling the Greek letter sigma.) Applied to the valves of the heart, and sometimes to the cartilages of the aspera arteria, or the semilunar apophysis of the bones.

SIGMOIDEA FLEXURA. The sigmoid flexure,

or turn of the colon.

SIGMOIDES PROCESSUS. Valves of the heart.

SIGNA CRITICA. Signs of the crisis of disease.

SIGNA DIAGNOSTICA. Diagnosis or distinguishing signs.

SILER MONTANUM. See Seseli.

SILER MONTANUM. Common hart-wort.

SILEX. (Selag, Heb.) Silex, or siliceous earth, is the principal constituent part of a very great number of the compound earths and stones forming the immense mass of the solid nucleus of the globe. It is the basis of almost all the scintillating stones, such as flint, rock crystal, quartz, agate, calcedony, jasper, The sand of rivers and of the seashore, chiefly consist of it. It is deposited in vegetable substances forming petrified wood, &c. It is likewise precipitated from certain springs in a stalactical form. It has been discovered in several waters in a state of solution, and is found in many plants, particularly grasses and equise-tums. Professor Davy has proved that it forms a part of the epidermis of these vegetables. It is never met with absolutely pure in nature.

Properties.—Silex, when perfectly pure, exists in the form of a white powder. It is insipid and inodorous. It is rough to the touch, cuts glass, and scratches or wears away metals. Its specific gravity is about 2.66. It is unalterable by the simple combustible bodies. When mixed with water it does not form a collesive mass. Its moleculae when diffused in water are precipitated with the utmost facility. It is not acted on by any acid, except the fluoric. When in a state of extreme division it is soluble in alkalis; fused with them it forms glass. It melts with the phosphoric and boracic acids. It is unchangeable in the air, and unalterable by oxygen and the rest of the gazeous fluids. It has been considered as insoluble in water, but it appears when in a state of

extreme division to be soluble in a minute quality.

Method of obtaining silex -Silex may be obtained, tolerably pure, from flints, by the following process: procure some common gun-flinis; expose them in a crucible to a red heat, and then plunge them into cold water; by this treatment they will become brittle, and easily reducible to powder. Mix them, when pulverized, with three or four times their weight of carbonate of potash, and let the mixture be fused, in a dull red heat, in a silver crucible. shall thus obtain a compound of alkali and silex, called siliceous potash. Dissolve this compound in water, filter the solution, and add to it diluted sulphuric or muriatic acid. An immediate precipitation now ensues, and as long as this continues, add fresh portions of acid. Let the precipitate subside; pour off the fluid that floats above it; and wash the precipitate with hot water till it comes off tasteless. This powder when dry is silex.

In this process the acid added to the solution of flint unites to the potash, and forms sulphate or muriate of potash; the siliceous earth is therefore precipitated.

It is necessary to add an excess of acid, in order that all the foreign earths which

are present may be separated.

If the solution of flints be diluted with a great quantity of water, as for instance, in the proportion of 24 parts to one, and in this state an acid be poured upon it, no perceptible precipitation will ensue; the silex continues suspended in the fluid, and is invisible on account of its transparency; but it may be made to appear by evaporating part of the water.

The solution of flint, on account of its affinity with the carbonic acid is also in course of time decomposed by mere con-

tact with air.

Another method of obtaining silex exceedingly pure is to separate it from fluoric acid.

SILICA. (From silex.) Siliceous earth. See Silex.

SILIGO. ZIAIYVIS. Fine wheat or rye.

SILIQUA. (From silo, a nose turned up, a hooked nose.) A pod or receptable for seed, consisting of two valves, and in which the seeds are fixed alternately to each suture. Also some plants which bear pods.

SILIQUA DULCIS. Sweet-pod. The fruit so called is the produce of the Ceratonia siliqua of Linnæus. They are about four inches in length, and as thick as one's finger, compressed and unequal, and mostly bent; they contain a sweet brown pulp, which is given in form of decoction, as a pectoral in asthmatic complaints and coughs.

SILIQUA HIRSUTA. The cowage is some-

times so called. See Dolichos.

SILIQUASTRUM. (From siliqua, a pod;

named from its pods.) Judas-tree. The pyrometer. by Pliny. See Piper indicum.

its juice is alexipharmic.

Silk-worm, acid of Sec Rombic acid. SILPHIUM GUMMI.

found both native and mineralized, and forms what is termed green gold. Copper combined with lead, copper, mercury, renders it harder without much impairing cobalt, sulphur, arsenic, &c. The prin- its ductility Mercury and silver combine cipal orcs of this metal are the following: and form a crystallizable and fusible alloy. Native silver, antimoniated silver, sulphuse the rest of silver, sulphurated oxid of silver cept cobalt and nickel. It is oxidated and and antimony, muriate of silver, native dissolved by several of the acids. The oxid of silver, &c. It is found in different nitric acid attacks it rapidly in the cold. Parts of the earth. The mines of the The sulphuric acid requires aboiling heat. Erzgebiirge or the metalliferous rocks of The muriatic acid does not act upon it. Mexico and Potosi, Bohemia, Norway, Transylvania &c. are the richest. Transylvania, &c. are the richest.

Native silver possesses all the properties greater number of the metals. of this metal, and it appears in series of Method of obtaining silver.—Different octahedra inserted in one another; in methods are employed in different counsmall capillary flexible threads intwined tries to extract silver from its ores. In together: in plates; or in masses. The Mexico, Peru, &c. the mineral is paunded, colour of native silver is white, often tar-roasted, washed, and then triturated with the auriferous native silver ore. The co- mill is employed to keep the whole in agilour of this ore is a yellowish white. It tation. The silver combines by that has much metallic lustre. The antimoni- means with the mercury. The alloy thus ated silver ore belongs to this class Silver obtained is afterwards washed, to separate combined with sulphur, forms the sulphu- any foreign matters from it, and then rated oxid of silver, or vitreous silver ore. strained and pressed through leather. This This ore occurs in masses, sometimes in being done, heat is applied to drive off the threads, and sometimes crystallized in mercury from the silver, which is then cubes or regular octahedra. Its colour is melted and cast into bars or ingots dark bluish grey, inclined to black. Its In order to extract silver from sulphufracture is uneven, and its lustre metallic. rated or vitreous silver ore, the mineral is It is soft enough to be cut with a knife, roasted, and then melted with lead and It is sometimes found alloyed with anti- borax, or some other flux to assist the mony (grey silver orc.) Silver united to fusion. By the first operation the sulphur muriat c acid forms the corneous silver ore is volatilized, and by the second the silver (muriate of silver,) which appears under is obtained, though for the most part aldifferent colours and shapes Silver united loyed with the other metals, from which it to oxigen constitutes the calciform silver is separated by capellation, or fusion with ore, of which there are several varieties, lead or bismuth. The colour of these ores is a lead grey, or greyish black. They occur massive, dis- of the most lively brilliancy; next to gold, seminated, and crystallized.

rope, but more especially Peru and Mexico part in combination with tin or lead. It in South America, contain the principal has nether taste nor smell; its specific

many other parts of the world.

white and sonorous It is the most splendid in the greatest abundance in Peru and of all the metals. Its specific gravity is from Mexico. From this metal is obtained the 10.474 to 11 091, according to the state of officinal argenti nitras. tenacious. It may be beat out into SiMAROUBA. (A patronymic name leaves only one hundred and sixty thouse of America.) Simaraba Euronymic Sisandth part of an inch thick, and drawn marouba quassia. Quessie americaba of into wire the thousandth part of an inch Lonnaus:-foribus monoicis, foliis abrupte thick. It melts at 28° of Wedgwood's pinnatis, foliolis alternis subpetiolatis petiolo

Exposed to a temperature capsicism or Guinea pepper was so termed considerably higher it becomes volatilized. Atmospheric air has no effect upon it, ex-SILIQUOSA INDICA. An American plant; cept when it contains sulphureous vapours, sulphurated or phosphorated hydrogen gases. It unites to phosphorus and sul-(Zalaph, Arab.) phur. It slightly unites with the brittle Assafætida, or the plant which affords acidifiable metals; but it readily enters into combination with the greater num-SILVER. Argentum. This metal is ber of the other metals. With gold it posable by the alkalis, earths, and by the

Silver alloyed with gold forms mercury in vessels filled with water-

A perfect metal, of a white colour, and the most malleable of all metals. It is Germany, and other countries of En- sometimes found pure, but for the most silver mines. There are, however, silver gravity is such, that it loses about the mines in Ireland, Norway. France, and eleventh part of its weight by commersion in water; and a cubic foot of this metal Properties .- Pure silver is very brilliant, weighs 270 pounds. Native silver is found

nudo, floribus paniculatis. The bark of this of the common black pepper. See Sttre, which is met with in the shops, is obtained from the roots; and, according to Dr Wright of Jamaica, it is rough, scaly, and warted; the inside, when fresh, is a full yellow, but when dried paler: it has but little smell; the taste is bitter, mus sinapios. A sinapism or mustard but not disagreeable. It is esteemed, in the West Indies, in dysenteries and other fluxes, as restoring tone to the intestines, allaying their spasmodic motions, promoting the secretions by urine and perspiration, and removing lowness of spirits attending those diseases. It is said also that use of a blister. it soon disposes the patient to sleep; takes off the gripes and tenesmus, and changes infusion or decoction of mustard-seed. the stools to their natural colour and consistence.

SIMAROUBÆ INFUSUM. See Infusum simaroubæ.

Simiæ lapis See Bezoar simiæ.

Simple substances. See Elements.
SIMPLEX OCULUS. A bandage for the eye. SINAPIE. See Sinapis.

(From owani, mustard, SINAPELŒUM and exacer oil.) Oil of minstard.

SINAPEOS SEMEN. Mustard-seed.

SINAPI NIGRUM. See Sinapis

SINAPIS. (Οτι σινει τως ωπαρ, because it harts the eyes.) Eruca. Napus. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan Class, Tetradynamia. system. Order, Siliquosa Mustard.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the black mustard. Napus. Eruca. Sinape. Sinapi. Common black mustard. Sinnpis nigra of Linnæus :- siliquis glabris racemo appressis. The seeds of this species of mustard, which are directed by the London College, and those of the Sinapis alba, which are preferred by that of Edinburgh, manifest no remarkable difference to the taste, nor in their effects, and therefore answer equally well for medicinal and culinary purposes. They have an acrid, pon- of Highmore. gent taste, and, when bruised, this pungency shews its volatility by powerfully affecting the organs of smell. Mustard is considered as capable of promoting appetite, assisting digestion, attenuating viscid juices, and, by stimulating the fibres, it proves a general remedy in paralytic affec-Joined to its stimulant qualities, it frequently, if taken in considerable quantity, opens the body, and increases the urmary discharge, and hence it has been found useful in dropsical complaints. Externally, flower of mustard is frequently used mixed with vinegar as a stimulant or sinapism.

SINAPIS ALBA. Pharmacopæia. It is somewhat less pun- nella. gent than the black species. See Sinapis.

SINARIS NIGRA. The systematic name name of the tree which is supposed to

napis

SINAPIS SEMEN ALBUM. White mustard. seed.

SINAPIS SEMEN NIGRUM. See Sinapis. SINAPISMUS. Sinapismum. Catablas. poultice. A term given to a mixture of mustard and vinegar in form of poultice, generally applied to the calves of the legs, and soles of the feet as a stimulant, and employed in low states of fevers and other diseases, and intended to supersede the

SINAPIUM (From σιναπι, mustard.) An

SINCIPUT. The fore part of the head. See Caput.

SINE PARI. Several muscles, veins, arteries, &c. are so called which are without a fellow. See Azygos.

SINGULTUS. Lygmos. The hiccough. A convulsive motion of the diaphragm and parts adjacent.

SINUS. 1. A cavity or depression.

2 In surgery it means a long, narrow, hollow track, leading from some abscess, diseased bone, &c.

3. The veins of the dura mater are so termed. Thy are several in number, the principal of which are, 1. The longitudinal sinus, which rises anteriorly from the crisia galli, ascends and passes between the two laming of the falciform process to where this process ends. It then opens into, 2. Two lateral sinuses, distinguished into right and left, which lie in the crucial spine of the os occipitis: 3. The inferior longitudinal, which is a small sinus situated at the acute inferior margin of the

SINUS COXE. The sinus of the coc-

See Antrum SINUS GENÆ PITUITARIUS.

SINUS LONGITUDINALIS. See Longitudinal sinus.

SINUS MAXILLARIS. The antrum of Highmore. A cavity in the cheek.

SINUS MULIEBRIS. Sinus pudoris. The vagina.

SINUS VENÆ PORTARUM. The entrance into the liver.

SINUSES LATERAL.

sinuses. EIPHILIS. See Syphilis.

SIPHONIA ELASTICA. The systematic name of the elastic resin-tree. See Indian rubher.

SIRIASIS. (From oiges, a cavity.) The systematic name inflammation of the brain peculiar to chilof the white mustard plant, which is direct-dien, and attended with a hollowness ed for medicinal use in the Edinburgh of the eyes and depresure of the fonta-

SIRIUM MYRTIFOLIUM. The systematic

album.

SISARUM. (Sisa, Heb.) Siser or skir-

Siser. See Sisarum.

Sison Anni. The systematic name of the plant which affords the amomum verum of the shops See Amomum.

SISYMBRIUM. (From ovoucos, fringe; so named from its fringed roots.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Tetradynamia. Order, Siliquosa. The water-cress.

SISYMBIUM NASTURTIUM. The systematic name of the water-cress. See Nas-

turtium aquaticum.

SISYMBILIUM SOPHIA. The systematic name of the herb sophia. See Sophia chi-

SITIOLOGY. (Sitiologia. From oilos, aliment, and xolos, a discourse or trea-A doctrine or treatise on alitise ) ment.

SIUM. (From σεω, to move, from its agitation in water.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class,

Pentandria. Order, Digynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the creeping water-parsnep, Sium nodiflorum of Linnæus. This plant is admitted into the London Pharmacopæia in the character of an antiscorbutic. It is not nauseous, and children take it readily if mixed with milk.

SIUM AROMATICUM. The amomum verum is sometimes so called. See Amo-

SIUM NANSI. The systematic name of the plant whose root is called radix nansi in some pharmacopæias.

The systematic

name of the creeping water-parsnep. See

SKELETON. (Sceletus, from σχελλω, to dry.) When the bones of the body are preserved in their natural situation, and deprived of the flesh, the assemblage is called a skeleton. Sec Bones.

SKELETON, ARTIFICIAL. The assemblage of all the bones of the animal, when hung in their respective situations

by means of wire. See Bone.

SKELETON, NATURAL. tural ligaments.

SKIN. carefully dissected off and separated from almost an inch long; the cuticle, or rete all adventitious matter in a middle-sized mucosum, or a membrane very similar, man, it weighs about four pounds and a having the same properties with these, aphalf.

membrane, is in reality laminated, consiste surface of the lungs, esophagus, stomach, ing of several subdivisions; the outermost and intestinal tube. In most of the last-

afford the yellow saunders. See Santalum ticle; the second has no English name, is known only to anatomists, and is called rete mucosum; after these two are removed we come to, as is commonly thought, the surface of the skin itself.

When a blister has been applied to the skin of a Negro, if it has not been very stimulating, in twelve hours after a thin transparent greyish membrane is raised, under which we find a fluid. This membrane is the cuticle or scarf skin. When this, with the fluid, is removed, the surface under them appears black; but if the blister had been very stimulating, another membrane, in which this black colour resides, would also have been raised with the cuticle; this is rete mucosum, which is itself double, consisting of another grey transparent membrane, and of a black web, very much resembling the nigrum pigmentum of the eye. When this membrane is removed, the surface of the true skin (as has hitherto been believed) comes in view, and is white, like that of a European. The rete mucosum gives the colour to the skin; is black in the Negro; white, brown, or yellowish, in the European. The reason why this membrane is black in the Negro is, perhaps, that his body may be better able to defend itself against the sun's rays, and that the heat may be prevented from penetrating. The intention of a similar membrane behind the retina in the eye, appears to be not only that of absorbing the superfluous rays of light; but, like the amalgam behind the looking glass, it may enable the retina to reflect the rays, in order to perfect vision. It is not very improbable that some such purpose, as enabling the cuticle to reflect the sun's rays in those warm climates, where the inhabitants originally go naked, may be the intention of nature, in giving them the black membranc. Perhaps too, the circumstance of the countenance's becoming brown, when exposed to the sun's rays in summer, in our own climate, may be a process of nature to defend herself against the access of external heat into the body.

Both cuticle and rete nucosum send innumerable processes into the pores of the A skele- truc skin; the process of the rete mucosum ton is so termed in opposition to an artifi- is always within that of the cuticle, and in cial one, when the bones are retained in contact with the sides of the pore, as their proper places by means of their na- formed by the true skin. These processes are remarkable in the cuticle and rete mu-(Asgue. Pellis. Cutis.) When cosum of the elephant, some of them are pears to be also continued into the inside The skin, though apparently a simple of the mouth, over the tongue, internal lamen is termed with us scarf skin, or cu- named parts, the cuticle, however, forms

sheaths for villi, and not processes which line pores. On viewing the surface of the skin, even with the naked eye, we find it porous; more so in some places than in others; and the pores are also larger in some parts then others. These pores are ducts of sebaceous glands, and serve not only to transmit hairs, but, it is supposed, the greatest part of the perspirable matter itself. Absorption on the skin also, in all probability, begins on the sides of these pores. They are particularly remarkable about the mouth, nose, palms of the hands, soles of the feet, on the external ear, scalp, mons veneris, and around the nipple in women.

The skin itself was given to man not only for feeling, in a general sense, but for perspiration, absorption, and particularly for touch, in which he excels all other animals, and which resides, principally in the tips of the fingers He was intended for examining, reasoning, forming a judgment, and acting accordingly; he was fitted by this sense to examine accurately the properties of surrounding bodies, not capable of being examined by his other senses. This, among other reasons, was one why he was made erect, that the points of his fingers should not be made callous, or less sensible, by walking on

The skin of human bodies is always of a white colour, in the dead body, let the colour of the rete mucosum be what it may, it is extremely full of pores, and extremely vascular; a child in full vigour comes into the world, from this circumstance, scarlet; it is endowed with intense sensibility: almost all the pain, in the different operations of surgery, is past when we have divided the skin. Some parts of the skin have more feeling than others; the lips, for example, as Haller says "ad busia destinata." The glans clytoridis, and the glans penis, with a similar intention; there. though the nerves are not so large as in some other parts, they are longer, more numerous, and endowed with more exquisite feeling; but where the common offices of life merely are intended, the marks of superior feeling or touch, in the skin, are the projections, above the common surface, of those packets of arteries, veins, absorbents, called villi; the nerves are there not only also longer, but larger, as in the points of the fingers and toes.

We are not certain that the skin is muscular, but it has properties very like those of muscle, it contracts, relaxes, and even vibra'es, in some places, on certain occasions. It is extremely distensible, the skin of the perinaum has stretched in labour from a quarter of an inch to six inches. It is also extremely elastic, and instantly after labour has returned again to the ori- branches of the internal maxillary, above,

ginal quarter of an inch; it is thickest on those parts intended by nature to bear weight or pressure; of course it is thickest on the back, on the soles of the feet, and palms of the hands. It is thinner on the fore part of the body, on the insides of the arms and legs, and where its surfaces touch opposite surfaces. It is extremely thin on the lips, and allows the colour of the blood to shine through it. It is also extremely thin on the glans penis in men, glane clutoridis in women, and on the inside of the labia pudendi. Skin dried and dressed is extremely strong and durable, and therefore employed in making harness for horses, clothing for men, and a variety of other

Skin, scarf See Cuticle and Skin.

Skink. See Scincus.

SKULL. The skull or cranium is that boney hox which contains the brain: it forms the foreliead, and every part of the head except the face. It consists of eight bones, namely one os frontis, one os occipitis, one os sphænoides, one os æthemoideum, two ossa temporalia, and two ossa parietalia.

Slaters. See Millepedes.

SLEEP. Somnus. That state of the body in which the internal and external senses and voluntary motions are not exercised. The end and design of sleep is both to renew, during the silence and darkness of the night, the vital energy which has been exhausted through the day, and to assist nutrition.

Sloe. See Prunus sylvestris. Smallage. See Apium. Small-pox See Variola.

SMELLING. The sense of smelling is performed by means of a soft, pulpy, vascular, papillons, porous membrane, which lines the whole internal cavity of the nostrils, and is thicker upon the septum, and principal cavity of the nose, but thinner in the sinuses. It is plentifully supplied with very soft nerves, the middle one of which descend from the first pair, through the holes of the os cribosum to the septum narium; but in such a manner, that it is very difficult to trace them to their extremities and into the septum. Other lateral nerves come from the second branch of the fifth pair and its branches, from that which crosses the pierygoid ca-nal, and from another which descends through the canals of the palate; and in the maxillary sinus from the infra orbital branch, from the dental branch, and from the anterior nerve of the palate. terior part of the septum has a twig from the oplithalmic of the first branch of the fifth pair.

The nostrils are supplied with very numerous arteries; from the three nasal both from the ethmoidal branches, and the frontal and nasal branches, with lateral arteries from the smaller ophthalmic branch of the internal carotid, and from branches of the palatine artery, and in the sinuses from the infra-orbital, and from the superior dental one. These arteries have the property of exuding blood easily, and in great quantity, without any lesion of eonsequence. The correspondent veins form a very large plexus upon the external pterygoid muscle; then communicate with the sinuses of the dura mater; and, lastly, meet in the external branch of the internal jugular. The arteries supply nourishment, warmth, and mueus.

The air, filled with the very subtile, invisible, pungent, oily, saline, and volatile effluvia, which exhale from almost every known body, being received into the nostrils, by the action of respiration, and by a peculiar effort for drawing the air into them, carries these particles to the nerves, widely naked, and constantly soft. By these there is excited in the nerves a kind of sensation which we call smell, by which we distinguish the several kinds of oils and salts, in a manner somewhat indistinct, difficultly reducible to classes, difficultly ciently for our purposes. This sense in- nostrils. forms us of unwholesome putridity, of excessive acrimony, and of the bland and useful nature of substances. And as salt, united with oil, is an object of taste, and as oils, combined with salts, constitute odours, the affinity of the two senses, which is necessary to derive utility from either, is apparent. But volatile particles chiefly are distinguished by smell, and fixed ones by the taste; perhaps because the thick mucous cutiele, spread over the tongue, intercepts the action of the more subtile salts, which easily affect the softer and less covered nerves of the nostrils. in the mineral kingdom, united with sulthis respect.

short continuance; because particles in a countries, from which it is extracted by very minute state are applied to naked running water. Thus it is found after the nerves, in the immediate vicinity of the spontaneous evaporation of the water, mixbrain. Hence the deleterious and refresh- ed with sand in the bottom of lakes in Huning actions of odonrs, by which people gary; in the neghbo thood of Bilin in Boare resuscitated from faintings, and even hemia; and in Switzerland. It occurs also from drowning. Hence the violent sucez- in China, and near Tripole in Syria, Egypt, ing, excited by acrid particles, the evacu- Persia, and India. It frequently oozes out ation of the bowels, by the smell of purga- of walls and crystallizes on their surface. tives, and the power of antipathies. Hence Like potash, it is procured by lixiviation the pernicious effects of excessive sneez- from the aslies of burnt plants, but only ing, more especially blandness, from the from those which grow upon the sea shores. great sympathy of the nerves. Amongst The variety of plants employed for this the various parts of the nostrils, the sep- purpose is very considerable. In Spain, tum, and the ossa turbinata, and their and soda is procured from the different species terior portions, especially form the organ of the salsola, solicornia and batis maritima. of smell: since these parts are multiplied. The zostera maritima is burnt in some pla-

in quick-scented animals, forming beautiful spires in quadrupeds; and in fish, being distributed in parallel laminæ elegantly ton hed.

SMILAX. (From σμιλευω, to cut; so called from the roughness of its leaves and stalk.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Dioecia. der, Octandria. Rough bind-weed.

SMILAX, CHINA. The systematic name of the China root tree. See China.

SMILAX, CHINESE. See China.

SMILAX SARSAPARILLA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the sarsaparilla. See Sursuparilla.

SMYRNION HORTENSE. The wort has been so termed. See Imperato-

SMYRNIUM OLUSATRUM. The systematic name of the plant called Alexanders. See Hipposelinum.

Snarl. See Limax.

Snukeroot, Virginian. See Serpentaria Virginiana.

Smalseeded glasswort. See Salsola kuli.

Snukeweed See Bistorta.

Snakewood. See Colubrinum lignum.

Sneezewort See Ptarmica.

SNEEZING. A convulsive action of the recalled to the memory, nevertheless suffi- muscles of the chest from irritation of the

Sunff See Micotiana. Soap. See Sapo.

Soup berry See Suponaria nucule. Soupwort. See Suponaria.

Socotorine aloes. An epithet of the best aloes which are brought from Socotria. See Alloes.

SODA. (An Arabian word.) The name now generalty given by chemists and physicians to the mineral alkali.

It is obtained from several sources, but principally from plants growing on the sea coast. See Natron and Barilla. It occurs We are ignorant of the reasons why some phuric, muriatic, and boracic acids; it is smells please, and others displease; per- also found in large quantities in Egypt, haps eustom may have some influence in combined with carbonic acid. It appears to be deposited in large impure masses, The action of smells is strong, but of under the surface of the earth, in various

ses on the borders of the Baltic. In this country we burn the various species of fuci; and in France they burn the chenopodium maritimum.

The alkali thus procured is more or less pure according to the nature of the particular plant from which it is obtained. The greatest part however is a subcarbonate of

In order to obtain it in a state of purity, the carbonate of soda must be treated, like potash of commerce, with lime and ardent

cularly from potash by the following pro- of perties:—In the fire it is rather more fusible. When exposed to the contact of the air it attracts water and carbonic acid, but it does not liquify like potash, it merely acquires a pasty consistence, and at last crumbles into powder. It is not altered by light. It attracts sulphur and sulphurated hydrogen more feebly. It adheres less strongly to the acids. It fuses and dissolves alumine more easily. All its other properties, its volatilization by a very high degree of heat, its acrid causticity, its solubility, its combinations with sulphur, &c. resemble those of potash,

Mr. Davy, having discovered the composition of potassa, submitted soda likewise to the same modes of analysis, and discovered that it too contains a substance of very singular properties, analagous to the base of potassa, though still essentially different from it, and that this base com-

bined with oxygen forms soda. When soda was submitted to the Galvamic action, in the mode already described with regard to potassa, the results were similar, globules of a metallic appearance were produced at the negative surface, which often burnt at the moment of their formation, and sometimes exploded with violence, separating into smaller globules which darted through the air in a state of vivid combustion. When these were produced an aëriform fluid was disengaged at the positive surface, which proved to be pure oxygen. The reproduction of soda from this substance was similar to that of potassa from the base of the alkali. When the base of soda was exposed to the air, a crust of alkali formed on its surface, and oxygen was absorbed. When heated, confined in a portion of oxygen gas, a rapid combustion with a brilliant white flame took place, and soda was produced in the state of a solid white mass. The theory of the decomposition of soda is the same with that of potassa. The combustitrified surfaces; and the oxygen follows the contrary order. Hence their separation

and evolution.

From the results of the combustion of the base of soda in oxygen gas, Mr. Davy inferred that one hundred parts of soda consist of eighty of base and twenty of oxygen. From the results of its oxidation by the decomposition of water, the proportions were estimated to be seventy-seven of base and twenty-three of oxygen. The mean proportions of these two modes are 78.5, and 21.5. The base of soda therefore combines with rather a larger proportion of oxygen than the base of potassa.

To the base of soda Mr. Davy from its Properties of Soda. - Soda differs parti- analogy to the metals has given the name

## SODIUM.

The following are its properties:-

Sodium is white, opaque, and, when examined under a film of naphtha, has the lustre and general appearance of silver. It is exceedingly malleable, and is much softer than any of the common metallic substances. When pressed upon by a platina blade, with a small force, it spreads into thin leaves, and a globule of the onetenth or one-twelfth of an inch in diameter is easily spread over a surface of a quarter of an inch, and this property does not diminish when it is cooled to 32° Fahren-

It conducts electricity and heat in a similar manner to the basis of potassa; and small particles of it inflame by the Galvanic spark, and burn with bright explosions.

Its specific gravity is less than that of water. It swims in oil of sassafras of 1.096 water being one, and sinks in naphtha of specific gravity 861 By mixing together oil of sassafras and naphtha, until a fluid was formed in which the globule of sodium remained at rest above or below, Mr. Davy found its specific gravity to be to that of water nearly as nine to ten, or more accurately as 9348 to 1.

Sodium has a much higher point of fusion than potassim, its parts begin to lose their cohesion at about 120° Fahrenheit, and it is perfectly fluid at about 180°, so that it readily fuses under boiling naphtha, it is also less volatile, it remains fixed in a state of ignition at the point of fusion of plate glass.

When sodium is exposed to the atmosphere it immediately tarnishes, and by degrees becomes covered with a white crust, which deliquesces much more slowly than the substance that forms on the basis of potassa. This crust is pure soda.

The basis of soda combines with oxygen slowly without any luminous appearance, at common temperatures, and, when heated, ble base, like other combustible substant this combination becomes much more ruces, is repelled by positively electrified pid, but no light is emitted until it has acsurfaces, and attracted by negatively elec- quired a temperature nearly that of ignition. The flame that it produces in oxygen gas is white, and it sends forth bright sparks, occasioning a very beautiful effect;

colour of that produced during the com- derable degree of heat. It makes an albustion of charcoal, but much brighter.

violent effervescence with a loud hissing noise, it combines with the oxygen of the water to form soda, which is dissolved, and its hydrogen is disengaged. In this operation there is no luminous appearance; of mercury and sodium seems to form tribut when it is thrown into hot water, the decomposition is more violent, and in this case a few scintillations are observed at the triple compound of a dark grey colour. surface of the fluid, owing to small particles of the base, which are thrown out of of a combination of acetous acid with the the water sufficiently heated to burn in passing through the atmosphere. when a globule is brought in contact with a small particle of water, or with moistened paper, the heat produced (there being no medium to carry it off rapidly,) is usually sufficient for the ascension of the sodium. carbonas.

The base of soda, when thrown upon the strong acids, acts upon them with great tron, Barilla and Soda. energy. When nitrous acid is employed, a vivid inflammation is produced: with muriatic and sulphuric acid there is much leat generated, but no light. When plunged soda. Alkali minerale phosphoratum ed beneath the surface of the acids, it is rapidly oxigenated; soda is produced and

combines with the acid.

Sodium, in its degrees of oxidation, has precisely similar habits with the base of potassa. When it is fused with dry sodain certain quantities, there is a division of scrophula, bronchecele, rachitis, and gout, oxygen between the alkali and the base, and a deep brown fluid is produced, which becomes a dark grey solid on cooling, and which attracts oxygen from the air, or which decomposes water, and becomes subcarbonus exsicenta.

The same body is often formed in the analytic processes of decomposition, and it is generated when the basis of soda is fuscel in tubes of the purest plate glass.

Sodium, when heated with hydrogen gas, does not, like potassium, appear to be dis- ounces; supertartrate of potash, powdersolved, and as no luminous appearance attends the oxidation of it in cold water, it Dissolve the supercarbonate of soda in the docs not appear to be capable of combining even with nascent hydrogen.

There is scarcely any difference in the visible phenomena of the agencies of the basis of soda, and that of potassa on sul-

phur, phosphorus, and the metals.

It combines with sulphur in close vessels filled with the vapour of naphtha with great vividness, with light, heat, and often with explosion from the vaporization of a portion of sulphur, and the disengagement of and it has been judged by the London Colsulphuretted hydrogen gas. The sulphu- lege more convenient to express this differretted base of sulphur is of a deep grey ence by the adjective tartarizata, than to colour. The phosphuret has the appear-introduce the three words necessary to its ance of lead, and forms phosphate of soda description. It possesses mildly cathartic, by exposure to the air, or by combustion, diuretic, and deobstruent virtues, and is

Sodium combines with the metals; in the administered in doses from one drachm to quantity of one-fortieth, it renders mercury an ounce, as a cathartic, and in the dose of a fixed solid of the colour of silver, and twenty to thirty grains in abdominal phys-

in common air it burns with light of the the combination is attended with a consiloy with tin, without changing its colour, When thrown upon water it produces a and it acts upon gold and lead when heated. In its state of alloy it is soon converted into soda by exposure to air, or by the action of water, which it decomposes with the evolution of hydrogen. The amalgam ple compounds with other metals. It likewise combines with sulphur, and forms a

SODA ACETATA. A neutral salt formed mineral alkali Its virtues are similar to

And those of the acetate of potash. SODA BORAXATA See Borax.

Soda, carbonate of See Soda carbonas.
Soda hispanica. See Barilla

SODA HISPANICA PURIFICATA. See Soda

Soda impuna. Impure soda.

SODA MURIATA. See Murias soda. SODA MURIATICA. See Murias soda.

of Bergman. This preparation is a phosphat of soda, and therefore called phosphas sode in the new chemical nomenclature. It is cathartic in the dose of half an ounce to an ounce; dissolved in gruel it is not unpleasant, and is said to be useful, in

in small doses.

Soda, subcarbonate of. See Sodæ subcarbonas.

Soda, subcarbonate of, dried See Sode Soda, sulphate of. See Soda sulphas.

SODA TARTARIZATA. Tartarized

soda, formerly known by the names of sal rupellensis, sal polychrestum Seignetti, and lately by that of natron tartarizatum. "Take of subcarbonate of soda twenty cd, two pounds; boiling water ten pints." water, and add gradually the supertartrate of potash; filter the solution through paper, and evaporate it until a pellicle forms upon the surface; then set it by that crystals may form. Having poured away the water, dry these crystals upon bibulous paper. This salt consists of tartaric acids, soda, and potash, the soda only combining with the superabundant acid of the super salt; it is therefore a triple salt.

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conia, and torpidity of the kidneys. See paper. It possesses cathartic and diuretic Seignet e's salt.

SODÆ BORAS. Borate ol' soda. See Borux.

SODÆ CARBONAS. Carbonate of "Take of subcarbonate of soda, a pound; subcarbonate of ammonia, three ounces; distilled water, a pint." Having previously dissolved the soda in water, add the ammonia, then by means of a sandbath apply a heat of 180° for three hours, or until the ammonia be driven off. Lastly, set the solution by to chrystallize. The remaining solution may be evaporated and set by in the same manner that crystals may aga n form.

SODÆ MURIAS. See Murias sodæ. SODE SUBCARBONAS. Subcarbonate of soda, formerly called natron praparatum and salsoda. "Take of impure soda, powdered, a pound; boiling distilled water, a gallon." Boil the soda in the water for half an hour, and strain the solution; let the solution evaporate to two pints, and be set by, that crystals may form. Throw away the remaining solution. This salt consists of soda saturated with carbonic acid, and is therefore called soda subcarbonas. It is given in doses of from ten grains to half a drachm as an attenuant and antacid; and, joined with bark and aromatics, it is highly praised by some in is sometimes so termed. See Dulcamara. the cure of scrophula. It is likewise a Solanum melongena. The systematic powerful solvent of mucus, a deobstruent and diuretic, and an antidote against oxyd of arsenic and the corrosive sublimate. of the garden nightshade. The other diseases in which it is administered are those arising from an abundance of mucus in the primæ viæ; calculous complaints, gout, some affections of the skin, rickets, tinea capitis, crusta lactea, and worms. Externally it is recommend-

SODÆ SUBCARBONAS EXSICCATA. Dried subcarbonate of soda. "Take of subcarbonate of soda, a pound." Apply a gentle heat to the soda in a clean iron vessel, until it becomes perfectly dry, and constantly stir it with an iron rod. Lastly, reduce it into powder. Its virtues are similar to those of the subcarbonate.

ed by some in the form of lotion, to be ap-

plied to scrophulous ulcers.

SODÆ SULPHAS. Sulphate of sodæ, commonly known by the name of natron vitriolatum, and formerly by sal catharticus Glauberi, "Take of the salt which remains after the distillation of muriatic acid, two pounds. Boiling distilled water, two pounds and a half." Dissolve the salt in water, then add gradually as much subcarbonate of soda as may be required to saturate the acid; boil the solution away until a pellicle forms upon the surface, and, after having strained it, set it by that crystals may form Having poured away the water, dry these crystals upon bibulous vessels.

qualities, and is in high esteem as a mild Soda, tartarized. See Sodo tertarizata, cathartic. It is found in the mineral king. dom formed by nature, but that which is used medicinally is prepared by art dose is from one drachm o one ounce.

SOL. The sun. Gold was so called by

the older chemists.

Solamen. (From solor, to comfort.) Anise-seed is named solamen intestinorum, from the comfort it affords in disorders of the intestines.

(From solanum, night-SOLANOIDES. shade, and sidos, likeness.) Bastard night. shade.

SOLANUM. (From solor, to comfort, because it gives ease by its stupifying qualities.) 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentan-dria Order, Monogynia. Nightshade

2. The pharmacopæial name of the solanum nigrum of Linnæus; its virtues are very nearly allied to those of the belladon-

na, which consult.

SOLANUM DULCAMARA. The systematic name of the bitter sweet. See Dulcamara.

The thorn-apple SOLANUM FEETIDUM. plant is sometimes so called. See Stramo.

SOLANUM LETHALE. See Atropha belladonna.

SOLANUM LIGNOSUM The bitter sweet

name of the mad apple plant. See Mad apple. SOLANUM NIGRUM. The systematic name See Sola-

The systematic SOLANUM SANCTUM. name of the Palestine nightshade. fruit of this plant is globular, and in Egypt much eaten by the inhabitants.

SOLANUM TUBEROSUM. See Potatoe.
SOLANUM VESICARIUM. The winter cherry plant is so called by Caspar Baulin.

See Alkekengi.

SOLDANELLA. (A solidando, from its uses in healing fresh wounds.) The sea convolvulus. See Brassica marina.

Solen. (Swarr.) A tube or channel. A cradle for a broken limb.

Solenarium. (Dim of σωλην, a tube.) A catheter.

SOLEUS. (From solea, a sole, from its shape being like the sole fish.) See Gastrocnemius internus.

(From solido, to make SOLIDAGO. firm; so called from its uses of consolidating wounds.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. The herb comfrey

Solidago VIRGAUREA. The systematic name of the golden rod. See Virga aurea.

SOLIDS, in anatomy, are the bones, ligaments, membranes, muscles, nerves, and

Source (From solus, alone; so called because it infests the body singly) The tape-worm.

Solomon's SEAL. The convallaria polygo-Useful as an ontward application for broises; dried and powdered is said to be antidysenteric, and if beaten into a conserve with sugar whilst it is green, is recommended in leucorrhea.

Solskarium (From sol, the sun, and sequer, to follow, so called because it turns its flowers towards the sun.) Marygold or

turnsole.

SOLVENT Sec Menstruum,

SOLUTION. An intimate commixture of soud bodies with fluids, into one seemingly homogeneous liquor. The dissolving fluid is called a mensirium or solvent,

SOLUTIVA. (From solvo, to loosen.) Laxative medicines. Gentle purgatives.

Somnambulism. Sleep-walking. Sce Oneirodynia.

Sounifena. (From somuns, sleep, and fero, to bring.) Opiates; medicines which induce sleep.

Sonchires. (From σογχος, the sowthistle; so named from its resemblance to the souchus.) The herb hawkweed

SONUHUS. (Παρα το σωον χεειν, from its wholesome juice.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, The sowthistle. All the species of sonchus abound with a milky juice, which is very bitter, and said to possess duretic virtues. sonchus oleraceus of Lannæus is sometimes employed with that intention. Boiled it may be eaten as a substitute for cabbage.

The systematic Sonchus oleraceus, name of the sow-thistle. See Sonchus.

Soor, Fuligo. A volatile matter, arising from coals, wood, and other fuel, along with the smoke. It is used as a material for making muriate of ammonia. At no very remote period our dispensatories contained directions for a tineture of soot; the most material ingredient of which, however, was assafœtida.

Sornia. (From copoc, wisc; so named from its great virtues in stopping fluxes.)

Flix-weed or flux-weed.

SOPHIA CHIRURGORUM. This plant, Sisymbrium sophia of Linnaus, is now almost banished from practice. It was formerly in high estimation in the cure of wounds. It has been given internally in hysterical affections and uterine hæmorrhages, and the seeds are said to be efficacious in destroying intestinal worms

SOPHISTICATION. A term employed in pharmacy, to signify the counterfeiting or adulterating any medicine. This practice unhappily obtains with most dealers in drugs, &c.; and the cheat is carried on so artificially by many as to prevent a discovery even by persons of the most discerning faculties.

Sophonisteres. (From σοφεονίζω, to become wise; so called bec use they do not appear till after puberty.) The last of the grinding teeth.

Sopnora HEPTAPHYLLA. The systematic name of the shrub whose root and seeds are sometimes called anticholerica: they are both intensely bitter, and said to be

useful in cholcra, colic, and dysury. Sopientia. (From sopio, to make sleep ) Opiates.

SOPOR Profound sleep.

SOPORIFEROUS. (Soporifera medicamenta. From sopor, sleep, and fero, to bear.) A term given to those medieines which induce sleep. See Anodynes.

Sona. (Arab.) The nettle-rash.

SORBASTRELLA. (From sorbeo, to suck up, because it stops hamorrhages.) The herb

SORBUS. (From sorbeo, to suck up; because its fruit stops fluxes.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Icosandria. Order, Trigynia. The service-tree

Source Aucuparta. The wild service. tree. The berries of this plant are adstringent, and, it is said, have been found serviceable in allaying the pain of calculous

affections in the kidneys.

SORDES. When the matter discharged from ulcers is rather viscid or glutinous, it is thus named. This matter is frequently of a brownish red colour, somewhat resembling the grounds of coffee, or grumous blood mixed with water: Sordes, Sanies, and Ichor, are all of them much more fetid than purulent matter, and none of them are altogether free from acrimony; but that which is generally termed Ichor is by much the most acrid of them, being frequently so sharp and corrosive as to destroy large quantities of the neighbouring parts.

Sore-BAY. A disease which Dr. Mosely considers as a true cancer, commencing with an ulcer. It is endemic at the Bay of

Honduras.

Sove-throat. See Cynanche. Sorrel, common. See Acetosa. Sorrel, French. See Rumex scutatus. Sorrel, roundleaved. See Rumex scuta-

Sorrel wood. See Lujula.

SOUND. An instrument which surgeons introduce through the urethra into the bladder, to discover whether there is a stone in this viscus or not.

Sour dock. See Acetosa

Southernwood. See Abrotanum.

Sow-bread. See Arthonita. Sow-breed See Cyclamen.

SPA WATER. This mineral water appears to be a very strongly acidulous chalybeate, containing more iron and carbonic acid than any other mineral spring What applies to the use of chalybeates will anply to this water.

Spain, pellitory of. See Pyrethrum. Spanish fly. See Cantharides. Spanish liquorice. See Glycirhiza.

SPARGANOSIS. (From onagyaw, to swell.)

A milk abcess

SPARTIUM. The name of a genus of eye fixed. plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Diadelphia. Order, Decandria.

SPARTIUM SCOPARIUM. The systematic name of the common broom. See Ge-

SPASM. (Spasmus, from oraw, to draw.) A spasm or convulsion An involuntary contraction of the muscular fibres, or that state of the contraction of muscles which is not spontaneously disposed to alternate When the contractions with relaxation. alternate with relaxation, which are frequently and preternaturally repeated, they are called convulsions. Spasms are distinguished by authors into clonic and tonic spasms. In clonic spasms, which are the true convulsions, the contractions and relaxations are alternate, as in epilepsy; but in affections of the lungs, prima via, kidin tonic spasms the member remains rigid, as in locked jaw. See Convulsion, Tonic spasm, and Teranus.

SPASMI. Spasmodic diseases. third order of the class neuroses of Cullen; characterised by a morbid contraction or cle and ovary, as the spermatic artery,

motion of muscular fibres.

Spasmodic colic. See Colica.

a spasm, and holos, a discourse.) A trea-

tise on convulsions.

SPASMUS CYNICUS. The spasmus cynicus, or sardonic grin, is a convulsive affection of the muscles of the face and lips on both sides, which involuntarily forces the muscles of those parts into a species of grinning distortion. If one side only be affected, the disorder is nominated tortura When the masseter, buccinator, temporal, nasal, and labial muscles, are involuntarily excited to action, or contorted by contraction or relaxation, they form a species of malignant sneer. It sometimes arises from eating hemlock, or other acrid poisons, or succeeds to an apoplectic and sides, a likeness; because it is fixed in stroke.

инан, a probe.) An edged probe.

SPATULA. (Dim. of spatha, a broad instrument.) An instrument for spreading called from its wedge-like situation amidst salve. Also a name of the herb spurge- the other bones of the head, is of a more wort, from its broad leaves.

Spearmint See Mentha sativa. Spearwort, water. See Flammula.

SPECIFIC. A remedy that has an infallible efficacy in the cure of disorders. The any thing it resembles more. existence of such remedies is doubted

Specialum. (Prom specio, to examine.)

SPECULUM ANI. An instrument for distending the anus whilst an operation is performed upon the parts within.

ment to assist in any manual operation be-

longing to the womb.

SPECULUM OCULI. (Speculum, from specio, to view.) An instrument used by oculists to keep the eyelids open and the

An instrument to SPECULUM ORIS.

force open the mouth.

SPECULUM VENERIS. See Millefolium.

Speech See Voice.

Speedwell, female. See Elatine. Speedwell, male. See Veronica. Speedwell, mountain See Veronica.

SPERMA-CETI. (From omspua, seed, a oneipw, to sow, and cete or cetus, the whale.) Cetaceum. An oily, concrete, crystalline, semi-transparent matter, obtained from the cavity of the cranium of several species of whales, but principally from the Physeter maero cephalus, or spermaceti whale It was formerly very highly esteemed, and many virtues were attributed to it; but it is now chiefly employed neys, &c. as a softening remedy, mixed with mucilages It is also employed by surgeons as an emollient in form of cerates, ointments, &c.

SPERMATICA. Belonging to the testi-

chord and veins.

SPERMATOCELE. (From σπερματο. Spasmology. (Spasmologia, from σπασμος, κηλη, from σπερμα, seed, and κηλη, a tumour.) Epididymis distensa. A swelling of the testicle or epididymis from an accumulation of semen. It is known by a swelling of those organs, pain extending to the loins without inflammation.

SPERMATO PŒETICA. (From σπερμα, and ποιεω, to make.) Medicines which increase

the generation of seed.

(From σφακελιζω, SPHACELISMUS. to gangrene.) A gangrene. Also a phre-

SPHACELUS. (From equan, to destroy.) A mortification of any part. See

Gangrene.

SPHÆNOIDES OS. (From ophy, a wedge, the cranium like a wedge.) Os cuneiforme, SPATHOMELE. (From onadh, a sword, and os multiforme. Os azygos. Papillare os. Basilare os. Os polymorphos. Pierygoid bone. The os splienoides, or coneiforme, as it is irregular figure than any other bone. It has been compared to a bat with its wings extended. This resemblance is but faint, but it would be difficult perhaps to find

We distinguish in this bone its body or middle part, and its wings or sides, which are much more extensive than its

body.

Each of its wings or lateral processes is divided into two parts. Of these the up-SPECULUM MATRICIS. An instru- permost and most considerable portion,

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helping to form the deepest part of the The two latter are frequently united into ten poral fossa on each side, is called the one. temporal process. The other portion makes a part of the orbit, and is therefore named noides, immediately under the sella turthe orbitar process. The back part of each cica, we find two cavities, separated by a wing, from its running out sharp to meet thin bony lamella. These are the sphethe os petrosum, has been called the spi- noidal sinuses. They are lined with the nous process; and the two processes, which pituitary membrane, and, like the frontal stand out almost perpendicular to the ba- sinuses, separate a mucus which passes sis of the scull, have been named pterygoid into the nostrils. In some subjects there or aliform processes, though they may be is only one cavity; in others, though more said rather to resemble the legs than the rarely, we find three. wings of the bat. Each of these processes

In infants the os sphenoides is composed
bas wo plates and a middle fossa facing of three pieces, one of which forms the
backwards; of these plates the external body of the bone and its pterygoid proone is the broadest, and the internal one cesses, and the other two its lateral prothe longest. The lower end of the intercesses. The clinoid processes may even nal plate forms a kind of hook, over which then be perceived in a cartilaginous state, passes he cound tendon of the musculus though some writers have asserted the circumf xus palati. Besides these, we ob- contrary; but we observe no appearance serve a sharp middle ridge, which stands of any sinus. out from the middle of the bone. The fore ceived into the vomer.

The cavities observable on the external surface of the bone, are where it helps to noidalis. The sphænoidal and ethmoidal form the temporal, nasal, and orbitar fossæ, sutures are those which surround the It has likewise two tossæ in its pterygoid many irregular processes of these two processes. Behind the edge, which sepa- bones, and join them to each other and to rates these two fossæ, we observe a small the rest groove, made by a branch of the superior maxillary nerve in its passage to the tem- flexus. poral muscle. Besides these, it has other depressions, which serve chiefly for the

origin of muscles.

Its foramina are four on each side. The three first serve for the passage of the optic, superior maxillary, and inferior maxillary nerves; the fourth transmits the largest artery of the dura mater Op each side we observe a considerable fissure, which, from its situation, may be called the superior orbitar fissure. Through it pass the third and fourth pair of nerves, a branch of the fifth, and likewise the sixth up.) The name of several muscles, whose pair. Lastly, at the basis of each ptery- office is to shut or close the aperture around roid process, we observe a foramen which which they are placed. is named pterygoidean, and sometimes Vidian, from Vidius who first described it. of Albinus and Douglas. Through it passes a branch of the exter- news of Winslow, and coccigio-cutané-spincnal carotid, to be distributed to the ter of Dumas. A single muscle of the anus, nose

affords three fossx. Two of these are of the urethra, by which it assists in ejectconsiderable ones; they are formed by the ing the urine and semen. It arises from lateral processes, and make part of the the skin and fat that surrounds the verge lateral processes, and make part of the the skin and fat that surrounds the verge lesser fosse of the basis of the skull. The of the anus on both sides, near as far as third, which is smaller, is on the top of the body of the bone, and is called sella turcica, from its resemblance to a Turkish saddle. In this the pituitary gland is It is inserted by a narrow point into the placed. At each of its four angles is a perineum, acceleratores urine, and transprocess. They are called the clinoid processes, and are distinguished by their situation into anterior and posterior processes. ation into anterior and posterior processes. mination.

Within the substance of the os sphe-

This bone is connected with all the bones part of it, where it joins the nasal lamella of the cranium, and likewise with the ossa of the ethmordal bone, is thin and straight; maxillaria, ossa malarum, ossa palati, and the lower part of it is thicker, and is re- vomer. Its uses may be collected from the description we have given of it.

SPHÆNOIDAL SUTURE. Sutura sphæ-

Sphæno-salpingo-staphilinus. See Circum-

Sphæno-staphilinus. See Levator palati.

SPHERITIS. (From opagea, a globe; so called from its round head.) Spheroce-phalia elatior. Spherocephalus. The globethistle.

SPHEROCEPHALUS. See Sphæritis.

SPHEROMA, (From opaiga, a globe.) A fleshy globular protuberance.

SPHENO-MAXILLARIS. An artery and a fissure of the orbit of the eye is so called.

SPHINCTER. (From opinion, to shut

SPHINCTER ANI.

Sphincter externus Sphincter cutawhich shuts the passage through the anus The os sphenoides on its internal surface into the rectum, and pulls down the hulb Sphincter ani cutaneus. See Sphincter

Sphincter ani externus. See Spincter ani.

SPHINCTER ANI INTERNUS. Albinus and Douglas call the circular fibres of the muscular coat of the rectum, which surrounds its extremity, by this name.

SPHINCTER CUTANEUS. See Sphincter

ani.

SPHINCTER EXTERNUS. See Sphincter ani

SPHINCTER GULÆ. The muscle which contracts the top of the throat.

SPHINCTER LABIORUM. See Orbicularis aris

SPHINCTER ORIS. See Orbicularis oris.

SPHINCTER VAGINÆ. cunni of Albinus. clitoris of Douglas, and wullo-syndesmo-clitoridien of Dumas. This muscle arises diuretic and menagogue, and useful in from the sphincter ani and from the posterior side of the vagina near the perineum; from thence it runs up the side of the vagina, near its external orifice, opposite to the nymphæ, covers the corpus cavernosum, and is inserted into the crus and bræ. 3. The shin-bone. body or union of the crura clitoridis. Its use is to contract the mouth of the vagina.

SPHINCONTA. (From σφιγίω, to bind.)

Ads'ringent medicines.

SPHONDYLIUM. (From omordunos, verte. bra; named from the shape of its root; or probably because it was used against the bite of a serpent called omordunis.) is supposed to be the branekursine. See Bunca ursina.

SPICA. 1. An ear of corn. 2. A ban-

dage resembling an ear of corn. Spica Brevis. Fox-tail plant.

SPICA CELTICA. See Nardus celtica. SPICA ERMINA. Common lavender. SPICA INDICA. See Nardus indica.

SPICA INGUINALIS. A bandage for rup-

tures in the groin. SPICA INGUINALIS DUPLEX. Double ban-

dage for ruptures.

SPICA MAS. Broad-leaved lavender.

SPICA NARDI. See Nardus indica.

SPICA SIMPLEX. A common roller or bandage.

SPIGELIA. (From spica, an ear of corn; so called from its spicated top.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Mono-

2. The name in some pharmacopæias for the Spigelia anthelmia of Linnxus directed as an anthelmintic; its virtues are the dissection it appeared that the bladder very similar to those of the Indian pink, laid in the middle of the os sacrum, and

paias. See Spigelia.

Spigelia Lonicera. See Spigelia marilandica.

SPIGELIA MARILANDICA. Spigelia lonicera Perennial worm-grass, or Indian pink. Spigelia marilandica of Linnaus; caule tetragono, foliis omnibus oppositis. The whole of this plant, but most commonly the root, is employed as an anthelmintic by the Indians and inhabitants of America. Dr. Hope has written in favour of this plant, in continued and remitting low worm-fevers; besides its property of destroying the worms in primæ viæ, it acts as a purgative.

Spigelian lobe. See Liver. Spignel. See Meum athamanticum. Spike. See Nardus indica.

Spikenard. See Nardus indica. SPILANTHUS ACMELLA. The systematic Constrictor name of the balm-leaved spilanthus, which Second muscle of the possesses a bitter taste and a fragrant smell. The herb and seed are said to be dropsies, jaundice, fluor albus, and calcu-

lous complaints.

SPINA. (Quasi speculina, dim. of spica.) 1. A thorn. 2. The back-bone; so called from the thorn-like processes of the verte-

SPINA ACIDA. See Berberis. SPINA ACUTA. The hawthorn.

SPINA EGYPTIACA. The Egyptian thorn or sloe-tree. See Mimosa. SPINA ALBA. The white-thorn tree.

SPINA ARABICA. The chardon or Arabian thistle.

SPINA BIFIDA. Hydrops medullæ spinalis. Hydrocele spinalis. Hydrorachitis spinosa. A tumour upon the spine of newborn children immediately about the lower vertebræ of the loins, and upper parts of the sacrum; at first, it is of a dark blue colour; but in proportion as it increases in size, approaches nearer and nearer to the colour of the skin, becoming perfectly diaphanous.

From the surface of this tumour a pellucid watery fluid sometimes exudes, and this circumstance has been noticed by different authors. It is always attended with a weakness, or, more properly speaking, a paralysis of the lower extremities. The opening of it rashly has proved quickly Talpius, therefore, fatal to the child strongly dissuades us from attempting this operation. Acrel mentions a case where a nurse rashly opened a tumour, which, as she described it, was a blood bag on the back of the child at the time of its birth, in bigness equal to a hen's egg, in two hours after which the child died. From See Spigelia marilandica.

Spigelia anthelmia. The systematic brane, which proceed from a long fissure consisted of a coat, and some strong memname of the spigelia of some pharmaco- of the bones. The extremity of the spinal marrow lay bare, and the spinal duct, in the os sacrum, was uncommonly wide, and distended by the pressure of the waters.

Upon tracing it to the head, the brain was ventositas. Teredo. Fungus articuli. found n arly in its natural state, but the throcace. Sideratio ossis. ventricles contained so much water that Gangrana ossis, and some French authors the infinidibulum was quite distended with exostosis. When children are the subjects it, and the passage between the third and of this disease, M Severinus calls it Padarfourth ventricle was greatly enlarged.

case, where a child lived about eight years occurs in the carpus and tarsus, and is labouring under this complaint, during known by a continual pain in the bone, which time it seemed to enjoy tolerable health, though pale. Nothing seemed a spongy feel, amiss in him, but such a degree of debility Spinachia. as rendered him incapable to stand on his

in the middle of the os sacrum, of the bigness of a man's fist, with little discolouring; directed for medicinal purposes in the cure and upon pressing it became less. When opened it was found full of water, and the When coats were the same as in the former, but the separation of the bones was very con- As an article of food it may be considered siderable tumour, was as small as a pack-thread, and plants. See Brassica capitata. rigid; but there were no morbid appearances in the brain.

SPINA HUHGHI MONSPELIENSIS. Ever-

green privet.

SPINA CERVINA. (So called from its thorns resembling those of the stag ) of a bone. Rhamnus catharticus. Rhamnus solutivus. Cervispina. Spina infectoria. Porging buckthorn. The fruit or berries of this which is situated close to the vertebra shrub. Rhamnus cutharticus of Lunaus :- at the posterior part of the neck and upper oicis, folis ovatis, caule erecto, have been dons, from the transverse processes of the long received into the materia medica: five or six uppermost vertebra of the they contain a pulpy deep green juice, of back, and, ascending obliquely under the a faint unpleasant smell, a bitterish, acrid, complexus, is inserted, by small tendons, nauscous taste, which operate briskly by into the spinous processes of the sixth, stool, producing thirst, dryness of the fifth, fourth, third, and second vertebræ of mouth and fances, and severe gripings, the neck. unless some diluting liquor be drank plentifully after it; at present it is rarely pre- backwards. scribed except as a drastic purge. The dose is said to be about 20 of the fresh berries in substance; twice or thrice that of Winslow and inter-epineux of Dunumber in decoction; a drachm or a drachm mas. This is the name given by Albinus and a half of the dried berries; an ounce to a tendinous and fleshy mass, which is of the expressed juice or half an ounce of situated along the spinous processes of the the rob or extract, obtained by inspissating back and the inner side of the longissimus the juice.

SPINA HIRCI. The goats-thorn of France

yielding gum tragacanth.

SPINA INFECTORIA. See Spina cervina. PURGATRIX. The purging thorn.

SPINA SOLSTITIALIS. The calcitrapa offi-

cinalis Barnaby's thistle.

SPINA VENTOSA. (The term of spi- assist in raising the spine. na seems to have been applied by the Arabians to this disorder, because it occa- loins. sions a prickling in the flesh like the punc-ture of thorns; and the epithet ventosa is so called from the spine-like processes of added, because, upon touching the tumour, the vertebræ) Spina dorsi. Columna it seems to be filled with wind, though this spinalis. Columna vertebralis. A bony is not the cause of the distention.) Spine column or pillar extending in the posterior

Ar-Cuncer ossis. throcace. A tumour arising from an inter-He likewise takes notice of another nal caries of a bone. It most frequently and a red swelling of the skin, which has

SPI

SPINACHIA. See Spinacia.

SPINACIA. (From 1672112, Spain, whence it originally came, or from its spinous the middle of the os sacrum, of the bigof phthisical complaints; made into a poultice, by boiling the leaves and adding some oil, it forms an excellent emollient. The spinal marrow, under the as similar to cabbage and other oleraccous

> The systematic SPINACIA OLERACEA.

name of spinage. See Spinacia.

SPINÆ CRATES. The spine of the back.

SPINE VENTOSITAS. A caries or decay

Spinal marrow. See Medulla spinalis.

SPINALIS CERVICIS This muscle, spinis terminalibus floribus quadrafidis di- part of the back, arises, by distinct ten-

Its use is to extend the neck obliquely

SPINALIS COLLI, See Semi-spinalis colli.

SPINALIS DORSI. Transversalis dorsi dorsi.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from the spinous processes of the uppermost vertebræ of the loins, and the lowermost ones of the back, and is inserted into the spinous processes of the nine uppermost vertebræ of the back.

Its use is to extend the vertebræ, and to

SPINALES LUMBORUM. Muscles of the

part of the trunk from the great occipital spirit of ammonia, two pints; oil of leforamen to the sacrum. It is composed of mon, oil of cloves, of each two fluid. twenty four bones called vertebra. See drachms." Mix. A stimulating antispas. Vertebræ.

SPINOSA. See Spina bifida.

SPINOSUM SYRIACUM. The

SPIRÆA AFRICANA. sweet.

(From spira, a pillar; so named from its spiral stalk.) Meadow spirit of ammonia. Formerly called spisweet. The name of a genus of plants in ritus volatilis fatidus "Take of spirit the Linnæan system. Class, Pentagynia. of ammonia, two pints; assafætida, two Order, Icosandria.

name of the officinal dropwort. See Fili. into a cooled receiver. A stimulating an-

SPIREA The ULMARIA. name of the meadow sweet.

Spiritus. This name was formerly given by chemists to all volatile nated spirit of ammonia. Formerly known substances collected by distillation. Three by the names of eau de luce: Spiritus principalkinds were distinguished: inflam- salis ammoniacæ succinatus: Liquor cormable or ardent spirits, acid spirits, and nu cervi succinatus. "Take of mastich, alkaline spirits. The word spirit is now three drachms; alcohol, nine fluiddrachms; almost exclusively confined to alcohol.

SPIRITUS ETHERIS NUTRICI. Spiritus amber, four minims; solution of ammoetheris nitrosi. Spiritus nitri dulcis. A nia, ten fluidounces." Macerate the masfebrifuge, diaphoretic, and diuretic com- tich in the alcohol that it may dissolve, SPIRITUS ÆTHERIS NITRICI. pound mostly administered in asthenia, and pour off the clear tincture, to this add nervous affections, disuria, and calculous the remaining articles, and shake them

affections.

SPIRITUS ÆTHERIS VITRIOLICI. ritus vitrioli dulcis. spasmodic, and tonic preparation, mostly cine, and is employed internally and exterexhibited in nervous debility and weakness nally against spasms, hysteria, syncope, of the primæ viæ.

An excellent stimulating and drachm. stomachic compound, which is administered in debility of the stomach and nervous Formerly called spiritus anisi compositus:

sires. A stimulating anodyne, supposed rit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent to be the celebrated liquor mineralis an-empyreuma." Macerate for 24 hours, and odynus of Hossiman. It is exhibited in see distil a gallon by a gentle fire. A stimuvers, nervous affections, hysteria, &c.; lating carminative and stomachic calcuand in most cases of sever where medicines lated to relieve flatulency, borborygmus,

Spirit of ammo- to a drachm. SPIRITUS AMMONIE. Formerly called spiritus salis am-"Take of rectified spirit, two pints; solu- called spiritus raphani compositus: Aqua tion of ammonia, a pint." Mix. A sti- raphani composita. "Take of horse-radish mulating antispasmodic exhibited in cases root, fresh and sliced, dried orange peel, of asphyxia, asthenia, and in nervous dis- of each a pound; nutmegs, bruised, half an eases, but mostly used as an external sti- ounce; proof spirit, a gallon; water suffimulant against rheumatism, sprains and cient to prevent empyreuma." Macerate

ritus salis volatilis oleosus

modic and sudorific in very general use to smell at in faintings and lowness of Syrian spirits. It is exhibited internally in nervous affections, hysteria, and weakness of African meadow the stomach. The dose is from half a drachm to a drachm.

SPIRITUS AMMONIÆ FŒTIDUS. ounces" Macerate for twelve hours, then SPIREA FILIPENDULA. The systematic by a gentle fire distil a pint and a half tispasmodic, often exhibited to children systematic against convulsions, and to gouty and See Ulma- asthmatic persons The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to a drachm.

SPIRITUS AMMONIÆ SUCCINATUS. oil of lavender, fourteen minims; oil of together. This preparation is a compound Spi- succinate of ammonia. It is much es-A diaphoretic, anti- teemed as a stimulant and nervine medivertigo, and the stings of insects. The SPIRITUS ETHERIS VITRIOLICI AROMA. dose is from ten minims to half a fluid-

SPIRITUS ANISI. Spirit of aniseed. Aqua seminum anisi composita. "Take of SPIRITUS ÆTHERIS VITRIOLICI COMPO- aniseed, bruised, half a pound; proof spiare rejected by the stomach, this is of in-finite service. colic, and spasmodic affections of the bow-els. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm

SPIRITUS ARMORACIÆ COMPOSITUS. Com-Spiritus salis ammoniaci. pound spirit of horse-radish, formerly for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle SPIRITUS AMMONIÆ AROMATICUS. Aro- fire. A very warm stimulating compound matic spirit of ammonia. Formerly known given in gouty, rheumatic, and spasmodic by the name of spiritus ammonia compo- affections of the stomach and in scorbutic situs: Spiritus volatilis aromaticus: Spi- disorders. The dose is from half a fluid-"Take of drachm to half an ounce.

SPIRITUS CAMPHORIE. Spirit of camphor. Formerly known by the names of spiritus camphoraius: Spiritus vinosus camphoratus: Spritus vini camphoratus: " Take of camphor, four onuces; rectified spirit, two pints." Mix, that the camphor may be dissolved. A stimulating medicine, used as an external application against chilblains, rhenmatism, palsy, numbness, and gangrene.

SPIRITUS CARUL Spirit of carraway. Pormerly called aqua seminum carui. " Take of carraway-seeds, bruised, a pound and half; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyrcuma. Maccrate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire The dose is from a fluiddrachm to half an ounce.

SPIRITUS CINNAMONI. Spirit of cinna-Formerly called agua cinnamomi mon. spirituosa. Aqua cinnamomi fortis. "Take of ciunamon bark, bruised, a pound; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Macerate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire. Spirit of connamon is mostly used in conjunction with other carminatives to give a pleasant flavour; it may be exhibited alone as a carminative and stimulant. The dose is from a fluiddrachm to half an ounce.

SPIRITUS CORNU CERVI, See Liquor carbonutis ammouix

SPIRITUS JUNIPERI COMPOSITIES, Compound spirit of jumper. Formerly called aqua juniperi composita. "Take of jumperberries, bruised, a pound; carraway-seeds, bruised, fennel-seeds, bruised, of each an ounce and half; water sufficient to prevent empyrcuma." Maccrate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire.

SPINITUS LAVENDULE. Spirit of laven-Formerly called spiritus laveudula simplex " Take of fresh lavender flowers, two pounds; rectified spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Maccrate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire. Though mostly used as a perfume, this spirit may be given internally as a stimulating nervine and antispasmodic. The dose is from a fluiddrachm to balf an ounce.

SPIRITUS LAVENDULA COMPOSITUS. Compound spirit of lavender. Formerly called spiratus lavendule compositus matthie. " Take of spirit of lavender, three pints; spirit of rosemary, a pint; cinnamon bark, bruised, nutmegs, bruised, of each half an ounce; red saunders wood, sliced, an ounce." Macerate for fourteen days, and An elegant and useful antispasmodic, and stimulant in very general use against nervous diseases, lowness of spirits, and weakness of the stomach, taken on a lump of sugar.

SPIRITUS LUMBRICORUM. The spirit obtained by the distillation of the earthworm is similar to hartshorn.

Spirit of SPIRITUS MENTIA PIPERITA. peppermint. Formerly called spiritus menthe piperitidis: Aqua menthe piperitidis spirituosa. " Take of peppermint, dried, a pound and half; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyrcuma." Macerate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire. This possesses all the properties of the peppermint with the stimulating virtues of the spirit. from one fluiddrachm to an ounce.

SPIRITUS MENTILE VIRIDIS, Spirit of spearmint. Formerly called spiritus menthæ sativæ: Aqua menthæ vulgaris spiri-"Take of spearmint, dried, a luosa. pound and half; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Macerate for twenty-four hours, and distil a gallon. This is most commonly added to carminative or antispasmodic draughts, The dose and seldom exhibited alone. from one fluiddrachm to an ounce.

SPIRITIS MILLEPEDARUM. A fluid volatile alkali, whose virtues are similar to hartshorn.

SPIRITUS MYNDERERI. See Liquor acetatis aumonia.

Spiritus myristica. Spirit of numer. Formerly called agua nucis " Take of nutmegs, bruised, two ounces; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Maccrate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire. A stimulating and agreeable spirit possessing the virtues of the nutmeg. dose from one fluiddrachm to an ounce.

SPIRITUS NITRI DULCIS, See Spiritus ætheris nitrici.

SPIRITUS NITHI BUPLEX. The nitrous See Acidum nitrosum and Nitric

SPIRITUS NITRI FUMANS. Scc Acidum mitrosum and Nitric acid.

SPINITUS NITHI GLAUBERI. Sec Acidum nitrosum and Nitric acid.

SPIRITUS NITHI SIMPLEX. The dilute nitrous acid. Sec .Icidum nitrosum dilu-

SPIRITUS NITRI VULGARIS. This is now called acidum nitrosum dilutum.

SPIRITUS PIMENTA. Spirit of pimento. Formerly called spiritus pimento. of allspice, bruised, two ounces; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Macerate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a gentle fire. A stimulating aromatic tincture mostly employed with adstringent and carminative medicines. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to half an ounce

SPIRITUS PULEGII. Spirit of penny-roy-Formerly called aqua pulegii spirituoal. sa. " Take of pennyroyal, dried, a pound and h. lf; proof spirit, a gallen; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." M.cerate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a genule fire. This is in very general use

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as an emmenagogue amongst the lower when the stomach is empty, and smaller orders. It possesses nervine and carmina- when it is compressed, or evacuated by a tive virtues. The dose is from half a fluid- full stomach. drachm to half an ounce.

SPIRITUS RECTOR. Boerhaave and other chemists give this name to a very attenuated principle, in which the smell of odorant bodies peculiarly resides. Now called aroma.

SPIRITUS RORISMARINI. Spirit of rose-"Take of rosemary tops, fresh, a pound and half; proof spirit, a gallon; water sufficient to prevent empyreuma." Macerate for 24 hours, and distil a gallon by a entle fire. A very fragrant spirit, mostly employed for external purposes in conjunction with other resolvents.

SPIRITUS SALIS AMMONIACI AQUOSUS. See

Liquor carbonatus ammoniæ.

SPIR TUS SALIS AMMONIACI DULCIS. Spiritus ammonia.

SPIRITUS SALIS AMMONIACI SIMPLEX. See Liquor carbonatus ammonia.

SPIRITUS SALIS GLAUBERI. See Acidum muriaticum

SPIRITUS SALIS MARINI. See Acidum muriaticum.

SPIRITUS VINI RECTIFICATUS. See Alkohol. Rectified spirit of wine is in general use to dissolve resinous and other medicines. It is seldom exhibited internally, though it exists in the diluted state in all vinous and spirituous liquors.

SPIRITUS VINI TENUIOR. Proof spirit, which is half the strength of rectified, is much employed for preparing tinctures of genuine resinous juices, barks, roots,

SPIRITUS VITRIOLI. See Sulphuric acid. SPIRITUS VITRIOLI DULCIS. See Spiritus

ætheris vitriolici.

ritus ammoniæ fætidus. Spissamentum. (From spisso, to thick- branches of the eighth pair, and the great en.) A substance put into oils and oint- intercostal nerve. ments to make them thick.

Spitting of blood. See Hamatemesis and creeping along the surface of the human

hæmoptysis.

(From σπλαγχνον, SPLANCHNICA. intestine.) Remedies for diseased bow-

SPLANCHNOLOGIA. (From σπλαίχvov, an entrail, and holos, a discourse.) Splanchnology, or the doctrine of the vis- gestion.

SPLANCHNIC NERVE. The great intercostal nerve. See Intercostal nerve.

SPLEEN. Σπλην. Lien. The spleen or milt is a spongy viscus of a livid colour, and so variable in form, situation, and magnitude, that it is hard to determine either. Nevertheless, in a healthy man it is always placed on the left side, in the left spleen.) Inflammation of the spleen. A hypocondrium, between the eleventh and genus of disease in the class pyrexic and twelftli false ribs. Its circumference is order phlegmasia of Cullen; characterized oblong and round, resembling an oval by pyrexia, tension, heat, tumour, and

It should particularly be remembered of this viscus, that it is convex towards the ribs, and concave internally: also, that it has an excavation, into which vessels are inserted.

It is connected with the following parts: 1. With the stomach, by a ligament and short vessels. 2. With the omentum, and the left kidney. 3. With the diaphragm, by a portion of the peritonaum. 4 With the beginning of the pancreas, by vessels. 5. With the colon, by a ligament.

In man the spleen is covered with one simple, firm membrane, arising from the peritonæum, which adheres to the spleen, very firmly, by the intervention of cellular

See structure.

The vessels of the spleen are, the splenic artery comin from the celiac artery, which, considering the size of the spleen, is much larger than is requisite for the mere nutrition of it. This goes by serpentine movements, out of its course, over the puncreas, and behind the stomach, and after having given off branches to the adjacent parts, it is inserted into the concave surface of the spleen. It is afterwards divided into smaller branches, which are again divided into other yet smaller, delivering their blood immediately to the veins, but emitting it no where else. The veins, at length, come together into one, called the splenic vein, and having received the large coronary vein of the stomacli, besides others, it constitutes the left principal

branch of the vena portæ.

The nerves of the spleen are small; they surround the arteries with their SPIRITUS VOLATILIS FŒTIDUS. See Spi- branches; they come from the particular plexus, which is formed of the posterior

Lymphatic vessels are almost only seen

spleen.

The use of spleen has not hitherto been determined; yet if its situation and fabric be regarded, one would imagine its use to consist chiefly in affording some assistance to the stomach during the progress of di-

Spleenwort. See Ceterach.

SPLENALGIA. (From omany, the spleen, and axyos, pain.) A pain in the spleen or its region.

Splenetica. (From oanny, the spleen.) Medicines which relieve diseases of the spleen.

SPLENITIS. (From σπλην, figure. It is larger, to speak generally, pain in the left hypochondrium, increased

by pressure. This disease, according to ed Douglas, and the generality of writers, Juncker, comes on with a remarkable shi- in describing these two portions as one vering, succeeded by a most intense heat, muscle, especially as they are intimately and very great thirst; a pain and tumour united near their origin. are perceived in the left hypochondrinm, and the paroxysms for the most part as- the head and upper vertebræ of the neck sume a quartan form; when the patients obliquely backwards; when both act, they expose themselves for a little to the free pull the head directly backwards. air, their extremities immediately grow very cold. If an hamorrhagy happen, the so called from its efficacy in disorders of blood flows out of the left nostril. The the spleen.) 1 Spleen wort. 2. A comother symptoms are the same with those of press shaped like the spleen. the hepatitis. Like the liver, the spleen often is also subject to a chronic inflammation which often happens after agues, and is also frequently given to a scirrhous tu- spleen. mour of the liver succeeding intermittents. SPLINT. A long piece of wood, tin, The causes of this disease are in general or strong pasteboard employed for premour of the liver succeeding intermittents. the same with those of other inflaminatory venting the ends of broken bones from disorders; but those which determine the moving, so as to interrupt the process by inflammation to that particular part more which fractures unite. than another, are very much unknown. Spontum. Soodier. It attacks persons of a very plethoric Dioscorides and of Galen are now not and sauguine liabit of body rather than known in the shops. It is said to have

so named from its resemblance in shape to small pieces into the fire, near the nozzle the splcen, or according to some it derives of the bellows, they blow the most fine its name from splenium, a ferula, or splint, and subtle parts against the roof of the which surgeons apply to the sides of a furnace; and what was reflected from fractured bone.) Splenius capitis and thence was called spodium. It differed splenius colli of Albinus, and cervico-dorsi- from the pompholyx in not being so pure, mastoidien et dorso-trachehen of Dumas, and in being nore heavy. Pliny distin-The splenius is a flat, broad, and oblong guishes several kinds of it, as that of cop-muscle, in part covered by the upper part per, silver, gold, and lead. of the trapezius, and obliquely situated between the back of the ear, and the lower black. and posterior part of the neck.

It arises tendinous from the four or five of dogs. superior spinous processes of the dorsal vertebræ; tendinous and fleshy from the baths. last of the neck, and tendinous from the ligamentum colli, or rather the tendons of tebra; so named from the shape of its the two splenii unite here inseparably; root, or probably because it was used but about the second or third vertebra of against the bite of a serpent called  $\sigma \pi \sigma r$ -the neck they recede from each other,  $\delta u \lambda u$ .) The herb all-heal Cow-parsnep. so that part of the complexus may be

into the transverse processes of the two vertebræ, to move every way upon one first vertebræ of the neck, sending off some another. few fibres to the complexus and levator scapulæ; tendinous and fleshy into the upper and posterior part of the mastoid

process. into two parts. Eustachius and Fallopius utility in scrophulous complaints. Sponge were aware of this; Winslow has distin- tents are employed by surgeons to dilate guished them into the superior and inferior fistulous ulcers, &c portions; and Alhinus has described them as two distinct muscles, calling that part name of the sponge. See Spongia. which is inserted into the mastoid process
and os occipitis, splenius capitis, and that Sponge tent. This is forme I by dipping which is inserted into the mastoid process

When this muscle acts singly, it draws

SPLENIUM. (From omany, the spleen;

SPLENIUS CAPITIS. See Splenius.

SPLENIUS COLLI. See Splenius.

SPLENOCELE. (From omany, the spleen is called the ague cake, though that name and waxa, a tumour.) A rupture of the

The spodium of been produced by burning cadmia alone SPLENIUS. (From onany, the spleen; in the furnace; for having thrown it in

SPODIUM ARABUM. Burnt ivory or ivory.

SPONIUM GRECORUM. The white dung

SPOLIARIUM. A private room at the

SPONDYLIUM. (From o Toy Suxos, a ver-

SPONDYLUS. Zwordon .. Some have thought fit to call the spine, or back-It is inserted, by two distinct tendons, bone thus, from the shape and fitness of the

Sponge. See Spongia.

Spinge-tent. See Spongia praparata.

SPONGIA. Emoylos, omoglia. Sponge. process, and into a ridge on the occipital A sea production, the Spongia officinalis bone, where it joins with the root of that of Linnaus; the habitations of insects. Burnt sponge is said to cure effectually This muscle may easily be separated the bronchocele, and to be of infinite

SPONGIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic

which is inserted into the vertebræ of the pieces of sponge in hot melted emplas-neck, splenius colii. We have here follow- trum ceræ compositum, and pressing

them between two iron plates. As soon as cold, the substance thos formed may be cut into pieces of any shape. It was formerly used for dilating small openings, for which it was well adapted, as when the wax melted, the elasticity of the sponge made it expand and distend the opening, in which it had been put. Mr. Cooper informs us that the best modern surgeons seldom employ it.

SPONGIA USTA. Burnt sponge. " Cut the sponge into pieces, and beat it that any extraneous matters may be separated; then burn it in a close vessel until it becomes black and friable; lastly rub it to a very fine powder." This preparation is exhibited with bark in the cure of scrophulous complaints, and forms the basis of a lozenge which has been known to cure the bronchocele in many instances. The dose is from a scruple to a drachm.

SPONGIOSA OSSA. Ossa turbinata inferiora. These bones are situated in the under part of the side of the nose, they are of a triangular form and spongy appearance, resembling the os spongiosum superius; externally they are convex; internally they are concave; the convexity is placed towards the septum nasi, and concavity outwards. The under edge of Signifies that kind of myrrh which distils each bone is placed horizontally near the or falls in drops from the trees. It is also outer part of the nose, and ending in a used by some writers for a more liquid sharp point behind. At the upper part of kind of amber than what is commonly met the bone are two processes, the anterior of with in the shops; whence in Scribonius which ascends and forms part of the la- Largus, Ægineta, and some others, we crymal groove, and the posterior descends meet with a collyrium, and several other and forms a hook to make part of the max- forms, wherein this was the chief ingreillary sinus.

The connexion of this bone is to the os maxillare, os palati and os unguis by a distinct suture in the young subject; but in the adult, by a concretion of substance.

The ossa spongiosa afford a large surface for extending the organ of smell by allowing the membrane of the nose to be expanded, upon which the olfactory nerves are dispersed.

In the fœtus, these bones are almost

complete.

Sponglosum os. 1. The ethmoid bone. 2. See Spongiusu ossa

Spongoides. (Swoy Josedies, from oway. yos, a sponge, and ud , forma, a shape.) Is the some as Os cribriforme, because it is hollow and porous like a sponge or

SPORADIC. (Sporadicus, from σπειρω, to sow.) An epithet for such infectious and other diseases as seize a few persons at any time or season.

Spotted lungwort. See Pulmonaria.

fir. 2. A fermented liquor called sprocebeer prepared from the spruce fir. From the quantity of carbonic acid it contains, it is found a useful antiscorbutic.

Spurge flux See Thymulaa. Spurge laurel. See Laureola. Spurge olive. See Mexereum. Sprain. See Subluxatio.

SPUTAMEN. See Sputum.

SPUTUM. (From spuo, to spit.) Spn Saliva. Any kind of expectoration.

(From squama, a scale; SQUAMARIA. so called from its scaly roots.) The great tooth wort.

SQUAMOSE SUTURE. (Sutura squamosa; from squama, a scale; because the bones lie over each other like scales.) The suture which unites the squamose portion of the temporal bone with the parietal.

Squill See Scilla. SQUILLA. See Scilla.

Squinanthus. (From squinanthia, the quincey; so named from its uses in the quincey) Squinanthum The sweet rush was once so called See Juncus odoratus.

STACHYS. ( \Staxue, a spike; so named from its spicated stalk and seed.) wild sage. The base horehound or marrubium hispanicum.

STACHYS FETIDA. Yellow archangel.

Hedge-nettle.

STACHYS PALUSTRIS. Clown's wound-wort or all-heal.

STACTE. (STARTH, from salw, to distil.) dient, distinguished by the name of Stac-

STACTICON. Instillation. eycwater.

STAGMA. (5a/w, to distil.) Any distilled liquor. The vitriolic acid.

STALAGMUS. (From sanaja, to distil.) Distillation.

STALTICA. (From 5222w, to contract.) Healing applications.

STANNI PULVIS. Tin finely filed is exhibited internally as a vermitoge.

STANNUM. See Tin.

STAPEDIS MUSCULUS. See Stapedius.

STAPEDIUS. (Stupedius, sc. musculus; from stapes, one of the bones of the Musculus stapes of Cowper, and pyramidul-stapedien of Dumas. A muscle of the internal ear, which draws the stapes obliquely inpwards towards the cavern, by which the posterior parts of its base is moved inwards, and the anterior part out-

STAPES. (In quo pes stat.) A bone SPRUCE. 1. A particular species of of the internal ear, so called from its resemblance to a stirrup

STAPHILINUS. See Azygos uvulæ.

STAPHILINUS EXTERNUS. See Circumflex-

STAPHIS. ZTapis, is strictly a grape, or a bunch of grapes; whence from their likethings, especially the glan inlous parts of the size of a small pin's head. the body, whether natural or distem-

pered.

STAPHISAGRIA. (Σταφις αίρια, wild vine; from the resemblance of its leaves to those of the vine.) Staphys. Pedicularia. Staves acre. Delphinum staplasagria of Linnxus :- necturis tetraphyllis petalo brevioribus, foliis palmatis, lobis otusis. The seeds, which are the only parts directed for medicinal use, are usually imported here from Italy; they are large, rough, of an irregular triangular figure, and of a blackish colour on the outside, but ychowish within; their smell is disagreeable, and somewhat fetid; to the taste they are very bitter, acrid, and nauseous. It was formerly employed as a masticatory, but is now confined to external use in some kinds of cutaneous eruptions, but more especially for destroying lice and o her insects; hence by the vulgar it is called louse-wort.

STAPHYLE. (Σταφυλή. A grape o rraisin; so called from its resemblance.)

STABILLAUS. (Staphilinus, sc. musculus, from stapunn, the uvula.) See Azygos uvule

STAPHYLINUS EXTERNUS. Circum-

flexus palati.

STAPHYLINES GHECORUM. Staphylinus

sylves, vis The wild carrot.

STAPHYLOMA. (From saquan; a grape; so n. med from its being thought to resemble a grape.) Staphylosis. A disease of the eye ball in which the cornea loses its natural transparency, rises above the level of the eye, and successively even projects beyond the eye-lids, in the form of an clongated, whitish, or pearl-coloured tuniour which is sometimes smooth, sometimes uneven, and is at ended with a total loss of sight. The proximate cause is an offusion of thick humour between the lamellæ of the cornea, so that the internal and external superfices of the cornea, very much protuberates. The remote causes are, an habitual ophthalmia, great contusion, and frequently a deposition of the variolous humour in the small-pox. The species are:

1st Staphyloma totale, which occupies the whole transparent cornea; this is the most frequent species. The symptoms are, the opaque cornea protuberates, and if in the form of a cone increasing in in guitude, it pushes out and inverts the lower eye lid; and sometimes the morbid cornea is so long elongated, as to lay on the cheek, causing friction and excoria-tion. The bulb of the eye being exposed to the air, sordes generate, the inferior parpebra is irritated by the cilia, and very paintul red and small papilla are observ-

abic.

2nd. Staphyloma racemosum is a staphy-

ness thereunto it is applied to many other doma formed by carnous tubercles, about

3d. Staphyloma partiale, which occupies some part of the cornea: it exhibits an opaque tumour prominent from the cornea, similar to a small blueish grape.

4th. Staphyloma sclerotice, is a bluish tumour attached to some part of the sclerotica, but arising from the tunica albugi-

5th. Staphyloma pellucidum, in which the cornea is not thickened or incrassated, but very much extended and pel-

6th. Stuphyloma complicatum, which is complicated with an ulcer, ectropium, caruncles, or any other disorder of the

7th. Staphyloma iridis. For this species see Ptosis widis.

STAR THISTLE. The roots of this plant, Carlina acaulis of Linnaus, are said to be diuretic, and by some recommended in gravel and jaundice.

STARCH. Amylum. The fecula of

wheaten flour. See Amylum

Starch is one of the constituent parts in all mealy farinaceous seeds, fruits, roots, and other parts of plants. Our common starch is made from wheat. It is not necessary that the grain be first bruised in mills. The entire corn, well cleansed, is soaked in cold water until the husk separates; and the grains, having become quite soft, give out by pressure a milky fluid. The grains are then taken out of the water by means of a sieve, put into a coarse linen sack, and transferred into the treading-tub; where they are trodden, after cold water

has been poured upon them.

By this operation the starchy part is washed out, and mingling with the water makes it milky. The water is now drawn off, running through a sieve into the settling tub. Fresh water is again effused upon the grains, and the same operation is continued till the water in the treading-tub is no longer rendered milky. The starch here precipitates by repose from the water that held it suspended; during which, especially in a warm season, the mucilaginous saccharine matter of the flour, that was dissolved by the water, goes into the acetous fermentation. From this cause the starch grows still purer and whiter. The water is next let off from the starch, which is several times more washed with clear fresh water; the remaining part of which is suffered to drip through linen cloths sup ported by hurdles, upon which the wet starch is placed. When the starch has fully subsided, it is wrapt in, wrung between these cloths, or pressed, to extort still more of the remaining liquid.

I' is afterwards cut into pieces, which are laid in airy places on slightly burnt bricks to be completely dried, partly by the free currency of air, and partly by the which cases no conception can take place : bricks imbibing their moisture. Lastly, the outer crust is scraped off, and they are broken into smaller pieces.

In the sacks wherein the corn was trodden there remain its husks and glutinous paris; and this residuum is employed as

food for cattle.

STATICE. (From sation, to stop, so named from its supposed property of restraining hæmorrhages) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Pentagynia. The herb sea-thirst.

The systematic STATICE LIMONIUM. name of the thrift or sea frisk. See Behen

STATIONARIA FEBRIS. fever. So Sydenham called those fevers A muscle, on the anterior and lateral part which happen when there are certain ge. of the neck, which turns the head to one neral constitutions of the years, which owe side and bends it forward. It arises by two their origin neither to heat, cold, dryness, distinct origins; the anterior tendinous and nor moisture, but rather depend on a cer-fleshy, from the top of the sternum near tain secret and inexplicable alteration in the junction with the clavicle; the postethe bowels of the earth, whence the air rior fleshy, from the upper and anterior becomes impregnated with such kinds of part of the clavicle; both unite a little effluvia as subject the body to particular above the anterior articulation of the cladistempers, so long as that kind of constitution prevails, which, after a certain liquely upwards and outwards to be insert-course of years, declines and gives way ed, by a thick strong tendon, into the to another

Sturesucre. See Staphisagria.

кихи, a tuniour.) A collection of a suetty substance in the scrotum

a suetty consistence.

STEEL. Chahibs. est, finest, and closest grained iron, com- first taught that they ought to be described bined with carbon by a particular pro- as four or five distinct muscles, gave them

STELOCHITES. Sec Osteocolla.

(From 56xxw, to arise.) STELLA. star. A bandage with many crossings like a star.

STELLARIA. (From stella, a star; so named from the star-like disposition of its leaves.) Stitch-wort. Ladies mantle

STEMA. (From super, to stand.) The

Stemless milkvetch. See Astragalus ex-

capus. STENOTHORACES. (From sevos, narrow, and bagag, the chest.) Those who have

narrow chests are so called.

Barrenness, in opposi-STERILITY. tion to fertility. In women this sometimes happens from a miscarriage, or violent Its fibres run nearly in a transverse direclabour injuring some of the genital parts; but one of the most frequent causes is the don, into the inner surface of the cartilage suppression of the menstrual flux. There of the sixth rib, and lower edge of that of are other causes, however, arising from the fifth. various diseases incident to those parts; by which the uterus may be unfit to re- costales, arises tendinous from the cartilaceive or retain the male seed;-from the go ensiformis and lower part of the stertubæ fallopianæ being too short, or having num, laterally, and, running a little oblost their erective power; in either of liquely outwards, is inserted into the lower

-from universal debility and relaxation: or a local debility of the geni al system; by which theans, the parts having lost their tone, or contractile power, the semen is thrown off immediately post coitum;-from imperforation of the vagina, of the uterus, or tubæ, or from diseased ova,

STERNO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the sternum; as,

STERNO-CLEIDO HYOIDEUS. See Sterno. hyoideus.

STERNO-CLEIDO MASTOIDEUS. Sterno-mastoideus and cleido-mastoideus of Albinus. Mastoideus of Douglas and Cow. A stationary per, and terno clavio-mastoidien of Dumas. mastord process of the temporal bone, which it surrounds; and gradually becom-STEATOCELE. (From seag, suet, and ing thinner, is inserted as far back as the lambdoidal suture

STERNO COSTALES Vesalius con-STEATOMA. (From stag, suet.) An sidered these as forming a single muscle on encysted tumour, whose contents are of each side, of a triangular shape; hence we find the name of triangularis adopted by The best, hard- Douglas and Albinus; but Verheyen, who the name of sterno costales; and in this he is very properly followed by Winslow,

Haller, and Lietaud.

These muscles are situated at each side of the under surface of the sternum, upon the cartilages of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs. Their number varies in different subjects; very often there are only three, sometimes five, and even six, but most usually we find only four.

The lowermost of the sterno costales, or what would be called the inferior portion of the triangularis, arises tendinous and fleshy from the edge and inner surface of the lower part of the cartilago ensiformis, where its fibres intermix with those of the diaphragm and transversalis abdominis. tion, and are inserted, by a broad thin ten-

The second and largest of the sterno

times of the fourth rib.

The third arises tendinous from the sides of the middle part of the sternum, near the cartilages of the fourth and fifth ribs, and, ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted into the cartilage of the third rib.

The fourth and oppermost, which is the most frequently wanting, arises tendinous from the beginning of the cartilage of the third rib and the adjacent part of the sternum, and running almost perpendicularly upwards, is inserted by a thin tendon (which covers a part of the second internal intereostal), into the cartilage and beginning of the bony part of the second rib.

All these muscles are more or less intermixed with one another at their origin, and this probably occasioned them to be considered as one muscle. Fallopius inform us, that the plate Vesalius has given of them was taken from a dog, in which animal they are much larger than in man. Donglas has endeavoured to account for this difference, but his explanation is far

from being satisfactory

STERNO HYODEUS. As this mus-cle arises from the clavicle, as well as from the sternum, Winslow calls it sternocleido hyoideus It is a long, flat, and thin muscle, situated obliquely between the sternum and os hyoides, behind the lower part of the mastoideus, and covering the sterno thyroideus and the hyo thyroideus. It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from the eartilaginous part of the first rib, musele.

Its use is to draw the os hyoides down- rib. wards.

STERNO MASTOIDEUS. See Sternocleido-mastoideus.

STERNO THYROIDEUS. Sterno-thyroidien of Dumas. This is flat and thin, like er. It is situated at the fore part of the neck, between the sternum and thyroid cartilage, and behind the sterno hyoideus. It arises part of the sternum, between the eartil ges as from the clavicle where it joins with the considerable hole, large enough in some sternum. From thence, growing some-subjects to admit the end of the little finwhat narrower, it ascends, and, passing ger. Sylvius seems to have been the first

edge of the cartilage of the fifth, and some- over the thyroid gland and the cricoid cartilage, is inserted tendino is into the lower and posterior edge of the rough line of the thyroid cartilage, immediately under the insertion of the last-described muscle. Now and then a few of its fibres pass on to the os hyordes. Its use is to draw the thyroid cartilage, and consequently the larynx, downwards.

STERNUM. Pectoris os. The breastbone. The sternum os pectoris, or breastbone, is the oblong, flat bone, placed at the fore part of the thorax. The ossification of this bone in the fœtus beginning from many different points at the same time, we find it, in young subjects, composed of several bones united by cartilages; but as we advance in life, most of these cartilages ossify, and the sternim, in the adult state, is found to consist of three, and sometimes only of two pieces, the two lower portions being united into one; and very often, in old subjects, the whole is formed into one bone. But, even in the latter case, we may still observe the marks of its former divisions; so that, in describing the bone, we may very properly divide it into its upper, middle, and inferior portions.

The upper portion forms an irregular square, which without much reason, has, by many writers, been compared to the figure of a heart as it is painted on cards. It is of considerable thickness, especially at its upper part. Its anterior surface is irregular, and slightly convex; posteriorly, from the upper and inner part of the it is somewhat concave. Its upper middle sternum, from the capsular ligament that part is hollowed, to make way for the traconnects hat bone with the clavicle, and chea arteria. On each side, superiorly, commonly from a small part of the clavicle, and chear arteria. On each side, superiorly, commonly from a small part of the clavicle we observe an oblong articulating surface, itself; from thence, ascending along the covered with cartilage in the recent subanterior and lateral part of the neck, we jeet, for receiving the ends of the clavistic inferior part of the larynx, by means of a side, the bone becomes thinner, and we thin membrane, which forms a kind of observe a rough surface for receiving the times alba. After this the two muscles separate again, and each passing over the tothe inferior edge of this, we find the side of the thyroid cartilage, is inserted half of such another surface, which, cominto the basis of the oshvoides, immediate. into the basis of the os hyoides, immediate- bined with a similar surface in the middle ly behind the insertion of the last-described portion of the sternum, serves for the articulation of the cartilage of the second

The middle portion is much longer, narrower, and thinner than the former; but is somewhat broader and thinner below than above, where it is connected with the upper portion. The whole of its antethe preceding muscle, but longer and broad-rior surface is slightly convex, and within it is slightly concave. Its edges, on each side, affords four articulating surfaces, for the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs; and broad and fleshy from the upper and inner parts of articulating surfaces at its upper and lower parts, for the second and seof the first and second ribs, from each of venth ribs. About the middle of this porwhich it receives some few fibres, as well tion of the sternum we sometimes find a

who described it. Riolanus and some others after him have, without reason, supposed it to be more frequent in women than in men. In the recent subject it is closed by a cartilaginous substance; and, as it does not seem destined for the transmission of vessels, as some writers have asserted, we may, perhaps very properly, with M. Hunauld, consider it as an accidental circumstance, occasioned by an interruption of the ossification, before the whole of this part of the bone is completely ossified.

The third and inferior portion of the sternum is separated from the former by a line, which is seldom altogether obliterated, even in the oldest subjects. It is smaller than the other parts of the bone, and descends between the ribs, so as to have been considered as an appendix to the rest of the sternum. From its shape, and its being constantly in a state of cartilage in young subjects, it has been commonly named cartilago xiphoides, ensiformis, or sword-like cartilage; though many of the ancients gave the name of xiphoides to the whole sternum; comparing the two first bones to the handle, and this appendix to the blade of the sword. The shape of this appendix varies in different subjects; in some it is longer and more pointed, in others shorter and more obtuse. Veslingius has seen it reaching as low as the navel, and incommoding the motion of the trunk forwards. In general it terminates obtusely, or in a single point; sometimes, however, it is bifurcated, and Eustachius and Haller have seen it trifid. Very often we find it perforated, for the transmission of branches of the mammary artery. In the adult it is usually ossified and tipped with cartilage, but it very often continues cartilaginous through life, and Haller once found it in this state in a woman who died in her hundredth year.

The substance of the sternum, internally, is of a light, spongy texture, covered externally with a thin bony plate; hence it happens that this bone is easily fractured. From the description we have given of it, its uses may be easily understood. We have seen it serving for the articulation of seven true ribs on each side, and hence we shall find it of considerable use in respiration. We likewise observed. that it is articulated with each of the clavicles. It serves for the origin and insertion of several muscles; it supports the mediastinum; and lastly, defends the heart and lungs; and it is observable, that we find a similar bone in almost all animals that have lungs, and even in such as have no ribs, of which latter we have an instance in the frog.

STERNUTAMENTORIA. See Ptarmica.

STERTOR. A noisy kind of respiration, as is observed in apoplexy. A snoring, or snorting. STHENIA. A term employed by the followers of Dr. Brown, to denote that state of the body which disposes to inflammatory diseases in opposition to those of debility, which arise from asthenia.

STIBIALIA. (From stibium, antimony.) Antimonials. Medicines whose chief ingredient is antimony.

STIBIL ESSENTIA. Antimonial wine.

STIBIUM. (Στιβιον: from 5ιλδω, to shine.) An ancient name of antimony. See Antimonium.

STIGMA. ( $\Sigma \tau i \gamma \mu \alpha$ : from  $\pi i \zeta \omega$ , to inflict blows.) A small red speck in the skin, occasioning no elevation of the cuticle. Stigmata are generally distinct, or apart from each other. They sometimes assume a livid colour, and are then termed petechia.

STILBOMA. (From sine, to polish.) A cosmetic.

STILLICIDIUM. (From stillo, to drop, and cado, to fall) A strangury, or discharge of the urine drop by drop. Also the pumping upon a part.

STIMMI. ZTIMI, Antimony.

STIMULANTS. (Stimulantia, sc. medicamenta; from stimulo, to stir up) Medicines are so termed which possess a power of exciting the animal energy. They are divided into, 1. Stimulantia tonca, as sinapi, contharides. mercurii praparationes. 2. Stimulantia defusibilia, as alkali volatile, electricity, heat, &c. 3. Stimulantia cardiaca, as cinnamomum, nux moschata, wine, &c.

STIMULUS. Any thing which irri-

Stinking lettuce. See Lactuca graveolens.
STIZOLORIUM. The cowage is sometimes so called. See Dolichos.

STOECHAS. (From 5012ades, the islands on which it grew.) French lavender.

STOCKES ARABICA. French lavender. Spica hortulana. Stucadore. Lavendula stæchas of Lunacus. This plant is much less grateful in smell and flavour than the common lavender, to which it is allied in its properties.

STORCHAS CITHINA. See Elichrysum.

STOMACACE. (From 50 µ2, the month, and x2xco, evil.) Canker. A fetor in the mouth, with a bloody discharge from the gums. It is generally a symptom of the scurvy. It is also a name for the scurvy.

STOMACH. (The word stomachus properly belongs to the upper orifice of the stomach, though given to the whole viscus.) Ventriculus. Anocelia. Gaster. Nedys. A membranous receptacle, situated in the epigastric region, which receives the food from the cosophagus; its figure is somewhat oblong and round: it is largest on the left side, and gradually diminishes towards its lower orifice, where it is the least. Its superior orifice, where the cosophagus terminates, is called the cardia; the inferior orifice, where the intestine begins, the trulorus.

The anterior surface is turned towards the ing. An affection of the eye by which abdominal muscles, and the posterior op. person sees objects in an oblique manner, posite the lumbar vertebra. curvatures; the first is called the great Cullen arranges this disease in the class curvature of the stomach, and extends locales, and order dyscinesia. downwards, from one or fice to the other, having the omentum adliering to it; the second is the small curvature, which is also between both orifices, but superiorly and posteriorly. The stomach, like the intestinal canal, is composed of three coats, or membranes: 1. The outermost, which is very firm, and from the peritonzum. 2. The muscular, which is very thick, and composed of various muscular fibres; and, 3. The innermost, or villous coat, which is covered with exhaling and inhaling vessels, and mucus. These coats are connected together by cellular membrane. The glands of the stomach which separate the mucus are situated between the villous and mus. so called from its fibrous roots ) Dutray. cular coat, in the cellular structure. The arteries of the stomach come chiefly from the caliac artery, and are distinguished into the coronary, gastro-epiploic, and short arteries; they are accompanied by veins which have similar names, and which nerves. The lymphatic vessels are distri. smell somewhat resembling that of poppies, buted throughout the whole substance, and proceed immediately to the thoracic The use of the stomach is to excite hunger and partly thirst, to receive the food from the esophagus, and to retain it, till, by the motion of the stomach, the admixture of various fluids, and many other changes, it is rendered fit to pass the right orifice of the stomach, and afford cliyle to the intestines.

Stomach, inflammation of. Sec Gastri-

STOMACHICA PASSIO. A disorder in which there is an aversion to food, even the thought of it begets a nausea, anxiety, cardilagia, an effusion of saliva, and of an a vomiting. Fasting is more tolerable than eating; if obliged to eat, a pain follows that is worse than hunger itself.

STOMACHICS. (Stomachica, sc. medicamenta; from somazos, the stomach.) Medicines which excite and strengthen the

action of the stomach.

Stone. See Calculus. Stonecrop. See Illecebra. STORAX Trogag. See Styrax.

STOMACHUS. See Stomach.

Storax, liquid. See Liquidambra. STORAT LIRUIDA. See Liquidambra.

STORAX RUBRA OFFICINALIS. Cascarilla bark. Storax, white. See Balsamum peruvia-

STRABALISMUS. See Strabismus.

STRABISMUS. (From sealita, to squint.) Strabalismus. Strabositas. Squint-

It has two from the axis of vision being distorted. He distinguishes three species

1. Strabismus habitualis, when from a

custom of using only one eye.

2. Strabismus commodus, when one eye in comparison with the other, from greater weakness, or mobility, cannot accommodate itself to the other.

Strabismus necessarius, when some change takes place in the situation or figure of the eye, or a part of it

STRABOSITAS See Strabismus.

STRAMEN CAMELORUM. Camel's hay, or juncus odoratus.

STRAMMONIUM. See Stramonium.

STRAMONIUM. (From stramen, straw; Barryo coccalon. Solanum maniacum of Dioscorides, and Stramonium spinosum of Solanum fætidum of Bauhin. Gerard. Strammonium majus album. Common thornapple. Datura stramonium of Linnaus :pericarpirs spinosis erectis ovatis, foliis ovatis term nate in the vena porta. The nerves glabris. This plant has been long known of the stomach are very numerous, and as a powerful narcotic poison. In its re-come from the eighth pair and intercostal cent state it has a bitterish taste, and a especially if the leaves be rubbed between the fingers. Instances of the deleterious effects of the plant are numerous, more particularly of the seed. An extract prepared from the seeds is recommended by Baron Stoerck in maniacal, epileptic, and convulsive affections; and is said by some to succeed, while, in the hands of others, it has failed. In this country, says Dr. Woodville, we are unacquainted with any practitioners whose experience tends to throw light on the medical character of this plant. It appears to us, continues Dr. Woodville, that its effects as a medicine are to be referred to no other power than that of a narcotic. And Dr. Cullen, speaking on this subject, says, "I liave no doubt that narcotics may be a remedy in certain cases of mania and epilepsy; but I have not, and I doubt if any other person has, learned to distinguish the cases to which such remedies are properly adapted. It is therefore that we find the other narcotics, as well as the stramonium, to fail in the same hands in which they had in other cases, seemed to succeed. It is this consideration that has occasioned my neglecting the use of stramonium, and therefore pre-vented me from speaking more precisely from my own experience on this subject."

The extract of this plant has been the preparation usually employed, and from one to ten grains and upwards a day; but the powdered leaves, after the manner of those directed of cicuta, would seem to be

more certain and convenient. Greding found the strength of the extract to vary exceedingly; that which he obtained from Ludwig was much more powerful than that which he had of Stoerk. Externally, the leaves of stramonium have been applied to inflammatory tumours and burns, and it is said with success, and, of late, the dried leaves have been smoked as a remedy in asthma; but it does not appear that they have been more efficacious in this way than tobacco.

STRAMONIUM OFFICINALE. See Stramo-

STRAMONIUM SPINOSUM. See Stramo-

STRANGALIS. (From sear Seve, to tor-A hard painful tumour in the breast, from milk.

STRANGURY. (Stranguria. From searg, a drop, and seor, urine ) A difficulty of making water, attended with pain and dripping. See Ischuria.

STRATIOTES. (From sealos, an army; so named from its virtues in healing fresh wounds, and its usefulness to soldiers.) See Millefolium.

STRATICTICUM. See Millefolium.

Strawberry. See Fragaria.

STREATHAM WATERS. A weak purging water, drunk from one, two, or more pints in a morning.

STREMMA. (Στεεμμα; from σεεφω, to turn ) A strain, or sprain, of the parts

about a joint

STRICTURE. A diminution, or contracted state of some tube, or duct, of the body; as the æsophagus, intestines, urethra, vagina, &c. They are either organical or spasmodic.

Grinding of STRIDOR DENTIUM.

the teeth.

Strigilis. An instrument to STRIGIL. scrape off the sweat during the gymnastic exercises of the ancients, and in their baths; strigils were made of metals, horn, evory, and were curved. Some were made of linen.

STRIGMENTUM The strigment, filth, or sordes, scraped from the skin, in baths and

places of exercises.

Strophos (From seepw, to turn.) A

twisting of the injestines.

A papulous eruption STROFHULUS. pecul ar to infants, and exhibiting a variety of forms, which are described by Dr. bidus, confertus, volutions, and candidus.

1. Strophulus intertinctus, (from inter-

stantly on the cheeks, fore-arm, and back of the hand, but are sometimes diffused over the whole body. The papulæ are, in many places, intermixed with stigmata, and often with red patches of a larger size, which do not, however, occasion any elevation of the cuticle. A child's skin thus variegated, somewhat resembles a piece of red printed linen; and hence this eruption was formerly called the red gown, a term which is still retained in several counties of England, and may be found in old dictionaries. Medical writers have changed the original word for one of a similar sound, but not more significant. strophulus intertinctus has not, in general, any tendency to become pustular, a few small pustules containing a straw-coloured watery fluid, occasionally appear on the back of the hand, but scarcely merit attention, as the fluid is always re-absorbed in a short time, without breaking the cuticle. The eruption usually terminates in scurf, or exfoliation of the cuticle; its duration, however, is very uncertain; the papulæ and spots sometimes remain for a length of time, without an obvious alteration; sometimes disappear and come out again daily; but, for the most part, one eruption of them succeeds another, at longer intervals, and with more regularity. This complaint occurs chiefly within the two first months of lactation. It is not always accompanied with, or preceded by any disorders of the constitution, but appears occasionally in the strongest and most healthy children. Some authors connect it with aphthous ulcerations common in children, supposing the latter to be a part of the same disease diffused along the internal surfaces of the mouth and intestines. The fact, however, seems to be, that the two affections alternate with each other; for those infants, who have the papulous eruption on the skin are less liable to aphthæ; and when the aphthæ take place to a considerable degree, the skin is generally pale and free from eruption. The strophulus intertinctus is, by most writers, said to originate from an acidity, or acrimonious quality of the milk taken into a child's stomach, communicated afterwards to the blood, and stimulating the cutaneous excrctories. This opinion might, without difficulty, be proved to have little foun-dation. The pre-disposition to the com-Willan, under the titles of intertinctus, al- plaint may be deduced from the delicate and tender state of the skin, and from the strong determination of blood to the surtincto, ospothere and there, ) usually called face, which evidently takes place in inthe red gum, and, by the French, Efflores fants. The papulous cruption is, in many cence benigne. The papulæ characterizing cases, connected with a weak, irritable this affection, rise sensibly above the level state of the alimentary canal, and conseof the cuticle, are of a vivid red colour, quent indigestion. For if it be by any and commonly distinct from each other, means suddenly repelled from the surface, Their number and extent varies much in diarrhæa, vomiting, spasmodic affections of different cases. They appear most con- the bowels, and often general disturbance of the constitution succeed; but as soon flammation subsides. In the seventh or as it reappears, those internal complaints eighth, the strophulus conferus assumes are wholly suspended. Dr Armstrong and a somewhat different form; one or two others have particularly noted this reciplarge irregular patches appear on the arms, rocation, which makes the red guin, at shoulder, or neck; in which the papulæ times, a disease of some importance, though are hard, of a considerable size, and set in its usual form, it is not thought to be in so close together, that the whole surface is any respect dangerous. On their remarks of a high red colour. Most commonly the a necessary caution is founded, not to ex- fore arm is the seat of this eruption, the pose infants to a stream of very cold air, nor to plung them unseasonably in a cold and gradually extending upwards along bath. The most violent, and even fatal the arm. Sometimes, however, the erupsymptoms have often been the consequence of such imprudent conduct.

2. The Strophulus albidus, by some termed the white gum, is merely a variety of scrophulus intertinctus, but deserves some notice on account of the different appearance of its papulæ. In place of those described as characterizing the red gum, there is a number of minute, whitish specks, a little elevated, and sometimes, though not constantly, surrounded by a slight redness. These papulæ, when their tops are removed, do not discharge any fluid; it is, however, probable that they are originally formed by the deposition of a fluid, which afterwards concretes under the cuticle They appear chiefly on the face, neck, and breast, and are more permanent than the papulæ of the red gum. In other respects, they have the same na ture and tendency, and require a similar plan of treatment. Although a distinctive name has been applied to this eruption, when occurring alone, yet it is proper to observe that, in a great number of cases, there are red papulæ and spots intermixed with it, which prove its connexion with the strophulus intertinctus.

3. The Strophulus confertus. (From confercio, to crowd together.) An eruption of numerous papulæ, varing in their size, appears on different parts of the body in infants, during dentition, and has thence been denominated the tooth-rash. It is sometimes also termed the rank red gum It is About the fourth or lifth month after birth, an eruption of this kind usually takes place on the checks and sides of the nose, extending sometimes to the forehead and arms, but rarely to the trunk or body. The papulæ on the face are smaller, and set more closely together than in the red gum; their colour is not so vivid, but they are generally more permanent They terminate at length with slight extoliations of the enticle, and often appear again in the same places, a short time afterwards. The papula which, in this complaint, oc- frequently seen the cruption when no such casionally appear on the back or loins, eause was evident. It may, with more are much larger, and somewhat more dis- probability, be considered as one of the tant from each other, than those on the numerous symptoms of irritation arising face. They are often surrounded by an from the inflamed and painful state of the extensive circle of inflammation, and a few of them contain a semi-pellucid watery during that process, and disappears soon Auid, which is reabsorbed when the in- after the first teeth have cut the gums.

papulæ rising first on the back of the hand, tion commences at the elbow, and proceeds a little upwards and downwards on the outside of the arm. It arrives at its height in about a fortnight, the papulæ then begin to fade, and becomes flat at the top, afterwards the enticle exfoliates from the part affected, which remains discoloured, rough, and irregular, for a week or two longer

An obstinate and very painful modification of this disease takes place, though not often, on the lower extremities The papulæ spread from the calves of the legs to the thighs, nates, loins, and round the body, as high as the navel: being very numerous and close together, they produce a continuous redness over all the parts above mentioned.

The cuticle presently, however, shrivelled, cracks in various places, and finally separates from the skin in large pieces. During this process a new cuticle is formed. notwithstanding which the complaint re-curs in a short time, and goes through the same course as before. In this manner successive cruptions take place, during the course of three or four months, and perhaps do not cease till the child is one year old, or somewhat more Children necessarily suffer great uneasmess from the heat and irritation occasioned by so extensive an eruption, yet, while they are affected with it, they often remain free from any internal or febrile complaint This appearance should be distinguished from the intertrigo of infants, which exhibits an uniform, red, smooth, shining surface, without papulæ; and which affects only the lower part of the nates and inside of the thighs, being produced by the stimulus of the urine, &c. with which the child's clothes are almost constantly wetted. The strophulus confertus, where the child is otherwise healthy, is generally ascribed to a state of indigestion, or some feverish complaint of the mother, or nurse. Dr. Willan, however, asserts that he has more gums in dentition: since it always occurs

4. The Strophulus volaticus, (from volo, elevated for about a week, then gradually to fly,) is characterized by an appearance of small circular parches, or clusters of papulæ, arising successively on different parts of the body. The number of papulæ in each cluster is from six to twelve. Both the papulæ and their interstices are of a high red colour. These patches continue red, with a little heat, or itching, for about four days, when they turn brown, and begin to exfoliate. As one patch declines, another appears at a small distance from it; and in this manner the complaint often spreads gradually over the face, body, and limbs, not terminating in less than three or four weeks. During that time the child has sometimes a quick palse, a white tongue, and seems uneasy and fretful. In many cases, however, the eruption takes place without any symptoms of internal disorder. The above complaint has been by some writers denominated ignis volaticus infantum; under this title Astruc and Lorry have described one of the forms of crusta lactea, in which a successive eruption of pustules takes place on the same spot generally about the mouth or eyes, in children of different ages, and sometimes in adults. The mocula volutica infantum mentioned by Wittichius, Sennertus, and Sebizcus, agree in some respect with the strophulus volaticus; but they are described by other German authors as a species of erysipelas, or as irregular efflorescences affecting the genitals of infants, and often proving fatal. The strophulus volations is a complaint by no means frequent. In most cases which have come under Dr. Willan's observation, it appeared between the third and sixth month; in one instance, however, it occurred about ten days after birth, and continued three weeks, being gradually diffused from the cheeks and forehead to the scalp, afterwards to the trunk of the body and to the extremities; when the patches exfoliated, a red surface was left, with slight border of detached cuticle.

5. Strophulus candidus. (From candeo, to shine.) In this form of strophulus, the papulæ are larger than in any of the foregoing species. They have no inflammation round their base; their surface is very smooth and shining, whence they appear to be of a lighter colour than the adjoining cuticle. They are diffused, at a considerable diatance from each other, over the deus loins, shoulders, and upper part of the arms; in any other situation they are sel-

dom found.

year old, and most commonly succeeds lungs. The papulæ continue hard and process to the angle of the lower jaw, and

subside and disappear.

STRUMA. (From strue, to heap up.) This term is applied by some authors to scrofula, and by others to an induration of the thyroid gland, which is endemial to the Tyrolese, Swiss, and others.

STRUMEN. (From struma, a scrophulous tumour.) A herb so called from its uses

in healing strumous tumours.

STRUTHIUM. (From seudos, a sparrow; so named from the resemblance of its flowers to an unfledged sparrow.) The master-wort. See Imperatoria.

STRYCHNOMANIA. (From sguzvos, night. shade, and pavia, madness.) So the ancients called the disorder produced by

eating the deadly nightshade.

STRYCHNOS. (From Teuxw, to torment; so named from its properties of producing insanity.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system.

STRYCHNOS NUX VOMICA. The systematic name of the tree whose seed is called the

poison nut. See Nux vomica.

STRYCHNOS VOLUBILIS. The systematic name of the tree which is supposed to afford the Jesuits bean. See Faba indica.

STUPEFACIENTIA. (From stupefacio, to

stupely.) Narcotics.

STUPHA. (From 5000, to bind.) Stupa. Stuppa. A stupe; the same as fomenta-

STUPOR. (From stupeo, to be sense.

less.) Insensibility.

STUPOR DENTIUM. Commonly called teeth

STUPPA. See Stupha. Stye. See Hordeolum.

STYGIA. (From Styx, a name given by the poets to one of the rivers in hell.) A water made from sublimate, and directed in old dispensatories, so called from a supposition of its poisonous qualities. Aqua Regia is also thus sometimes called, from its corrosive qualities.

STYLIFORM. (Styliformis; from stylus, a bodkin, and formu, a likeness.) Shaped

like a bodkin, or style.

STYLISCUS. (From suxos, a bodkin.) A

tent made in the form of a bodkin.

STYLO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the styloid process of the temporal bone; as,

STYLO-CERATO-HYOIDÆUS. See Stylo-hyoi-

STYLO CHONDRO-HYOIDÆUS. See Stylo-hyoi-

STYLO.GLOSSUS. (Musculus stylo-glos-This eruption affects infants about a sus.) Stylo-glosse of Dumas. A muscle situated between the lower jaw and os some of the acute diseases to which they hyoides laterally, which draws the tongoe are liable. Dr. Willan has observed it on aside and backwards. It arises tendinous their recovery from a catarrhal fever, and and fleshy from the styloid process, and after inflammations of the bowels, or from the ligament which connects that along its sides, and is insensibly lost near

STYLO-HYOIDEUS. (Musculus stylo-hyoideus.) Stylo-hyodien f Dumas. A muscle situated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which pulls the os hyordes to one side and a little upwards

It is a small, thin, fleshy muscle, situated between he styloid process and os hyoides, under the posterior belly and middle tendon of the digastricus near the upper edge

of that muscle.

It arises by a long thin tendon, from the basis and posterior edge of the styloid process, and, descending in an oblique direc- spersed with whitish tears, somewhat like tion, is inserted into the lateral and anterior part of the os hyoides, near its horn.

The fleshy belly of this muscle is usually perforated on one or both sides, for the passage of the middle tendon of the digas-

tricus.

Sometimes, though not always, we find another smaller muscle placed before the stylo-hydideus, which, from its having nearly the same origin and insertion, and the same use, is called stylo-hyoidens-alter It seems to have been first known to Eustachius; so that Douglas was not aware of thiscircumstance when he placed it amongst the muscles discovered by himself. It arises from the apex of the styloid process, and sometimes, by a broad and thin aponeurosis, from the inner and posterior part of the angle of the lower jaw, and is inserted into the appendix, or little horn, of the os hyoides.

The use of these muscles is to pull the os lu oides to one side, and a little upwards.

STYLO-HYOIDEUS ALTER. See Stylo-hyoi

STYLO MASTOID FORAMEN. Foramen stylo-mustoidæum. A hole between the styloid and mastoid process of the temporal bone, through which the portio dura of the auditory nerve passes to the temples

STYLO-PHARYNGEUS. (Musculus style-pharyngeus.) Style-thyre pharyngien of Dumas. A muscle situated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which dilates and raises the pharynx and thyroid SUBCARBON cartilage upwards. It arises fleshy from tassæ subcarbonas the root of the styloid process, and is inserted into the side of the pharynx and back part of the thyroid cartilage.

STYMATOSIS. priapism.) A violent erection of the penis,

with a bloody discharte.

STYPTERIA. (From 5000, to bind; so called from its adstringent properties.) Alum.

STYPTICS (Medicamenta styptica, from A term given to ςυφω, to adstringe.) those substances which possess the power of stopping hæmorrhages, such as turpentine, alum, &c.

STYRACIFLUA. (From styrax, storax,

is inserted into the root of the tongue, runs and fue, to flow.) Liquid storax. Styrax

STYRAX. (From sugaž, a reed, in which it was used to be preserved.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Decandria. Order, Mono-

2 The pharmacopæial name of the Styrax calamita. Officinal storax. officinalis :- foliis ovatis, subius villosis, ra-cemis simplicibus folio brevioribus. There are two kinds of storax to be found in the shops; the one is usually in irregular compact masses, free from impurmes, of a reddish brown appearance, and intergum ammoniac, or benzoin; it is extremely fragrant, and upon the application of heat readily melts. This has been called storax in lump, red storax; and in separate tears, storax in tears. The other kind, which is called the common storax, is in large masses, very light, and bears no external resemblance whatever to the former storax, as it seems almost wholly composed of dirty saw-dust, caked together by resinous matter. Storax was formerly used in catarrhal complaints, coughs, astlimas, obstructions, &c In the present practice it is almost totally disregarded, not withstanding it is an efficacious remedy in nervous discases.

STERAX ALBA. See Balsamum peruvi-

STYRAX BENZOIN. The systematic name of the tree which affords the gum benzoin. See Benzoin.

STYRAX CALAMITA. Storax in the cane, because it was formerly brought to us in reeds, or cancs. See Surax.

STYRAX COLATA. Strained storax.

STYRAX LIQUIDA. Liquid storax. Liquidambra.

The systematic STYRAX OFFICINALIS. name of the tree which affords the solid styrax See Surax.

STYRAX RUBRA. Red storax, or in the

SUBACETAS CUPRI. See Verdigris. Subacetate of copper. See Verdigris. SUBALARIS VENA. The vein of the axilla

or arm-pit.

SUBCARBONAS POTASSÆ.

SUBCARBONAS FERRI. Sce Carbo-

nas ferri.

SUBCARBONAS PLUMBI. Subcar-(From sua, to have a bonate of lead. Cerusse. White lead. This article is made in the large way in white lead manufactories, by exposing thin shects of lead to the vapour of vinegar. The lead is curled up and put into pots of earthen ware in which the vinegar is, in such a way as to rest just above the vinegar. Hundreds of these are arranged together and surrounded with dung, the heat from which volatilizes the acetic acid, which is decomposed by the lead, and an

imperfect carbonate of lead is formed, sublimo, to raise or sublime.) This chemiwhich is of a white colour. This prepara- cal process differs from evaporation only in tion is seldom used in medicine or surgery being confined to solid substances. It is but for the purpose of making other pre- usually performed either for the purpose parations, as the superacetate. See Pulvis of purifying certain substances, and disencerussæ compositus.

SUBCARTILAGINEUM. (From sub, under, and cartilago, a cartilage.) The hypochondrium, or part of the body which lies under have united with greater difficulty if they

the cartilages of the spurious ribs.

SUBCLAVIAN ARTERY. (From sub, treme division. under, and clavis, a key, because the clavicles were supposed to resemble the key consequently capable of being separated. of the ancients.) The right subclavian in most cases, from fixed matters, so vaarises from the arteria innominata, and rious solid bodies are subjected to a similar proceeds under the clavicle to the axilla. treatment. Fluids are said to distil, and The left subclavian arises from the arch solids to sublime, though sometimes both of the aorta, and ascends under the left are obtained in one and the same operaclavicle to the axilla. The subclavians in tion. If the subliming matter concretes their course give off the internal mammary, into a solid, hard mass, it is commonly the cervical, the vertebral, and the supe- called a sublimate; if into a powdery rior intercostal arteries.

SUBCLAVIAN VEIN, This receives the blood from the veins of the arm, and

runs into the vena cava superior.

SUBCLAVIUS (Musculus subclavius; from sub, under, and clavicula, the channel bone, as being situated under the claviele, or channel bone.) Subclavianus. Costo claviculaire of Dumas. A muscle, situated on the anterior part of the thorax, which pulls the clavicle downwards and forwards. It arises tendinous from the cartilage that joins the first rib to the sternum, is inserted after becoming fleshy into the inferior part of the clavicle, which it occupies from within an inch of the sternum as far outwards as to its connexion, by a ligament, with the carocoid process of the sca-

SUBCRURÆI. Two little muscular slips sometimes found under the crurzus; they are inserted into the capsular ligament which they pull up. The cruræus assists

in extending the leg.

SUBCUTANEOUS GLANDS. Glan-These are sebaceous dulæ subentaneæ. glands lying under the skin, which they perforate by their excretory ducts.

SUBCUTANEUS. The platysma myoides

SUBER. The cork tree. The fruit of this tree, Quercus suber of Linnaus, are much more nutritious than our acorns, and are sweet and often eaten when roasted in some parts of Spain. The bark, called cork, when burnt, is applied as an adstringent application to bleeding piles and to allay the pain usually attendant on hamor- it into the state of very fine powder by rhoids, when mixed with an ointment, the same process which has been directed Pessaries and other chirurgical intruments for the preparation of chalk. are also made of this useful bark.

floats in the middle of the urine.

Sublimate. See Oxymurias hydrargyri. SUBLIMATION.

gaging them from extraneous matters; or else to reduce into vapour, and combine. under that form, principles which would had not been brought to that state of ex.

As all fluids are volatile by heat, and

form, flowers.

The principal subjects of this operation are, volatile alkaline salts; neutral salts, composed of volatile salts and acids, as sal ammoniac, the salt of amber, and flowers of benzoin, mercurial preparations, and sulphur. Bodies of themselves not volatile are frequently made to sublime by the mixture of volatile ones, thus iron is carried by sal ammoniac in the preparations of the flores martialis, or ferrum ammoniacale.

The fumes of solid bodies in close vessels rise but a little way, and adhere to that part of the vessel where they con-

cretc.

SUBLIMIS. See Flexor brevis digitorum pedis, and Flexor sublimis perforatus.

SUBLINGUAL GLANDS. sublinguales vel Bartholiniana vel Rivini. The glands which are situated under the tongue, and secrete saliva. Their excretory ducts are called Riverian from their discoverer.

SUBLUXATIO. A sprain.

SUBMERSION. (Submersio, from sub, under, and mergo, to sink.) Drowning. A variety of the apoplexia suffocata. vages terms it asphyxia immersorum.

SUBMURIAS HYDRARGYRI. muriate of mercury. Calomelas. "Take of oxymuriate of mercury, a pound; purified mercury, by weight one ounce." Rub them together until the metallic globules disappear, then sublime; take ont the sublimed mass, and reduce it to powder, and sublime it in the same manner twice more successively. Lastly, bring

Submuriat, or mild muriat of mercury, is Sublimamentum. (From sublimo, to lift one of the most useful preparations of The pendulous substance which mercury. As an anti-venereal it is given in the dose of a grain night and morning, its usual determination to the intestines being (Sublimatio, from prevented, if necessary, by opium. It is

the preparation which is perhaps most usu- Sal succim. ally given in the other diseases in which from amber by sublimation in a gentle mercury is employed, as in affections of beat, and rises in a concrete form into the liver, or neighbouring organs, in cu- the neck of the subliming vessel. The taneous diseases, chronic rheumatism, teta- operation must not be pushed too far, nor nus, hydrophobia, hydrocephalus, and fe- by too strong a fire, otherwise the oil of brile affections, especially those of warm amber rises along with the acid. climates. It is employed as a cathartic alone, in doses from v. to xii. grains, or to cause it was thought to exude from a tree.) promote the operation of other purgatives. See Amber. Its anthelmintic power is justly celebrated; and it is perhaps superior to the so called by some authors. See Ambergriother mercurials in assisting the operation of diuretics in dropsy. From its specific gravity it ought always to be given in the form of a bolus or pill.

SUBORBITARIUS The suborbitary nerve; a branch of the fifth pair.

SUBSCAPULARIS. (Musculus subscapidaris, from sub, under, and scapula, the shoulder-blade.) Sous-scapulo trochinien of were cut in pieces.) Devil's bit. A spe-Damas. The name of this muscle sufficiently indicates its situation. It is composed of many fasciculi of tendinous and scurvy-grass. fleshy fibres, the marks of which we see imprinted on the under surface of the scapula. These faseiculi, which arise from all the basis of that bone internally, and likewise from its superior, as well as from one hal of its inferior costa, nume to form a consideral le flat tendon which adheres to the capsular tigament, and is inserted into the upper part of the lesser tuberosity at the head of the os humers.

The principal use of this muscle is to roll the arm inwards. It likewise serves to bring it close to the ribs; and, from its idhesion to the capsular ligament, it prevents cuta. that membrane from being pinched.

SUBSULTUS TENDINUM sultus, from subsulto, to leap) Weak convenience motions or twitchings of the tendons, mostly of the hands, generally observed in the extreme stages of putrid

SUBURERES. (From the two opposite prepositions sub and ex, and abera, the breasts ) Exuberes. Hath been used by some wri ers for those infants who yet suck, lia in distinction from those who are weaned, and then are called exubercs.

Successo The rob or conserve of fruit.

SUCCEDANEUM. A medicine substituted for others.

SUCCENTURIATI MUSCULL. The pyramidal muscles of the belly.

SPECENTURIATI RENES. Two glands lying rice. above the kidneys.

SUCCINAS AMMONIACA. See Spiri- Acacia Germanica. tus ammoniæ succinatus

SUCCINATE. Succinas. Salts formed Rob of clder berries. by the combination of the acid of amber, or succinic acid, with different bases; as, sweat.) Hidron. Boa. Vesicles resem-

SICCINGEUS MEMBRANA, The phragm.

SUCCINIC ACID. Acidum succinicum. labour and sweating.

The succinic acid is drawn

SUCCINUM. (From succus, juice; be-

Successed Cinereum. The ambergris is

SUCCINUM GRISEUM. The ambergris is sometimes so called. See Ambergrisea.

SUCCINUM OLEUM. See Oleum succini. Succinum PREPARATUM. Prepared amber.

See Amber.

Succisa (From succido, to cut; 10 named from its being indented and as it cies of the genus Scabiosa.

Succi sconbutici. The juice of English

Succory. See Cichorium.

Succunus. See Incubus.

SUCCUS Juice.

Succes ACACIE VERM. See Acacia veru. SUCCUS ACONITI SPISSATUS. See Aconi-

SUCCUS BACCE SAMBUCI SPISSATUS. aperient and deobstruent extract, often employed diluted with water in the cure of catarrhal affections.

SUCCUS BELLADONNE SPISSATUS. Belladonna.

SUCCUS CICUTE SPISSATES. Ci-

Succus cochliarie compositus. (Sub- warm aperient and diuretic, mostly exhi-Weak bited in the cure of diseases of the skin arising from scurvy.

Succes cyneniacus. Juice of lasser-Wort.

Succes gastrices. See Gastric juice.

Succus GLYCYRRHIZE. Spanish liquo-

Succus heliothorii. See Bezetta caru-

Succus myosciamus spissatus. See Hy.

Succes indicus rungans. Gamboge.

Succus Lacruc E VIROSE SPISSATUS. See Lactuca graveolens.

Succus Limonis spissatus See Limon. Succus LIQUORITIE. Spanish liquo-

Succus Phunorum Sylvestricm.

SUCCUS SPISSATUS BACCORUM SAMBUCI.

SUDAMINA. (Sudamen, from sudor, succinate of potash, succinate of copper, &c. bling miller seeds in form and magnitude, dia- which appear suddenly, without fever, especially in the summer-time after much

Subatio. (From sudor, sweat.) A sweat- rhoids, leucorrhœa, phagedenic ulcers, ing. See Ephidrosis

SUDATORIUM. (From sudo, to sweat.) A

stew or sweating-house.

SUDOR ANGLICUS. Called also Hydrono- drargyrus vitriolutus. ses. Hydropyretos. Gargeatio. The sweating sickness of England; an endemic fever. Dr. Cullen thinks it a species of typhus. This disorder is thus named from its first appearing in this island, and acquires the title of sudor from the patient suddenly breaking out into a profuse sweat, which forms the great character of the disease.

SUDORIFICA. (Sudorifica, sc. medicamenta, from sudor, sweat, and facio, to Hydrotica. Hydrotopsea. A synonym of diaphoretics. See Diaphoretics.

Suffimentum. (From suffimen, a perfume.) Hypocapnisma. A suffumigation,

a perfume

SUFFITUS The same.

SUFFOCATIO HYSTERICA. A convulsive affection of the throat.

SUFFOCATIO STRIDULA. The croup.

SUFFUMIGATION. (Suffumigatio, from sub, under, and fumigo, to cloke.) The burning odorous substances to remove an evil smell, or destroy miasma.

Suffusio. (From suffundo, to pour down; so called because the ancients supposed the opacity proceeded from something running under the crystalline humour.) A cataract.

SUFFUSIO AURIGNOSA. A jaundice.

Sugar. See Saccharum

Sugar of lead. See Plumbi superacetas.

Sugar of milk. A substance pr duced from whey, which, if not sour, contains a satine substance to which this name has been given.

SUGILLATION. (Sugillatio. From sugillo, to stain.) A bruise. A spot or mark made

by a leech or cupping-glass.

SULCUS. A groove or furrow; gene-

rally applied to the bones

SULPHAS. (From sulphur, brimstone.) A sulphate or salt formed by the union of the sulphuric acid with different bases.

Sulphas aluminosus. Alum. See Alumin. SULPHAS AMMONIA. Alkali volatile vitriolatum of Bergman. Jal ammoniacum secretum of Glauber. Vitriolum ammoniacale. This salt has been found native in the neighbourhood of some volcanoes. It is estcemed dirretic and deobstruent, and exhibited in the same diseases as the muriate of ammonia.

SULPHAS CUPRI. Vitriolum cupri. phas. Vitriolum caruleum. Vitriolum Romanum. Cuprum vitriolatum. The sulphat of copper possesses acrid and styptic qualities; is esteemed as a tonic, emetic, adstringent, and escharotic, and is exhibited internally in the cure of dropsies, hæmorrhages, and as a speedy emetic. Externally it is applied to stop hæmorrhages, to hæmor-

proud flesh, and condylomata.

SULPHAS FERRI. See Ferri sulphas. SULPHAS HYDRARGYRI. See Ily.

SULPHAS MAGNESIÆ Sulphas mag. nesiæ parificata. Magnesia vitriolata. Sal cathurticus amarus. Sal catharticum amarum. Suiphate of magnesia. Epsom salt. Bitter purging salt.

The sulphate of magnesia exists in seve. ral mineral springs, and in sea water.

It is from these saline solutions that the salt is obtained; the method generally adopted for obtaining it is evaporation. which causes the salt to crystallize in tetrahedral prisms. It has a very bitter taste, and is soluble in its own weight of water at 60°, and in three-fourths of its weight of boiling water. Sulphate of magnesia, when perfectly pure, effloresces; but that of commerce generally contains foreign salts, such as the muriate of mag. nesia, which renders it so dellquescent that it must be kept in a close vessel or bladder. By the action of heat it undergoes the watery fusion, and loses its water of crystallization, but does not part with its acid. One hundred parts of crystallized sulphate of m gnesia consist of 29.35 parts of acid. 17 of earth, and 53.65 of water. The alkalis, strontia, baryta, and all the salts formed by these salifiable bases, excepting the alkaline muriates, decompose sulphate of magnesia. It is also decomposed by the nitrate, carbonate and muriate of lime.

Epsom salt is a mild and gentle purgative, operating with sufficient efficacy, and in general with ease and safety, rarely occasioning any gripes or the other inconvenicnces of resinous purgatives. Six or eight drachms may be dissolved in a proper quantity of common water; or four, five, or more in a pint or quart of the purging mineral water. These solutions may likewise be so managed as to produce evacuation from the other emunctories: if the patient be kept warm they increase perspiration, and by moderate exercise in the cool air, the urinary discharge. Some allege that this salt has a peculiar effect in allaying pain, as in colic, even independently of evacuation.

It is, however, principally used for the preparation of the carbonate of magnesia. SULPHAS POTASSÆ. See Potassæ sul-

SULPHAS SODÆ. See Sodæ sulphas. SULPHAS ZINCI. See Zinci sulphas.

Sulphate. See Sulphas.

SULPHITE. Sulphis. A salt formed by the combination of the sulphureous acid with different bases: as, aluminous sulphite, ammoniacal sulphite, &c.

SULPHUR. Abric. Alcubrith. An. pater. Appebrice. Aquala. Aquila. Chibur. solves in hydrogen gas. It does not com-Chybur. Cibur. Sulphur, which is also bine with charcoal, but unites to phosphoknown by the name of brimstone, is the only simple combustible substance which nature offers pure and in abundance. It was the first known of all. It is found in the earth, and exists externally in depositions, in sublimed incrustations, and on the surface of certain waters, principally near burning volcanoes. It is found combined with many nictals. It exists in vegetable substances, and has lately been discovered in the albumen of eggs.

Sulphur in the mineral kingdom is either in a loose powder, or compact; and then either detached or in veins. It is found in the greatest plenty in the neighbourhood of volcanoes or pseudo-volcanoes, whether modern or extinct as at Solfatara, &c. and is deposited as a crust on stones contiguous to them, either crystallized or amorphous. It is frequently met with in mineral waters, and in caverus adjacent to volcanocs; sometimes also in coal-mines. It is found in combination with most of the metals. When united to iron it forms the mineral called martial pyrites, or sulphur purites. Alf the ores known by the name of pyrites, of which there are a vast variety, are combinations of sulphur with different metals; and hence the names of copper, tin, arseniacal, &c. pyrites. It exists like-wise in combination with alumine and lime; it then constitutes different kinds of vapour proceeds. schistus, or alum ores.

Physical properties.—Sulphur is a combustible, dry, and exceedingly brittle body, of a pale lemon-yellow colour. Its specific gravity is 1990. It is destitute of odour, except when rubbed or heat-vessel of cast iron, containing water, is ed. It is of a peculiar faint taste. frequently crystallizes in entire or trunented octahedra, or in needles. If a piece of sulphur of a considerable size, be very gently heated, as for example, by holding it in the hand and squeezing it firmly, it breaks to pieces with a crackling noise. It is a non-conductor of electricity, and hence When it becomes electric by friction. heated, it first softens before it melts, and its fusion commences at 180° Fahr.; at 289° it becomes volatilized, and takes fire at 302°. In the beginning of fusion it is very fluid, but by continuing the heat it grows tough, and its colour changes to a reddish brown. If in this condition it be poured into water, it remains as soft as wax, and yields to any impression. In time however it hardens again and recovers its former consistence.

It unites with most of the earths and with all alkalis, and becomes soluble, when thus combined, in water. It unites to most of the metals, and renders them brittle and fusible. It is soluble in oils; water takes up a minute quantity, as does name is nothing but sulphur finely powardent spirit by means of heat. It dis- dered.

rus by fusion.

Sulphur, like all combustible bodies burns in proportion to the quantity of oxigen which combines with it. Sulphur, beated in a close vessel, sublimes without alteration. It is not changed by exposure to air. It is attacked by the nitric acid when poured on it in its fised state.

If melted sulphur be exposed in the open air to an increase of heat, it takes fire and burns with a blue flame and suffocating vapour. The result of this combustion is sulphurcous acid According to he slow or rapid combustion, it absorbs different quantities of oxigen, and the produced acid

differs in its properties.

Method of obtaining sulphur .- A prodigious quantity of sulphur is obtained from Solfatara in Italy. This volcanic country every where exhibits marks of the acency of subterrancous fires; almost all the ground is bare, and white; and is every where sensibly warmer than the atmosphere, in the greatest heat of summer; so that the feet of persons wasking there are burnt through their shoes. It is impossible not to observe the sulphur, for a sulphureous vapour which arises through different apertures is every where perceptible, and gives reason to believe that there is a subterraneous fire underneath from which that

From pyrites sulphur is extracted in the large way by the following process:

Pyrites is broken into small pieces, and put into large earthen tubes which are exposed to the heat of a furnace. A square It connected as a receiver with the tube in the furnace. The action of the fire proceeds, and the sulphur, being thus melted, is gradually accumulated on the water in the receiver. It is then removed from this receiver, and melted in large iron ladles; in consequence of which, the earthy parts with which it was contaminated are made to subside to the bottom of the ladle, leaving the purified sulphur above. It is then again melted and suffered to cool gradually, in order to free it from the rest of the impurities. It is then tolerably pure, and constitutes the sulphur we meet with in large masses or lumps in the market.

In order to form it into rolls, it is again melted and poured into cylindrical wooden moulds, in these it takes the form in which we usually see it in commerce, as roll sulphur.

Flowers of sulphur, as they are called, are formed by subliming purified sulphur with a gentle heat in close rooms, where the sublimed sulphur is collected, though the article met with in general under that

" Method of purifying sulphur .- Take one part of flowers of sulphur, boil it in twenty parts of distilled water in a glass vessel for about a quarter of an hour; let the sulphur subside, decant the water, and then wash the sulphur repeatedly in distilled water: having done this, pour over it three parts of pure nitro-muriatic acid, diluted with one part of distilled water, boll it again in a glass vessel for about a quarter of an hour, decant the acid, and wash the sulphur in distilled water till the fluid passes tasteless, or till it does not change the blue colour of tincture of cabbage, or litmus. The sulphur thus carefully treated is pure sulphur fit for philosophical experiments.

Sulphur has been long an esteemed article of the Materia Medica; it stimulates the system, loosens the belly, and promotes the insensible perspiration. It pervades the whole habit, and manifestly transpires through the pores of the skin, as appears from the sulphureous smell of persons who have taken it, and from silver being stained in their pockets of a blackish colour. In the stomach it is probably combined with hydrogen. It is a celebrated remedy against cutaneous diseases, particularly psora, both given internally and applied externally. It has likewise been recommended in rheumatic pains, flying gout, rickets, atrophy, coughs, asthmas, and other disorders of the breast and lungs, and particularly in catarrhs of the chronic

In hæmorrhoidal affections it is almost specific; but in most of these cases it is advantageously combined with some cooling purgative, especially supertartrate of potash.

The preparations of sulphur directed to be used by the London and Edinburgh Colleges, are the Sulphur lotum, Sulphur præcipitatum, and Sulphur sublimatum

SULPHUR ANTIMONII PRÆCIPITA. TUM. Sulphur auratum antimonii. preparation of antimony appears to have rendered that called kermis mineral unnecessary. It is a yellow hydro-sulphuret of antimony, and therefore called hydro-sulphuretum stibii luteum, in the new chemical nomenclature. As an alterative and sudorific it is in high estimation, and given in diseases of the skin and glands; and, joined with calomel, it is one of the most powerful and penetrating alteratives we are in possession of.

SULPHUR AURATUM ANTIMONII. See Sul-

phur antimonii præcipitatum.

SULPHUR LOTUM. Washed sulphur. Flores sulphuris loti. "Take of sublimed the metals, and has a weak attraction to sulphur, a pound." Four on boiling water alkalis and earths. It has the property entirely washed away; then dry it. The Priestley, Bergman, Berthollet, &c. say dose is from half a drachm to two that at high temperatures it deposits suldrachms.

SULPHUR PRÆCIPITATUM. Lac sulphuris. " Take of sublimed sulphur, a pound, fresh lime, three pounds" Boil the sulphur and lime together in water. then strain the solution through paper, and drop in as much muriatic acid as may be necessary to precipitate the sulphur; lastly, wash this by repeated affusions of water until it is tasteless. This preparation is mostly preferred to the flowers of sulphur. in consequence of its being freed from its impurities. The dose is from half a drachm to three drachms.

SULPHUR SUBLIMATUM. Sublimed

sulphur See Sulphur.

Sulphurwort. See Paucedanum. Sulphurated hydrogen gas. See Hydro-

gen gas, sulphurated.

Sulphuretum. A combination of sulphur with different alkaline,

earthy, and metallic bases.

SULPHUREOUS ACID GAS. Several philosophers have paid attention to the properties of this gas, and its combinations; but Berthollet was the first who published an accurate account of it, which Fourcroy and Vauquelin, have investigated still more completely. Their paper is inserted in the Annales de Chimie, II. 54, and copied into Nicholson's Journal, vol. 1. p. 313.

When sulphur is united to oxigen it forms an acid. When the quantity of oxigen is sufficient to oxigenate a given quantity of sulphur completely, the result is a perfect acid called sulphuric acid. If a less quantity of oxigen is made use of, the result is an imperfect acid, capable of taking the gazeous state. To this gazeous fluid the name of sulphureous acid gas is given. It becomes obvious from this, that sulphureous acid gas has the same relation to sulphuric acid as phosphorous acid has to the phosphoric acid. At least this gas occupies the middle place between sulphur

and sulphuric acid.

Properties .- Sulphureous acid gas is a permanently elastic aëriform fluid at the ordina. ry pressure and temperature of our atmosphere. Its odour is strong and suffocating. It cannot maintain combustion, nor the respiration of animals. Its weight is more than double that of atmospheric air. Its specific gravity according to Bergman is 0.00246, and 0 00251, according to Lavoisier. It is not inflan mable. One hundred cubic inches of it weigh nearly 63 grains. It is composed, according to Fourcroy, of 85 sulphur and 15 oxigen. It is acid; it first reddens and then destroys the greater part of the vegetable colours. It exerts little action on so that the acid, if there be any, may be of whitening silk and giving it a lustre. phur, but Fourcroy and Vauquelin, in con-

sequence of some new experiments, deny this assertion. Phospho us has no action upon it. Its attraction for oxigen when dry, at the common temperature, is very feeble, but, if the smallest quantity of moisture be present, the union of the two gases is much favoured. At high temperatures the combination is more speedily cffected. When a mixture of sulphureous acid gas and oxigen gas is made to pass through an ignited tube, the two gases combine and sulphuric acid is formed. When passed into water cooled down to the freezing point, the union is very rapid. Water cooled to forty degrees absorbs onethird part of its weight of sulphureous acid gas. It speedily melts ice. Water saturated with it may be frozen without parting with its gas; but when water, which has been saturated with it, is exposed to heat, it is filled with a vast number of bubbles which continually increase and rise to the surface; these bubbles are the gas separating from it. It is absorbed by oil, ether, and sulphuric acid, the latter when saturated with it acquires the property of smoaking when exposed to air; its colour is altered to a yellowish brown, and its odour is penetrating like that of the gas. When the acid thus saturated with the gas is exposed a few degrees below the freezing point, in congeals or freezes into a crystalline mass. The same happens when submitted to distillation. It decomposes nitric and oxigenated muriatic acid, and dissolves camphor. Sulphurcous acid gas and hydrogen gas have no action upon cach other at common temperatures, but if they are passed through an ignited tube, a decomposition is effected. Charcoal likewise decomposes sulphureous acid gas at a high temperature. Monge and Clouet affirm that by extreme artificial cold and a strong pressure excrted at the same time, they rendered sulphurcous acid gas fluid.

Methods of obtaining sulphureous acid gas. -1. Take one part of mercury and four of concentrated sulphuric acid; put them into a glass retort connected with the pneumatic quicksilver-trough and apply the heat during the slow combustion of sulphur. of a lamp to the mixture till it boils. On continuing the heat after the mercury has been acted upon, sulphureous acid gas will

he obtained in abundance.

comes converted into an oxid; the sul- liquor, by the ammonia and sulphur pluric acid in consequence of the loss of uniting whilst in a state of gas during disoxigen, becomes converted into sulphu- tillation. It excites the action of the abreous acid, which takes the gazeous form sorbent system and diminish arterial acat the common temperature.

2. Sulphurcous acid gas may likewise be obtained by the slow combustion of sul-

Put pounded sulphur into a shallow earthen dish or crucible; melt and set fire to it; neous diseases.

and when it is completely inflamed cover it with a large bell-glass perfectly dry; remove the whole on a dish and surround the apparatus with mercury The sulphur will burn for some time, and the bell-glass will be filled with white vapour. When the vapour has subsided, the gas may be transferred as usual.

SUL.

Explanation .- During the burning of the sulphur in a confined quantity of atmospheric air, it absorbs the oxigen contained in it; this however, not being sufficient to oxigenate the sulphur completely, the result is an imperfect aëriform acid, or sul-

phureous acid gas.

3. Sulphureous acid gas may also be obtained by decomposing sulphite of potash or soda, either by heat alone, or by the affusion of acids.

4. If charcoal be moistened with sulphuric acid, and then exposed to distillation, the products are carbonic acid gas

and sulphureous acid gas.

During this operation the charcoal attracts part of the oxigen of the sulphuric acid, and forms carbonic acid gas. The sulphuric acid is therefore partly de-oxidated and becomes converted into sulphureous acid gas.

5. Sulphureous acid gas is likewise formed by distilling sulphur with the oxids of mercury, lead, tin, manganese, &c.

In these processes the sulphur attracts the oxigen of the metallic oxids, and becomes converted into sulphureous acid gas, while the oxids are partially restored to the metallic state.

Water impregnated with sulphureous acid gas forms

SULPHUREOUS ACID.

1. To prepare sulphureous acid, take one part of mercury and four of concentrated sulphuric acid, put them into a retort furnished with a receiver, and connected with Burkitt's or Pepys's apparatus. The sulphureous acid gas which is disengaged is absorbed by the water in the vessel, and constitutes sulphureous acid.

2 Sulphureous acid is likewise formed

The salts formed by the combination of sulphureous acid with different bases, are called sulphites.

SULPHUNETUM AMMONIE. Hepar sulphuris In this case a partial decomposition of volatile. Boyle's or Beguine's fuming the sulphuric acid takes place. The merspirit. Sulphuret of ammonia is obcury abstracts part of its oxigen and betained in the form of a yellow fuming tion, and is given internally in diseases arising from the use of mercury, phthisis, diseases of the skin, and phlegmasia: externally it is prescribed in the form of bath in paralysis, contractura, psora, and cuta-

SULPHURETUM CALCIS. Haper calcis. Sulphuret of lime. It is principally used as a bath in various diseases of the skin.

SULPHURETUM HYDRARGYRI NIGRUM. Sec

Hydrargyrus cum sulphure.

SULPHURETUM HYDRARGYRI RU-BRUM. Cinnabaris antimonii. Red sulphu- ricum. Oil of vitriol. Vitriolic acid. Sulret of mercury. Hydrargyrus sulphure- phuric acid consists of sulphur, which contus ruber. by weight forty ounces; sublimed sulphur, quently occurs in combination with alkalis, eight ounces" Having melted the sulphur earths, and metals; but soldom in a state over the fire, mix in the mercury, and as of purity, and whether at all, has been soon as the mass begins to swell, remove doubted. For chemical, medical, and the vessel from the fire, and cover it with other purposes, it is obtained by the rapid considerable force to prevent inflammation; combustion of sulphur and the decomposithen rub the mass into powder, and sublime. tion of metallic and earthy sulphuric acid This preparation is esteemed a mild mer- salts by fire. If melted sulphur be excurial alterative, and given to children in posed in open air to an increased heat, it small doses. In surgery its chief and alterative, is entirely consumed, and burns most only use is in the administration of with a flame, and an acid suffocating vaquicksilver by fumigation. Thus employ- pour. The sulphur is by this combustion ed it has proved extremely serviceable in changed to an acid. If the heat by which venereal cases. Ulcers and excrescences burning sulphur is consumed be only weak, about the pudendum and anus in women, its flame is blue, and the acid then geneare particularly benefited by it; and in these rated is imperfect, very volatile, and acrieases it is most conveniently applied by form. This imperfect sulphuric acid is placing a red hot heater at the bottom of the sulphureous acid. a night stool-pan, and after sprinkling on be stronger, the flame of the sulphur is it a few grains of the red sulphuret quick- white and lively, and a perfect sulphuric silver, placing the patient on the stool. To acid in the vaporous state is formed. fumigate ulcers in the throat, it is necessa- sulphuric acid may be obtained by differry to receive the fumes on the part affect- ent methods; that prepared in England is ed, through the tube of a funnel. By enclo- by the combustion of sulphur; for which sing the patient naked in a box, it has on purpose peculiar apartments, with their some occasions been contrived to fumigate insides lined with lead, are constructed, in the whole body at once, and in this way order to enclose the burning sulphur. But the specific powers of the quicksilver have because the sulphur would in that situation been very rapidly excited.

This mode of curing the lues venerea, is spoken of as true; and the subject has of weight of nitre is mingled with it to supply late years been revived in a treatise by Sa- vital air, without which no combustion can bonette, and by trials made in Bartholo-

mew's hospital.

on mercurial fumigation, concludes, that as it forms. The weak or diluted acid thus where checking the progress of the disease obtained is collected and concentrated by suddenly is an object of great moment, and evaporating the superfluous water in glass where the body is covered with ulcers or vessels. Sulphuric acid, concentrated in large and numerous eruptions, and in gethis manner, is sold under the name of neral to ulcers, fungi, and excrescences, the vapour of mercury is an application of distinguish it from another species, called great efficacy and utility; but that it is Saxon oil of vitriol, which is obtained from apt to induce a ptyalism rapidly, and great green vitriol by d's illation. Every kind consequent debility, and that for the pur- of concentrated sulphuric acid, formerly pose of securing the constitution against found in commerce, was prepared by disa relapse, as great a quantity of mercury tillation from green vitriol, or copper; and must be introduced into the system, by it is on this account that the sulphuric acid inunction, as if no fumigation had been is generally called vitriolic acid. Oil of employed.

SULPHURETUM POTASSÆ. Hepar sulphuris. sulphuratum. ret of potash. Liver of sulphur. virtues and uses of this preparation are si- phureous odour, by combustible, animal, milar to those of the sulphuretum ammo- and vegetable matter, as is usually the case

SULPHURETUM SODE. soda and sulphur.

SULPHUNETUM STIBIT NATIVUM, Sulphuretum stibii nigrum. Antimonium crudum, Native sulphuret of antimony. It is from this ore that all our preparations of antimony are made. See Antimony. SULPHURIC ACID. Acid

Acidum sulphu-"Take of purified mercury, stitutes its basis, and of oxygen. It fre-But if the heat be soon extinguished, and never burn with due vivacity, about the eighth part of its exist. Both the water at the bottom of the chamber, and also the aqueous vapours Mr. Pearson, from his experiments conveyed into it, imbibe the sulphuric acid English oil of vitriol, oleum vitrioli, to vitriol is a very strong acid, burns and Kali corrodes the skin. When pure, it has Sulphu- neither colour nor smell, but is very apt The to turn more or less brown, and of a sulwith what is sold in the shops. A combination of ric acid be highly concentrated, it congeals at a temperature of 150°, and becomes a

crystalline mass, formerly termed glacial and genu, the knee.) The patella, or kneeoil of vitriol. Mixed with water it becomes hot, and is then termed spirit of vitriol. Sulphuric acid is a powerful antisceptic and tonic: it is given, properly diluted, in the dose of from one to three drops with cinchona and other medicines in the cure of fevers and debilities, and it is often applied externally, when very much diluted, against psora and some chronic affections of the

SULPHURIS FLORES. See Sulphur sublimh-

Sulphi nous Acid. See Sulphureous acid

Sulphur, washed See Sulphur lotum.

mtatum.

Sultan flower The Centaurea moschata of Linnæns.

(Sumak, from samak, to be red; so called from its red berry.) Elmleaved sumach. This plant, Rhus coviavia of Lienzus :- foliis pinnatis obtusis, oaule serratis corolibus subtus villosis, is a small tree, a native of the south of Europe. It is singular that this is the only species of the genus rlus which is perfectly unnocent; the others being active poisons. Both the leaves and berries of this plant are used medicinally, as adstringents and tonics; the former are the most powerful, and have been long in common use, where they may be easily obtained in various complaints indicating this class of remedies. The berries, which are red, and of a roundish compressed figure, contain a pulpy matter, in which is lodged a brown, hard, oval os humeri, and tendinous and fleshy from seed, manifesting a considerable degree of the outer edge and posterior surface of the adstringency. The pulp, even when dry, ilina, adhering firmly to the ligament that is grateful, and has been discovered to joins the radius to that bone. From these contain an essential salt, similar to that of origins its fibres descend forwards and inwood sorrel. An infusion of the dried fruit wards, and are inserted into the upper, is not rendered black by a solution of iron: inner, and anterior part of the radius hence it appears to be destitute of adstrin- around the cartilaginous surface upon gency. But its acidity is extremely grate- which slides the tendon of the biceps, and ful; therefore, like many other fruits, these likewise into a ridge that runs downwards berries may be advantageously taken to and outwards below this surface, allay febrile heat, and to correct bilious

Sumach, elm leaved. See Sumach.

SIMEN. (Arab ) The lower or fat part of the belly.

Sun-dere. See Ros solis.

SUPERRUS See Rectus suberior oculi.

SUPERCILIUM See Eye-brow SUPERCULIUM VENERUS

The milfoil or yarrow was once so termed. See . Millefolium

SUPERFŒTATION. (Superfatatio, from super, above or upon, and fatus, a fætus) The impregnation of a woman already pregnant

SUPERGEMINALIS. (From super, above, and gemini, the testicles) The epididymis, or body bove the testicles.

SUPERGENUALIS. (From super, above,

Superimpregnatio. (From super, above, and impregnatio, a conception.) Superfæ-

Superior Auris. See Attollers aurem.

Superliques. (From super, above, and ligula, a little tongue, the glottis.) epiglottis.

STREEPURGATIO, (From super, beyond, and purgo, to purge.) An excessive eva-

cuation by stool.

(From super, upon, SUPERSCAPULARIS. and scapula, the shoulder blade.) A muscle

seated upon the scapula,

SUPINATION (Supinatio, from Su-Sulphur, precipitated. See Sulphur praci- pinus, placed upward ) The act of turning the palm of the hand upwards, by rotating the ralius upon the ulna.

SUPINATOR (From supinus, wards ) A name given to those muscles

which turn the hand upwards.

SUPINATOR BREVIS. See Supinator radii brevis.

SUMMATOR LONGUS. See Supinator vadii longus.

SUPINATOR RADII BREVIS. nator brevis, sive minor, of Winslow, and epicondylo radial, of Dunias. This small muscle, which is tendinous externally, is situated at the upper part of the fore-arm under the supinator longus, the extensor carpi radialus brevis, the extensor carpi ulnaris, the extensor digitorum communis,

and the extensor minimi digiti.

It arises tendinous from the lower and anterior part of the outer condyle of the

This muscle assists in the supination of the hand by rolling the radius outwards.

SUPINATOR RADII LONGUS pinator longus of Albinus. Supinator longus sive major of Winslow, and humero sus radial of Dumas A lone flat muscle, covered by a very thin tendinous fascia, and situated immediately under the integuments along the outer convex surface of the radius. It arises by very short tendinous fibres, from the anterior surface and outer ridge of the os humeri, about two or three inches above its external condyle, between the brachialis internus and the triceps brachii; and likewise from the anterior surface of the external intermuseular membrane, or ligament, as it is called. About the middle of the radius, its fleshy fibres terminate in a flat tendon, which is

inserted into the inner side of the inferior extremity of the radius, near the root of hang.) A suspensor; a bag, or bandage,

its styloid process.

This muscle not only assists in rolling the radius outwards, and turning the palm of the hand upwards, on which account Riolanus first gave it the name of supinator, but it likewise assists in pronation, and in bending the fore arm.

SUPPOSITORIUM. (From sub, under, and pono, to put.) A suppository, i. e. a substance to put into the rectum, there to remain and dissolve gradually.

Suppressed menses See Amenorrhaa.

SUPPURATION (Suppuratio, from suppuro, to suppurate.) That morbid action by which pus is deposited in inflammatory tumours. See Pus

A portion of the in-SUPRA COSTALES. tercostal muscles. See Intercostal muscles.

SUPRA SPINATUS. (Musculus supra-Supra spinatus seu superscapuspinatus. turis of Cowper, and sous-spino-scapulo trochiterien of Dumas. This muscle, which was first so named by Riolanus, from its situation, is of considerable thickness, wider behind than before, and fills the whole of the cavity or fossa that is above the spine of the scapula. It arises fleshy from the whole of the base of the scapula that is above its spine, and likewise from the spine itself, and from the superior cos-Opposite to the basis of the coracoid process, it is found beginning to degenerate into a tendon, which is at first covered by fleshy fibres, and then passing under the acromion, adheres to the capsular ligament of the os humeri, and is inserted into the upper part of the large tuberosity at the head of the os humeri. This muscle the head of the os humeri. is covered by a thin fascia, which adheres to the upper edge and superior part of the basis, as well as to the upper edge of the spine of the scapula. The principal use of the supra spinatus seems to be to assist in raising the arm upwards; at the same time, by drawing the capsular ligamen upwards, it prevents it from being pinched between the head of the os humeri and that of the of Linnaus. scapula. It may likewise serve to move the scapula upon the humerus.

SURA. (Arab.) The calf of the leg;

the fibula.

SURFEIT. The consequence of excess in eating or drinking, or of something unwholesome or improper in these articles. It consists in a heavy load or oppression of such with advantage. Dose half a drachm. the stomach, with nausea, sickness, im- Swietenia Mahagoni. The systematic peded perspiration, and at times eruptions name of the mahogany tree. See Mahogaon the skin.

(Chirurgia, from xsig, the SURGERY. hand, and egyor, labour.) A branch of the the science of medicine, having for its objet the cure of external diseases.

SUS SCROFA. The systematic name of the

hog which affords the lard.

Suspended animation. See Resuscitation.

SUSPENSORIUM. (From suspendeo, to to suspend the scrotum.

Suspensorium negatis. The broad liga.

ment of the liver.

Suspensorius Testis. The cremaster muscle of the testicle.

Susurrus. (From susurro, to murmur.) An imaginary sound in the ear.

SUTURE. (Satura, from suo, to join together.) Called also clavata comnissura 1. In surgery this term signifies the uniting the lips of a wound by sewing. A number of different kinds of sutures have been recommended by writers on surgery, but all of them are now reduced to two: namely, the twisted, and the interrupted, called also the knotted suture. The twisted suture is made in the following manner: having brought the divided parts nearly into contact, a pin is to be introduced from the outside inwards, and carried out through the opposite side to the same distance from the edge that it entered at on the former side; a firm wax ligature is then to be passed around it, making the figure of 8, by which the wounded parts are drawn gently into contact. The number of pins is to be determined by the extent of the wound; half an inch, or at most three quarters, is the proper distance between two pins. The interrupted suture is practised where a number of stitches is required, and the interruption is only the distance between the stitches.

2. In anatomy the word suture is applied to the union of bones by means of dentiform margins, as in the bones of the crani-See Temporal, sphenoidal, zygomatic, transverse, coronal, lambdoidal, and sarttal

sutures

Swallow wort. See Vincetoxicum. Sweat. See Perspiration. Sweating, immense. See Ephydrosis. Sweet margoram. See Marjorana. Sweet navew. See Rupus. Sweet rush. See Juncus odoratus. The Centaurea moschata Sweet sultan.

Sweet willow. See Myrtus Brabantica. SWIETENIA. (Named after Swieten.) The bark of the wood of this tree is of a red colour internally; has an adstringent bitter taste; yields its active matter to water. It has been prepared as a substitute for Peruvian bark, and has been used as

ni and Swietenia.

Swine pox See Varicella.

SYCOMA. (From ounn, a fig.) or excrescence resembling a fig.

Sycosis. The ophthalmia trachoma of Sauvages; also a fungous ulcer; and by others the tumour on the anus called marisca.

Sylvenium. Asafætida is so termed by most commonly lower than its natural some writers. See Asafatida.

SYMBLEPHARUM. (From our, with, and Brepager, the eyelid.) A concretion of the ey ha to the globe of the eye; also a concretion of the palpebra with the eyc. This chiefly happens in the superior, but very rarely in the inferior palpebra. The causes of this concretion are a bad conformation of the parts, or from ulcers of the cornea, the membrana conjunctiva, or internal superfices of the palpebræ, or imprudent scarifications, or burns, especially if the eye remains long closed. There are two species, the partial, or total; in the former the adhesion is partial, in the latter, the membrana conjunctiva and cornea are concreted together

SYMBOLE. (From συμβαλλω, to knit together.) Is said either of the fitness of parts with one another, or of the consent

nerves, and the like.

SYMBOLOGIA. (From συμβολον, a sign, and xoyor, a discourse.) The doctrine of the signs and symptoms of disease.

SYMMETHY. The exact and beautiful

proportion of parts to one another Sympathetic nerve. See Intercostal nerve. SYMPATHY. (From συμωσσχω, to suffer together, to sympathise.) Sympathia. All the body is sympathetically connected together, and dependent, the one part upom the rest, constituting a general sympathy. But sometimes we find particular parts more intimately dependent upon each other than upon the rest of the body, constituting a particular sympathy. Action cannot be greatly increased in any one organ, without being diminished in some other; but certain parts are more apt to be affected by the derangement of particular organs than others; and it was the observance of this fact which gave foundation to the old and well-known doctrine of sympathy, which was said to proceed, "tum ob communionem et similitudinem generis, tum ob viciniam." It may be thought that this position of action being diminished in one organ, by its increase, either in the rest or in some other part, is contradicted by the existence of general diseases or actions affecting the whole sys-But in them we find, in the first place, that there is always some part more affected than the rest. This local affection is sometimes the first symptom, and affects the constitution in a secondary way, either by the irritation which it produces, or by an extension of the specific action. At other action in the uterus, we diminish that of times the local affection is coevel with the the breasts, and destroy the secretion of general disease, and is called sympathetic. It is observed in the second place, that inflammation of the uterus, which is incias there is some part which is always dent to lying-in women. When the oterus

standard. From the extensive sympathy of the stomach with almost every part of the body, we find that this most frequently suffers, and has its action diminished in every disease, whether general or local, provided that the diseased action arises to any considerable degree. There are also other organs which may, in like manner, suffer from their association or connexion with others which become diseased. Thus, for instance, we see, in the general disease called puerperal fever, that the action of the breasts is diminished by the increased inflammatory action of the uterus.

In consequence of this balance of action, or general connexion of the system, a sudden pain, consequent to violent action of any particular part, will so weaken the rest as to produce fainting, and occasionally death. But this dependence appears between them by the intermediation of more evidently in what may be called the smaller systems of the body, or those parts which seem to be more intimately connected with each other than they are with the general system. Of this kind is the connexion of the breasts with the uterus of the female; of the urethra with the testicles of the male; of the stomach with the liver; and of the intestines with the stomach, and of this again with the brain; of the one extremity of the bone with the other; and of the body of the muscle with its insertion; of the skin with the parts below it.

These smaller systems, or circles, shall be treated regularly; but, first, it may be proper to observe, that these are not only intimately connected with themselves, but also with the general system, an universal sympathy being thus established.

That there is a very intimate connexion between the breast and uterus has been long known; but it has not been very satisfactorily explained. Fallopius, and all the older authors, declare plainly that the spmpathy is produced by an anastomosis of vessels; Bartholin adding, that the child being born, the blood no longer goes to the uterus, but is directed to the breast and changed into milk. But none of all those who talk of this derivation, assign any reasonable cause which may produce it.

In pregnancy, and at the menstrual periods, the uterns is active; but, when the child is delivered, the action of the uterus subsides, whilst the breasts in their turn become active, and secrete milk.

If, at this time, we should again produce milk, as is well illustrated by the case of in the effected than the rest, so also at the cessation of the menses, ceases to be is there some organ which has its action, active, or to secrete, we often find that in consequence of this, diminished lower the breasts have an action excited in them, that that of the rest of the extern and becoming slowly inflamed, and assuming

breasts seem to be a set of glands balanc-ing each other in the system, one only weakness of the testicles, or diminished being naturally active, or secreting proper- action, is induced. In those parts which ly at a time; and accordingly we seldoin, if exhibit this natural association of action. ever, find that when the uterus yields the menstrual discharge, the milk is secreted in perfection, during the continuance of this discharge, nor do we ever find them both inflamed at the same time.

The uterus has not only this connexion with the breasts, but it has also a very particular sympathy with the stomach, which again sympathises with the brain; and thus we see how a disorder of the uterus may induce an extensive series of affections, each dependent on the other.

The organs of generation in the male form likewise a little system, in which all the parts exhibit this sympathy with each other. They likewise give us a very good instance of the association of action, or sympathy, in the common acceptation of that word.

Sympathy is divided into, first, the sympathy of equilibrium, in which one part is weakened by the increased action of another; and, secondly, the sympathy of association, in which two parts act together at the same time.

The sympthy of association is produced suddenly, and for a short time. The sympathy of equilibrium is produced more slowly, and continues to operate for much longer time.

It is curious enough that most, or at least many, of those organs, which seem to be connected by the sympathy of equilibrium, exhibit likewise more or less of the sympathy of association, when under the circumstances in which this can take

The sympathy of equilibrium is seen in the effects of inflammation of the end of the urethra on the testicle; which often diminishes its action, and produces a very disagreeable sensation of dullness, or, if this inflammation be suddenly diminished, the action of the testicle is as suddenly increased, and swelling takes place. The same is seen in the connexion of the urethra with the bladder and prostate gland, as is mentioned in all the disservations on These parts likewise affect gonorrhœa. the stomach greatly, increased action in them weakening that organ much. This is seen in the effects of swelled testicle, or excessive venery, or inflamed bladder, and in a stone; all which weaken the dram drinkers, and in those who stay long stomach, and produce dyspepsia. The in warm countries and use freedoms with same remark applies to the kidney; vo- the stomach. The liver likewise sympamiting and flatulence being produced by

stance of sympathy in the common accep- puration have been often known to take tation of the word, is likewise seen in the place in the liver. connexion betwixt the glands and testicles in coition; but for this purpose, the ac- with the liver, it is also very intimately de-

a cancerous disposition. The uterus and tion in the glands must be sudden and of if the action of one part be suddenly and for a short time increased, the action of the sympathising part will likewise be increased; as we see in the instance already given of coition, and likewise in paroxysms of the stone, in which the glans penis, after making water, becomes very painful.

But if the action be more slowly induced, and continued for a long time, then this association is set aside, by the stronger and more general principle of the equilibrium of action, and the sympathising part is weakened. Hence, violent inflammation of the end of the wrethra produces a weakness and irritability of the bladder, dull-

ness of the testicle, &c.

There is also an evident sympathy of equilibrium betwixt the stomach and lower tract of intestines; which two portions may he said in general to balance each other in the abdomen. When the action of the intestines is increased in diarrhæa, the stomach is often weakened, and the patient tormented with nausea. This will be cured, not so easily by medicines taken into the stomach, as by anodyne clysters, which will abate the action of the intestines. When the intestines are inflamed, as in strangulated hernia, vomiting is a never-failing attendant.

When again the stomach is inflamed, the intestines are affected, and obstinate costiveness takes place; even in hysterical affections of the stomach, the intestines are often deranged. Injections of cold water frequently relieve these affections of the stomach, by their action of the intes-

The liver and stomach are also connected with one another. When the liver is inflamed, or has its action increased, the stomach is weakened, and dyspeptic symptoms take place. When the stomach is weakened, as, for instance, by intoxication, then the action of the liver is increased, and a greater quantity than usual of bile is secreted. The same takes place in warm climates, where the stomach is much debilitated.

If the liver has its action thus frequently increased, it assumes a species of inflammation, or becomes, as it is called, scirrhous. This is exemplified in the habitual thises with the brain; for when this organ is injured, and its action much impaired, The sympathy of association, or an in- as in compression, inflammation and sup-

Besides this connexion of the stomach

pendent on the brain, being weakened by sore, however large the discharge, when the action of the brain is increased, (which is always thin, and accompanied as we see in inflammation of that organ, with little action,) does no good, but only The brain again is affected with pain, when adds to the misery of the patient. or other causes; and this pain will be often relieved by slowly renewing the action of the stomach, by such stimuli as are natural to it, such as small quantities of soups frequently repeated. A slight increase of action in the stomach, at least if not of a morbid kind, affects the brain so as to produce sleep, diminishing its action. This we see in the effects of a full meal, and This even of a draught of warm water The stomach likewise sympath ses with the throat, squeamishness and anorexia being often produced by inflammation of the tonsils This inflammation is frequently abated by restoring or increasing the action of the stomach. Hence the throat, in slight inflammation, is frequently easier after danner; hence, likewise, the effects of emetics in cynanche.

The extremities of bones and muscles also sympathise in the same manner. When one end of a bone is inflamed, the action of the other is lessened, and pain is produced; for a painful sensation may result both from increased and diminished action. When the tendon of a muscle is inflamed, the body of that muscle often is

pained, and vice versa.

Lastly, the external skin sympathises with the parts below it. If it be inflamed, as in erysipelas, the parts immediately beneath are weakened, or have their natural action diminished. If this inflammation affect the face, or scalp, then the brain is injured; and head ache, stupor, or delirium, supervene. If it attack the skin of the abdomen, then the abdominal viscera are affected, and we have voniting and purging, or obstinate costiveness, according to circumstances. This is illustrated by the disease of children, which is called by the women the bowel-hive, in which the skin is inflamed, as they suppose, from some morbid matter within

If the internal parts be inflamed, the action of the surface is diminished, and, by increasing this action, we can lessen or remove the d sease below; as we see daily proved by the good effects of blisters. When the stomach, intestines, or kidney, have been very irritable, a sinapism has been known to act like a charm; and, in the deep seated inflammations of the breasts, howels, or joints, no better remedy is known, after the use of the lancet,

than blisters.

The utility of issues in diseases of the lungs, the liver, and the joints, is to be explained on the same principle. In these explained on the same principle. In these unite and close the lips of wounds toge-cases we find that issues do little good unther.) 1 The name of a genus of plants less they be somewhat painful, or be in the in the Linnxan system. Class, Pentandria, state of healthy ulcers. An indolent flab. Order, Monogynia.

the stomach is weakened by intoxication, may, however, err on the other hand by making the issues too painful, or by keeping them active too long, for, after they have removed the inflammatory disease below, they will still operate on these parts, lessening their action, and preventing the healing process from going on properly. This is seen in cases of curvature of the spine, where at first the inflammation of the vertebra is diminished by the issues; but, if they be kept long open after this is removed, they do harm. see the patient recover rapidly after his surgeon has healed the issue in despair, judging that it could do no farther service, but only increase the weakness of his pa-

> It is a well-established fact, that when any particular action disappears suddenly from a part, it will often speedily affect that organ which sympathises most with the part that was originally diseased. This is best seen in the inflammatory action, which, as practical writers have well observed, occasionally disappears quickly from the part first affected, and

then shews itself in some other.

From the united testimony of all these facts, Mr. Burns, of Glasgow, maintains the doctrine just delivered, and proposes to introduce it into pathological reasonings. In the whole of the animal economy, we discover marks of the wisdom of the Creator, but perhaps in no part of it more than in this, of the existence of the sympathy of equilibrium, for if a large part of the system were to have its action much increased, and all the other parts to continue acting in the same proportionate degree as formerly, the whole must be soon exhausted; (for increased action would require for its support an increased quantity of energy )

But upon this principle, when action is much increased in one part, it is to a certain degree diminished in some other, the general sum or degree of action in the body is thus less than it otherwise would be, and consequently the system suffers

SYMPHISIS. (From our, together, and φυω, to grow.) Mediate connexion. A genus of the connexion of bones, in which they are united by means of an intervening body. It comprehends four species, viz. synchondrosis, syssarcosis, syneurosis, and syndenmosis

SYMPHYTUM. (From unite; so called because it is supposed to

2. The pharmacopæial name of the consolida major. Comfrey This plant, Symphytum officinale :- folis ovatis lanceolatis decurrentibus, is administered where the althæa cannot be obtained, its roots abound. ing with a viscid glutmous juice whose virtues are similar to that of the althau.

SYMPHYTUM MACULOSUM. See Pulmona-

SYMPHYTUM MINUS. See Prunella.

SYMPHYTUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the comfrey. See Symphy-

SYNANCHE. See Cynanche.

SYNANCHICA. (From συναγχη, the quinsey; so called from its uses in that dis-

case.) Quinsey-wort.

SYNARTHROSIS. (From συν, together, and αρθρον, a joint.) Immoveable connexion. A genus of connexion of bones, in which they are united together by an immoveable union. It has three species, viz. suture, harmony, and gomphosis.

SYNASTOMOSIS Is used in the same sense

as Anastomosis.

SYNCHONDROSIS. (From our, with, and xordros, a cartilage.) A species of symphysis, in which one bone is united with another by means of an ntervening cartilage, as the vertebræ and the bones of the pubis

SYNCHONDROTOMIA (From our xordpa. sis, the symphisis of the pubis, and Temva, to cut.) The operation of dividing the

symphisis of the pubis.

SYNCHYSIS. (From συίχυω, to confound.) A solution of the vitreous humour into a fine attenuated aqueous fluid. In Cullen's Nosology it is a variety of his species caligo pupilla.

SYNCIPITIS OSSA. See Parietal bones.

SYNCIPUT. The forepart of the era-

SYNCOPE. (Prom our, with, and nowla, to cut, or strike town.) Animi deliquium. Leipothymia. Fainting or swooning. A genus of disease in the class neuroses and order adynamic of Cullen, in which the respiration and action of the heart either cease, or become much weaker than usual, with paleness and coldness, arising from diminished energy of the brain, or from organic affections of the heart. Species: 1. Syncope cardiaca, the cardiac syncope, arising without a visible cause, and with violent palpitation of the heart, during the intervals, and depending generally on concretion and coarctation of the pupilsome organic affection of the heart or It is known by the absence of the pupil, neighbouring vessels. 2 Syncope occa- and a total loss of vision. sionalis, the existing cause being mani- are:

SYNCOPE ANGINOSA.

a ligament, and nofes, a discourse.) The found. doctrine of the ligaments.

SYNDESMO-PHARYNGEUS. See Constrictor phoryngis medius

SYNDESMOSIS. (From ourdes mos, a ligament.) That species of symphisis or mediate connexion of bones in which they are united by ligament, as the radius with the ulna.

SYNDESMUS. (From ourdew, to bind to.

gether ) A ligament.

SYNECHIA. Durexia. A concretion of the iris with the cornea, or with the capsule of the crystalline lens. The proximate cause is the contact from inflamma. tion or adhesion of these parts, the consequence of inflammation. The remote causes are, a collapse of the cornea, a prolapse of the iris, a swelling or tunified cataract, hypopium, or a natural formation. The species of this disorder

1. Synechia anterior totalis, or a concretion of the iris with the cornea. This species is known by inspecting the parts. The pupil in this species is dilated or coarctated, or it is found concreted; from whence

various lesions of vision.

2. Synechia anterior partialis, when only some part of the iris is accreted. This concretion is observed in one or many places; from hence the pupil is variously disfigured, and an inordinate motion of the pupil is perceived.

3. Synechia unterior composita, when not only the whole iris, but also a prolapse of the crystalline lens, unites with

the cornea.

4. Synechia posterior totalis, or a concretion of the whole uvea, with the ciliary processes and the capsule of the crystalline

5. Synechia posterior partialis, when only some part of the capsule of the crystal. line lens is concreted with the uvea and cornea. This accretion is simplex, duplex, triplex, or in many places it may happen.

6. Synechia complicata, with an amaurosis, cataract, mydriasis, myosis, or syne-

SYNEUROSIS. (From our, with, veuper, a nerve, because the ancients included membranes, ligaments, and tendons, under the head of nerves.) A species of symphisis, in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening membrane.

SYNIZESIS. Confidentia. A perfect The species

1. Synizesis nativa, with which infants See Angina pec- are sometimes born. In this case, by an error of the first conformation of the pupil, SYNDESMOLOGIA. (From συνδεσμος, there is no perforation; it is very rarely

2. Synizesis accidentalis, a concretion of

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the pupil, from an inflammation or ex- and unquenchable thirst, oppression of ulceration, of the uvea or iris, or from breathing, and nausea. The kin is dry a defect of the aqueous or vitreous hu

3. Synizesis, from a secession of the iris or cornea. From whatever eause it may happen, the effect is certain, for the pupil contracts its diameter; the longitudinal fibres, separated from the circle of the cornea, cannot resist the orbicular fibres: from hence the pupil is wholly or partially

4. Synizesis complicata, or that which is complicated with an amaurosis, synechia, or other ocular disease. The amaurosis or gutta serena is known by the total absence of light to the retina; we can distinguish this not only by the pupil being closed, but likewise the eyelids, for whether the eyelids be open or shut, all is darkness to the patient. The other complicated cases are known by viewing the eye, and eonsidering the parts anatomically

5. Synizesis spuria, is a closing of the pupil by mueus, pus, or grumous blood.

SYNOCHA. (From συνέχω, to continue.) Inflammatory fever. A species of to these are added, picking at the bedcontinued fever; characterised by increase clothes, startings of the tendons, involuned heat; pulse frequent, strong, hard; tary discharges by stool and urine, and urine high-eoloured; senses not im- hiccough, it will then certainly be fatal. On paired. This fever is so named from its the contrary, if the febrile heat abates, being attended with symptoms denoting the other symptoms moderate, and there general inflammation in the system, by is a tendency to a crisis, we may then exwhich we shall always be able readily to peet a recovery. In a few instances, this distinguish it from either the nervous or fever has been known to terminate in putrid. It makes its attack at all seasons mama. of the year, but is most prevalent in the and of a plethorie constitution. It is a species of fever almost peculiar to cold and even then, the inflammatory stage is of phus; so that synocha and typhus, blended very short duration, as it very soon as- together in a slight degree, seem to constisumes either the nervous or putrid type.

The exciting eauses are sudden transitions from heat to cold, swallawing eold liquors when the body is much heated by exercise, too free a use of vinous and -pipassions of the mind, the sudden suppression of habitual evacuations, and the sudden repulsion of eruptions. It may be doubted if this fever ever originates from and eyes, great restlessness, intense heat, cessary to produce this effect. The most

and parehed; the tongue is of a scarlet eolour at the sides, and furred with white in the centre; the urme is red and scanty; the body is costive; and there is a quickness, with a fulness and hardness in the pulse, not much affected by any pressure made on the artery. If the febrile symptoms run very high, and proper means are not used at an early period, stupor and delirium come on, the imagination becomes much disturbed and hurr ed, and the patient raves ciolently The disease usually goes through its course in about fourteen days, and terminates in a crisis, either by diaphoresis, diarrhœa, hæmorrhage from the nose, or the deposit of a eopious sediment in the urine; which crisis is usually preceded by some variation in the pulse.

Our judgment as to the termination of the disease, must be formed from the violence of the attack, and the nature of the symptoms. If the fever runs high, or continues many days with stupour or delirium, the event may be doubtful; but if

On opening those who die of an inflamspring; and it seizes persons of all ages matory fever, an effusion is often perceived and habits, but more particularly those in within the eranium, and now and then, tothe vigour of life, with strong elastic fibres, pical affections of some of the viscera are to be observed.

SYNOCHUS. (From συνεχω, to contemperate climates, being rarely, if ever tone.) . A mixed fever. A species of met with in very warm ones, except continued fever, commencing with sympamongst Europeans lately arrived; and toms of synocha and terminating in tytute this species of fever, the former being apt to preponderate at its commencement, and the latter towards its termina-

Every thing which has a tendency to ritious liquors, great intemperance, violent enervate the body, may be looked upon as passions of the mind, the sudden suppressarily a remote cause of this fever; and accordingly we find it often arising from great bodily fatigue, too great an indulgence in sensual pleasures, violent exer ion, intempersonal infection; but it is impossible peranee in drinking, and errors in diet, and for it to appear as an epidenie amongst now and then likewise from the suppressuch as are of a robust habit, from a pession of some long accustomed discharge, culiar state of the atmosphere. It comes Certain passions of the mind (such as crief, on with a sense of lassitude and inactivity, fear, anxiety, and joy.) have been enumesucceeded by vertigo, rigors, and pains rated amongst the eauses of fever, and in over the whole body, but more particular- a few instances it is probable they may ly in the head and back; which symptoms have given rise to it; but the concurrence are shortly followed by redness of the face of some other powers seems generally neusual and universal cause of this fever is creased action of the heart and arteries is the application of cold to the body; and the effect of nature to expel the morbific its morbid effects seem to depend partly upon certain circumstances of the cold it- creased secretion of bile; and others self, and partly upon certain circumstances of the person to whom it is applied.

The circumstances which seem to give the application of cold duc effect, are its degree of intensity, the length of time which it is applied, its being applied generally, or only in a current of air, its having a degree of moisture accompanying it, and its being a considerable or sudden change from heat to cold. The circumstances of persons rendering them more liable to be affected by cold, seem to be debility, induced either by great fatigue, or violent exertions, by long fasting, by the want of natural rest, by severe evacuations, by preceding disease, by errors in diet, by intemperance in drinking, by great sensuality, by too close an application to study, or giving way to grief, fear, or great anxiety, by depriving the body of a part want of taste in the mouth, slight pains in of its accustomed clothing, by exposing any one particular part of it, whilst the rest is kept of its usual warmth, or by ex- its effects after a little time become less posing it generally or suddenly to cold violent, and are alternated with flushings, when heated much beyond its usual tem- and at last, going off altogether, they are perature; these we may therefore look succeeded by great heat diffused generally upon as so many causes giving an effect to over the whole body; the face looks flushcold which it otherwise might not have ed, the skin is dry as likewise the tongue; produced. Another frequent cause of fe- universal restlessness prevails, with a viover seems to be breathing air contaminated lent pain in the head, oppression at the by the vapours arising either directly or chest, sickness at the stomach, and an originally from the body of a person labouring under the disease. A peculiar matter is supposed to generate in the body of a person affected with fever, and this 100 strekes in a minute. When the sympflorting in the atmosphere, and being ap- toms run very high, and there is a conplied to one in health, will no doubt often siderable determination of blood to the cause fever to take place in him, which head, a delirium will arise. In this fever, has induced many to suppose that this infectious matter is produced in all fevers whatever, and that they are all more or less contagious.

The effluvia arising from the human body, if long confined to one place without being diffused in the atmosphere, will, it is well known, acquire a singular virulence, and will if applied to the bodies of men, become the cause of fever. Exhalations, arising from animal or vegetable substances in a state of putrefaction, have been looked upon as another general cause of fever: marshy or moist grounds, acted upon by heat for any length of time, usually send forth exhalations which prove a neverfailing source of fever, but more particularly in warm climates. Various hypothesis have been maintained, with respect to the proximate cause of fever; some supposing it to be a lentor or viscidity prevailing in the mass of blood, and stagnating in the extreme vessels; others, that it is a noxious matter introduced into or generated in the body, and that the in- pulse becoming soft, moderate, and near,

matter; others, that it consisted in an inagain, that it is to be attributed to a spasmodic constriction of the extreme vessels on the surface of the body; which last was the docurine taught by the late Dr. Cullen.

An attack of this fever is generally mark. ed by the patient's being seized with a considerable degree of languor or sense of debility, together with a sluggishness in motion, and frequent yawning and stretch. ing; the face and extremities at the same time become pale, and the skin over the whole surface of the body appears constricted; he then perceives a sensation of cold in his back, passing from thence over his whole frame, and this sense of cold continuing to increase; tremors in the limbs and rigors of the body succeed.

With these there is a loss of appetite, the head, back, and loins, small and frequent respirations. The sense of cold and and at last, going off altogether, they are inclination to vomit. There is likewise a great thirst and costiveness, and the pulse is full and frequent, beating perhaps 90 or as well as most others, there is generally an increase of symptoms towards even-

If the disease is likely to prove fatal, either by its continuing a long time, or by the severity of its symptoms, then a start. ing of the tendons, picking at the bedclothes, involuntary discharges by urine and stool, coldness of the extremities, and hiccoughs, will be observed; where no such appearances take place, the disease

will go through its course.

As a fever once produced will go on, although its cause be entirely removed, and as the continued or fresh application of a cause of fever neither will increase that which is already produced, nor occasion a new one, there can be no certainty as to the duration of fever, and it is only by attending to certain appearances or changes, which usually take place on the approach of a crisis, that we can form any opinion or decision. The symptoms pointing out the approach of a crisis, are the its natural speed; the tongue losing its fur tendons, hiccoughs, involuntary evacua-and becoming clean, with an abatement of tions by urine and stool, and such fike thirst; the skin being covered with a gen- symptoms, point out the certain approach tle moisture, and feeling soft to the touch; of death. the secretory organs performing their secrystals of a dirty red colour, and becoming turbid on being allowed to stand any time.

Many physicians have been of opinion, that there is something in the nature of all acute diseases, except those of a putrid kind, unich usually determines them to be of a certai these terminations, when salutary, happen this fever, are an effusion within the craat certain periods of the disease rather nium, and topical affections, perhaps of than at others, unless disturbed in their progress by an improper mode of treatment, or the arising of some accidental meaning, coined by Paracelsus.) eircumstance. These periods are known by the apellation of critical days; and from the time of Hippoerates down to the present, have been pretty generally admitted. The truth of them, Dr. Thomas thinks can hardly be disputed, however they may be interrupted by various causes. A great number of phænomena shew us, that both in the sound state and the diseas- structure within the eav. ties of some ed, nature has a tendency to observe cer- joints. tain periods; for instance, the vicissitudes of sleeping and watching occurring with such regularity to every one; the acute periods that the menstrual flux observes, and the exact time of pregnancy in all viviparous animals, and many other such instances that might be adduced, all prove this law.

With respect to diseases, every one pose.) Combination. See Analysis. must have observed the definite periods which take place in regular intermit ents, eur.) The reduction of a fracture. as well those universal as topical, in the course of true inflammation, which at the fourth, or at the farthest the seven h day, is resolved, or after this period, changes into either absecss, gangrene, or schirrus, in exanthematous eruptions, which if they are favourable and regular, appear on a certain and definite day; for example, the earth; or from σίφλοι, filthy.) Lines vene-small-pox about the fourth day. All these rea. Morbus Gallicus. A genus of disease appear to be founded on immutable laws, according to which the motions of the body in health and in disease are governed.

The days on which it is supposed the termination of continued fevers princitermination of continued fevers principally happens, are the third, fifth, seventh, pearance of this disease. The novelt of ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and twentieth.

ways by a regular crisis in the manner before mentioned, or from the februle matter falling on some particular parts, it excites inflammation, abscess, eruption, or destroys the patient.

Great anxiety, loss of strength, intense heat, stupor, debrium, irregularity in the pulse, twitchings in the fingers and hands, ulcers of the mouth, fauces, spots, tetters,

and ulcers of the skin, pains, swelling, and picking at the bed-clothes, startings of the

On the contrary, when the senses remain veral offices; and he wrine depositing flaky clear and distinct, the febrile heat abates, the skin is soft and moist, the pulse becomes moderate and is regular, and the urine deposits flaky erystals, we may then expect a speedy and happy termination to the disease.

> The usual appearances which are to be duration, and therefore that observed on dissection of those who die of some viscera.

SYNOVIA. (A term of no radical thros. Mucilago. An unctuous fluid secreted from certain glands in the joint in which it is contained. Its use is to lubricate the cartilaginous surfaces of the articulatory bones, and to facilitate their motions.

SYNGVIAL GLANDS. Glandulæ synoviæ. The ass mblage of a fatty fimbriated

SYNTENOSIS. (From our, with, and πενων, a tendon ) A species of articulation, where the bones are connected together by tendons.

SYNTEXIS. (From ourthxa, to dissolve.) A marasmus or colliquative wasting of the body.

SYNTHESIS. (From surtibumi, to com-

SYNTHETISMUS. (From συνθεω, to con-

SYNULOTICA. (Foom συνελοω, to eicatrise ) Medicines which heal wounds.

SYPHYLIS. (The ame of a shepherd, who ted the flocks of king Aleichous, who, proud of their number and beauty, insulted the sun; as a punishment for which, fable relates, that this disease was sent on in the class cachexia and order impetigines of Cullen. Towards the close of the memor, ble fifteenth century, about the year 1494 or 1495 the inhabitants of Europe its symptoms, and the wonderful rapidity with which it was propagated throughout A simple continued fever terminates al. every part of the known world, soon made it an important object of medical inquiry.

In the common language, it is said a person has syphilis or is poxed, when the venereal poison has been received into, or is diffused through the system, and there produces its peculiar effects, as caries of the bones, &c. But as long as the effects of the poison are local and confined to or near the genitals, the disorder is not called syphilis, lues venerea, nor pox; but distinguished by some particular name according to its different seat or appearance ; sueli as gonorrhea venerea, chancre

The venereal disease is always produced by a poison. Concerning the nature of this poison, we know no more than we do about that of the small-pox or any other contagion; we know only that it produces peeuliar effects. The smallest partiele of this poison is sufficient to bring on the most violent disorder over the whole body. It seems to spread and diffuse itself by a kind of fermentation and assimilation of matter; and, like other contagions, it requires some time after being applied to the human body, before it produces that effect. It is not known whether it has different degrees of acrimony and volatility, or whether it is always the same in its nature, varying only with regard to the particular part to which it is applied, or according to the different habit and constitution or particular idiosyncrasy of the person who receives the infection. We know that mercury possesses a certain and specific power of destroying the venereal virus; but we are quite uncertain whether it acts by a sedative, adstringent, or evacu- I was consulted by a gentleman about a ant quality; or if not perhaps rather by a sore throat, which I declared to be venechemical elective attraction whereby both substances uniting with one another are changed in a third, which is no more hurtful, but has some new properties en- had he any reason to believe he had tirely distinct from those which any of since received any infection: but that he them had before they were united. The had been in the East Indies, where he was variolous miasma, we know, produces its affected with a violent elap. On his return effects in about twenty or twenty-four to Europe, being to appearance in good days after the infection is received from the atmosphere, and eight or ten days if free of any such complaint ever since. By by inoculation, but the venereal virus seems to keep no particular period. At some for which he applied to me was completely times, and perhaps in particular persons, Dr. Swedianr has seen chancres arise in the space of twelve hours, nay, in a still shorter time, indeed he mentions in a few minutes, after an impure eoition; whereas, in most cases, they make their appearance only in as many days. The generality of mankind are thus easily affected by this men feel the first symptoms of a clap besween the second and fifth days after an impure-coitus; but there arc instances where they do not appear till after as many they go into infected places, and expose weeks or months. About ten years ago, themselves to inoculation or every hazard Dr. S. was consulted by a young man, who was seized with a violent discharge from the glans along with a phymosis, but without any chancres; four weeks after edition; to be infected who are seemingly of the and during all the intervals, he felt not the same habit; nay, the very same person least symptom of the disease. Some years seems to be more liable to be infected at ago, a gentleman went out from London one time than another, and those who have in seemingly perfect health, to the East been once infected seem to be more liable

Indies; but on his arrival in that hot climate, after a voyage of four months a violent clap broke out before he went on shore, though he could have received no infection during the voyage, as there was not a woman on board. There are instances which render it probable that the virus may lie four, five, or six weeks, and perhaps longer, on the surface of the genitals before it is absorbed; and were it not then to produce a shanker, might probably not be absorbed at all. We see daily examples, where common women communieate the infection to different men in the space of several weeks, while they themselves have not the least symptom of syphilis local or universal, the poison lying all that time in the vagina harmless, and generally without being absorbed. How long the venereal virus may lurk in the body itself, after it has been absorbed into the mass of blood, before it produces any sensible effect, is a matter of equal uncertainty. There is scaree a practitioner who has not observed instances of its remaining harmless for weeks or even months in the body. Dr. Swediaur had a case, where, after lying dormant for half a year, it broke out with unequivocal symptoms. But the following instance, if to be depended upon, is still more extraordinary.

Some years ago, says the above writer, real. My patient was astonished; and assured me that for nine years past he had not had the least venereal complaint, nor health, he married, and continued perfectly a mercurial course, however, the complaint removed. With regard to its effects, the venereal poison follows no constant rule: for though, in general, it affects first the throat, where it produces ulcerations, while in others it exerts its virulence on the skin or bones. Whilst the greatest part of poison, there are some few who seem to be altogether unsusceptible of the infection with the variolous contagion, though by which the disease is generally communicated.

Some persons are more liable than others

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to catch the infection a second time, than tals are sound; or, whether a child is ever those who never were infected before with affected with venereal symptoms in the the disease. The climate, season, age, interus of an infected mother. Such infectstate of health, idiosyncrasy, are, perhaps, ed infants as came under the observation as in other diseases, the necessary p edis- of Dr. Swediaur or of his friends, whose posing causes. The same difference is ob- practice afforded them frequent opportuservable in the progress made by the dis- nities of seeing new-born infants, seemed ease after the patient is infected. In some others it advances with the umost rapidity, and speeddy produces the most terrible symptoms. Whether the venereal poison can be absorbed into the system, wishout a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the genitals, or some other parts of the surface of the body, is still a matter of doubt. Several cases, however, have occurred which render it highly probable, if not certain, that the poison really is now and then absorbed, without any previous excoriation or ulceration whatsoever, and thus produces buboes and other venereal

symptoms in the body.

It has been asserted by the earliest and even by some late writers, that it may be caught by lying in the same bed or living in the same room with or after an infected person. What may have been the case at the commencement of the disease, cannot be said, but the most accurate observations and experiments which have been made upon the subject, do not confirm this to be the case in our times. Nor are nurses infected in the Lock Hospital, where they live night and day with patients in all stages of the distemper. The fact seems to be, that patients in our times are apt to impose upon themselves or upon physicians and surgeons, with regard to this matter; and the above opinion easily gains ground among the vulgar, especially in countries where people are more influenced by prejudices, superstition, servile situation in life, or other eirenmstances. Hence, we sometimes hear the most ridiculous accounts given in those countries by friars and common soldiers, of the manner by which they came to this disorder; such as piles, gravel, colics, contusions, fevers, little-houses, lying in suspected heds, or lying in bed with a suspected person, retention of the semen, coition with a wowan in menstruation, the use of cider, bad wine or beer, &c.

Another question undecided is, whether the venereal poison ever infects any fluid of our body besides the mucous and lymphatic system Does the venereal poison in an infected woman ever affect the milk, and consequently can the infection be conveyed to the infant by the milk alone, without any venereal ulcer on or about the nipples? It is equally a matter of uncertainty whether the venereal disease is ever conveyed of venereal ulcers in the nostrils, eye-lids, from an injected father or mother, by and lips of persons who had touched their

rather to militate against the opinion. the progress is slow, and the disease appears scarce to gain any ground, while in been able to observe ulcerations or other symptoms of a venereal kind upon newborn children; and such as make their appearance, four, six, or eight, or more days afterw rds, on the genitals, anus, lps, month, &c. may rather be supposed to arise by infection during the passage from ulcers in the vagina of the mother, the skin of the infant being then nearly in as tender a state as the glans penis, or the labia; and this perhaps at the time when an absorption of the venereal poison might easier take place without a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the skin. All the ways, therefore, by which we see, in our days, the venereal poison communicated from an unhealthy to an healthy person may be reduced to the following heads:

1. By the coition of an healthy person with another who is infected with venereal

symptoms of the genitals.

2. By the coition of an healthy person with another apparently healthy, in whose genitals the poison lies concealed, without having yet produced any bad symptom. Thus a woman who has perhaps received the infection from a man two or three days before, may during that time infect, and often does infect the man or men who have to do with her afterwards, without having any symptoms of the disease visible upon herself; and vice versa, a man may infect a woman in the same manner. Such instances ocear in practice every

3. By sucking; in this case the nipples of the wet nurse may be infected by venereal ulcers in the mouth of the child: or vice versd, the nipples of the nurse being infected, will occasion venereal ulcers in the child's nose, mouth, or lips. It is uncertian as mentioned above, whether the venereal poison was ever propagated by means of the milk from the breast.

4. By exposing to the contact of venereal poison any part of the surface of the body, by kissing, touching, &c. especially if the parts so exposed have been previously excoriated, wounded, or ulcerated by any cause whatever. In this manner we frequently see venereal ulcers arise in the scrutum and thighs; and there are some well attested instances where the infection took place in the fingers of midwives or surgeons. Several instances are recorded coition, to the fatus, provided their genia own gentals, or those of others, affected and then rubbed their nostrils, &c. with the fingers, without previously washing the hands. There was a few years ago in London, a melancholy example of a young lady, who, after having drawn a decayed tooth, and replaced it w th one taken im- after infection is very various, being most mediately from a young woman apparently in perfect health, was soon after affected cases not till after the expiration of as with an ulcer in the mouth. The sore ma nifested symptoms of a venereal nature; but such was its obstinacy, that it resisted the most powerful mercurial remedies, terminating at last in a caries of the m. xilla with a most shocking erosion of the mouth and face, by which the unhappy patient was destroyed. During all this, however, we are informed that not the smallest venereal symptom was perceived in the woman from whom the sound tooth was procured.

5. By wounding any part of the body with a lancet or knife infected with the venereal virus In this instance there is a similarity between the venereal poison and that of the small-pox. There are several examples of the latter being produced by bleeding with a lancet which had been previously employed for the purpose of inoculation, or of opening variolous pustules, without being properly cleaned afterwards. In Moravia, in the year 1577, a number of persons who assembled in a house for bathing, had themselves, according to the custom of that time, scarified by the barber, were all of them infected with the venereal disease, and treated accordingly. Krato, the physician, and Jordan, who gave a description of this distemper, are both of the opinion that it was communicated by means of the scarifying instrument. And Van Swieten relates several instances where the lues was communicated by a similar carelessness in cleaning the instrument used in bleeding or sca-

The venereal poison applied to the urethra and vagina produce a clap. See Gonorrhaa. Coming into contact with other parts it produces a chancre or bubo and constitutional symptoms. Chancre is the primary and immediate consequence of inoculation with true venercal matter in any of the ways which have been mentioned, and may arise in any part of the human body: but it generally shews itself in the pudenda, because the infecting medium is there first taken up in the one sex, and communicated by contact to the other. It is not, however, peculiar to these parts, for whenever the same kind of fluid is applied to a scratch on the hand, finger, lip or become scirrhous. The following are the nipple, the same consequence will follow. characteristics of a venereal bubo. There can be no doubt but that the slightest swelling is usually confined to one gland, abrasion possible, or breach of the cuticle, the colour of the skin where inflammation is sufficient to give a speedy admission to prevails is of a florid red, the pain is very this destructive poison. A chancre makes acute, the progress from inflammation to

at the time with local venereal complaints, its appearance either with a slight inflammation which afterwards ulcerates, or there arises a small pimple or pustule filled with a transparent fluid, which soon breaks and forms into a spreading ulcer. The period at which it makes its appearance commonly in five or six days, but in some many weeks. There is both a local and general predisposition to chancres: Jews and Mahomedans, from the constant exposure of the glans and loss of the prepuce. have the cuticle of the glans penis of much firmer texture than those who have not been circumcised; and they are from this circumstance, much less subject to chancres than the rest of mankind. For the same reason they who, from the shortness of the prepuce, generally keep the glans uncovered, are neither so liable to the disease as those who have long narrow preputia; for persons thus formed constantly keep the surface of the glans and prepuce moist and tender, and almost at every co. habitation are liable to abrasions and to excoriations.

There is an intermediate state of the venereal disease between a local and constitutional affection, which arises from the absorption of venereal matter from some surface to which it has been applied. The glands situated nearest the parts thus affected are apt to become swelled and inflamed, and so as to give rise to what is termed bubo; and the parts of generation usually coming first in contact with the matter, so the glands in the groin generally afford this particular symptom. In most cases the venereal virus is absorbed from a chancre or an ulcer in the urethra; but instances have occurred where a bubo has arose without either gonorrhæa or any kind of ulceration, and where the matter appears to have been absorbed, without any erosion of the skin or mucous membrane.

A bubo comes on with a pain in the groin, accompanied with some degree of hardness and swelling, and is at first about the size of a kidney bean, but continuing to increase, it at length becomes as large as an egg, occasions the person to experience some difficulty in walking, and is attended with a pulsation and throbbing in the tumour, and a great redness of the skin. In some cases the suppuration is quickly completed, in others it goes on very slow, and in others again the inflammatory appearances go off without any formation of pus. In a few instances the glands have been known to suppuration and ulceration is generally very rapid, the suppuration is large in proportion to the size of the gland, and there

is only one abscess.

A bubo is never attended with danger, where the inflamed gland proceeds on regularly to supportation, but in particular cases it acquires an indolence after coming to a certain length, arising from a scrophulous taint, or by being combined with erysipelas it terminates in gangrene and occasions a great loss of substance. This termination is, however, more frequently met with in hospitals than in private practice, and may partly be attributed to the contaminated state of the air of the wards wherein venereal patients are lodged.

A constitutional taint is the third form under which it has been mentioned, that the venereal poison is apt to shew itself, and which always arises in consequence of the master being absorbed and carried into the circulating mass of fluids The absorption of it may, however, take place

in three ways

1st. It may be carried into the circulation, without producing any evident local effect on the part to which it was first applied

2ndly. It may take place in consequence of some local affection, such as either gonorthes, chancre, or boba: And,

3dly It may ensue from an applicationof the matter to a common sore or wound, similar to what happens in inoculating for the small-pox

The most general way, however, in which a constitutional tains is produced, is hy an absorption of the matter, either from

a chancre or a onbo.

When venereal matter gets into the system, some symptoms of it may often be observed in the course of six or eight weeks, or probably sooner: but in some cases, it will continue in the circulating mass of fluids for many months before any visible signs of its effects are produced The sys em being completely contaminated, it then occasions many local effects in different parts of the body, and shows itself under a variety of forms, many of which put on the appearance of a distinct disease. We may presume that this variety depends wholly on the difference of constitution, the different kind of parts affected, and the different state these parts were in at the time the matter or poison was applied.

The first symptoms usually shew themselves on the skin and in the month or When on the skin, reddish and brownish spots appear here and there on the surface, and eruptions of a copper colour are dispersed over different parts of the body, on the top of which there soon forms a thick scurf or scale. This scurf falls off after a short time and is succeeded by another, and the same enlar ements and indurations of the lym-

happening several times, and at length casting off dee; scabs, an older is formed which discharges an acrid fæ'id matter. When the matter is secreted in the glands of the throat and mouth, the tongot will often be affected so as to occasion a thickness of speech, and the tonsils, palate, and uvala will become ulcerated so as to produce a soreness and difficulty of swallowing, and likewise a hoarseness in the voice. In the venereal ulcer of the tonsil a portion of it seems as if it was dug out; it is, moreover, very foul, and has a thick white matter adherm to it, which cannot be washed off By these characteristic marks it may, in general, readily be distinguish. ed from any other species of afceration in these parts.

If the disease affects the eyes, obstinate inflammation, and sometimes ulceration

will also attack these organs.

The matter sometimes falls on deep seated parts, such as the tendons, ligaments, and perios'eum, and occasions hard, painful swellings to arise, known by the name of nodes

When the disease is suffered to take its own course, and no counteracted by proper remedies, the patient will in the course of time, he afflicted with severe pains, but more particularly in the night time; his countenance will become sallow, his hair will fall off, he will lose his appetite, strength and flesh, his rest will be much disturbed by night, and a small lever of the heetic kind will wise. The alcers in the mouth and throat being likewis s ffered to spread, and to occasion a ciries of the bones of the palate, an opening will be made from the mouth to the nos, and the cartilages and bones of the n s: be ng at leng h corroded away, this will sink on a level with the face. Some consistations will bear up for a considerable time against the disease, whilst others again will soon sink under a general weakness and irritation produced by it. If the disorder is recent, and the constitution not impaired by other diseases, a perfect cure may e sily be effected; but where it is of long standing, and accompanied with the symptoms of irritation which have been nentioned, the cure will prove tedious, and in many cases uncertain, as the constitution and strength of the patient may not admit of his going through a course of medicine sufficient to des roy the poison, or his health may be in such a state, as that only a very small quantity of mercury can be administered even at considerable inter-

The general appearances to be observed on dissection of those who die of lies, are. caries of the bones, but more particularly those of the cranium, often communicating ulceration to the brain itself, together with

phatic glands, scirrhus of several of the organs, particularly the liver and lungs, and exastoses of many of the hardest bones.

SYPHILIS INDICA. The yaws.

SYPHILIS POLONICA. A variety of venereal disease.

SYPHILIS VENEREA. See Syphilis.

SYRIE OLEUM. A fragrant essential oil, obtained by distilling the canary balsam plant or moldavica.

Syrian herb mastich. See Marum syria-

SYRIGMUS. See Paracusis.

ed because from its branches pipes were made after the removal of the pith.) The junction with other remedies. pipe-tree.

SYRINGMOS. See Paracusis.

Syringotomum. (From συειγέ, a fistula, bus aurantiorum. Syrupus de cortice auranand repro, to cut,) An instrument to cut tiorum. " Take of fresh orange-peel, two fistulas.

SYRINX. (Heb.) A pipe. A syringe. A fistula.

cuate.) A gentle evacuation by vomit or and add the sugar. A pleasant bitter and

SYRUPUS. (Serab, a potion, Arab.) 1. When sugar is dissolved in any ve- and stimulating syrup. getable liquor, to the consistence of honey, a medical preparation is formed call- retic compound given in dropsies. ed syrup; which, if obtained from a single plant, is called simple: but if from pus aurantii more than one, compound To keep syrups STRUBUS CROCI. Syrup of saffron. "Take without fermenting, it is necessary that of saffron, an ounce; boiling water, a their temperature should be attended to, pound; refined sugar, two pounds and a and kept as near 55° as possible. A good half." Macerate the saffron in the water cellar will answer this purpose, for there for 12 hours in a covered vessel, then are few summers in which the temperature strain the liquor, and add the sugar. This of such a place rises to 60°.

ple syrup. Syrupus simplex. " Take of re- Amongst the vulgar, syrup of saffron is in fined sugar, two pounds and a half; water, high esteem in measles, small pox, &c. a pint." Dissolve the sugar in the water . Synupus Limonis Syrup of lemon. Syin a water-bath; then set it aside for 24 rupus succi limonis. Syrupus e succo limohours; take off the scum, and if there be num. Syrupus e succo citriorum. "Take any fæculencies, pour off the clear liquor of lemon-juice, strained, a pint; refined

from them.

Syrup of ginger. See Syrupus zingibe-

Syrup of lemon. See Syrupus limonis. Syrup of marsh-mallows. See Syrupus al-

Syrup of mulberry. See Syrupus mori. Syrup of orange. See Syrupus auran-

Syrup of poppy. See Syrupus papave-

Syrup of red poppy. See Syrupus Rhaa- tions to children.

Syrup of roses. See Syrupus rosa. Syrup of saffron. See Syrnpus croci. Syrup of senna. See Syrupus senna. Syrup of Tolu. See Syrupus Toluba-72748.

SYRUPUS ACETI. Sugar and vinegar. A refrigerating and antiseptic syrup.

SYRUPUS ALTHMA. Syrup of marsh-mal-Syrupus ex althea. Syrupus de althea. " Take of the fresh root of marsh. mallow, bruised, half a pound; refined sugar, two pounds; water, a gallon." Boil down the water with the marsh-mallow. root to half, and press out the liquor when cold. Set it by for 24 hours, that the fæculencies may subside; then pour off the liquor, and having added the sugar, boil it down to a proper consistence. An emol-Syringa. (From συριγέ, a pipe; so call- lient and demulcent; mostly given to allay tickling coughs, hourseness, &c. in con-

SYRUPUS AURANTII Syrup of orange. Syrupus corticis aurantii. Syrupus e corticiounces; boiling water, a pint; refined sugar three pounds." Macerate the orange-peel in the water for 12 hours in a SYRMIASMUS. (From συεμαιζω, to eva- covered vessel; then pour off the liquor, stomachic.

STRUPUS CARYOPHYLLI RUBRI. A WARM

SYRUPUS COLCHICI. An acrid and diu-

SYRUPUS CORTICIS AURANTII. See Syru-

imparts a be utiful colour to liquids, and 2. The pharmacoperal name of a similar is sometimes employed as a cordial.

sugar, two pounds." Dissolve the sugar Syrup of buckthorn. See Syrupus rham in the lemon juice in the manner directed for a syrup. A very pleasant, cooling, and acrid syrup, which may be exhibited with advantage, in gastritis and bilious affections.

> SYRUPUS MORI. Syrup of mulberry. Syrupus mororum. "Take of mulberry-juice, strained, a pint; refined sugar, two pounds." Dissolve the sugar in the mulberry-juice in the manner directed for syrup. Syrup of mulberries is very grateful and aperient, and may be given with such inten-

> SYRUPUS PAPAVERIS. Syrupus papave. ris albi. Syrupus e meconio. Syrupus de meconio, sive diacodium. " Take of capsules of white poppy, dried and bruised, the seeds being separated, 14 ounces; refined sugar, two pounds; boiling-water, two

gallons and a half." Maccrate the capsules hours, and strain: then evaporate the by means of a water ball to one gallon, to two pints and a half; then add the and press out the liquor. Boil down the sugar in the manner described for a syliquor again to two pints, and strain it rup. A useful laxative for children. From while hot. Set it by for 12 hours, that the frequencies may subside then hold. the faculencies may subside: then boil down the clear liquor to a pint, and add the sugar in the manner directed for a It should be kept in stone bottles and in a cellar. A us ful anodyne preparation which may be added with advantage to a vast variety of medicines against diseases of the bowels, coughs, &c.

SYRUPUS PAPAVEILIS ERHATICI. See Syru-

pus rhandos

SYRUPUS RILEADOS. Syrupus papaveris erratici. Syrupus de papavere erratico. Syrup of red poppy. "Take of red-poppy petals, fresh, a pound; boiling-water, a pint and two fluidounces; refined sugar, two pounds and a half" This is a very mild anodyne, and used more for the colour than for its medical properties.

Syrup of buck-SYRUPUS RHAMNI. thorn. "Take of the fresh jnice of buck-

thorn-berries, four pints; ginger-root, sliced, all-spice, powdered, of each half an ounce; refined sugar, three pounds and a half." Set by the juice for three days that the faculencies may subside, and strain. To a pint of the clear juice add the ginger, the ginger-root, and allspice; then macerate in a gentle heat four hours, and strain; boil down what remains to one pint and a half, mix the liquors, and add the sugar in the manner directed for syrup.

This preparation, in doses of three or four spoonfuls, operate as a brisk cathartic. The principal inconvenience attending it is, that it is very aupleasant and occasions a turrst and dryness of the mouth and fances, and sometimes violent gripes; these effects may be prevented by drinking libe dly of water grael, or other warm liquids during the operation.

STRUCTS HIBIS NIGRI. Syrup of black currents Aperient and diuretic qualities

are acroin ed to this preparation.

Sinures nost. Syrup of roses. Syrupus roseirum solutirus Syrupus e ròsis rufius rostrum solutivus si cis "Take of droask rose petals, dried, seven ounces; refined sugar six pounds; boding sever, four pints." Ma-cerate the rose-petals in the water for 12

STRUPUS RUBI IDEI. Syrup of raspberry. A pleasant aperient syrup for chil-

dren.

SYRUPUS SCILLITICUS. Expectorant and diuretic.

SYMUPUS SENNÆ. Syrup of senna: "Take of senna-leaves, half an ounce; fennel-seed, bruised, a drachm; manna, refined sugar, of each a pound; water, boiling, a pint" Macerate the senna-leaves and fennel-seeds in the water for 12 hours; strain the liquor, and mix with it manna and sugar. A useful purgative for children.

SYRUPUS TOLUTANUS. Syrup of Tolu-" Take of balsam of Tolu, an ounce; water, boiling, a pint; refined sugar, two pounds." Boil the balsam in the water half an hour in a covered vessel, occasionally stirring it, strain the liquor when it is cold, and then add the sugar, in the manner directed for syrup A useful balsamic syrup, calculated to allay tickling coughs and hoarsenesses.

SYRUPUS VIOLE. A pleasant laxative

for young children.

STRUPI'S ZINGIBERIS. Syrup of ginger. "Take of ginger-root, sliced, two ounces; water, boiling, a pint; refined sugar, two pounds." Macerate the gingerroot in the water for twenty-four hours, and strain, then add the sugar in the manner directed for syrup. A carminative and stomachic syrup. Dose from one to three drachms

SYSSARCOSIS. (From our, and oaps, flesh.) A species of union of bones in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening muscle. In this manner the os hyordes is connected with the sternum and other parts.

System, absorbent. See Absorbents and

Lymphatics.

System, genital. The parts of generation

System, nervous. See Nerves.

System, vascular. The arteries and veins

SYSTOLE. (From συσελλω, to contract.) The contraction of the heart.

T BANDAGE. from its figure. It is principally used for supporting the dressings, after the opera-supporting the dressings, after the opera-tion for fisual in ano, in diseases of the colour, and of a less grateful smell than perincum, and those of the groins, anus, &c. the former Tacamahacca was formerly

from whence it was first brought.) Tobac-

See Nicotiana.

TABELLA. (Dim. of tabula, a table.) A

lozenge.

TABES. (From tabesco, to consume or pine away.) A wasting of the body. A genus of disease in the class cuchexia and order marcores of Cullen; characterised by emaciation and weakness, attended with hectic fever, but without any cough or spitting, which last symptoms distinguish it from phthisis. It has three species: 1. Tubes purulenta, from an ulcerous dis. charge: 2. Tabes scrofulosa, from a scrofulous habit: 3. Tabes venenata, from poison. See Atrophy.

TABES COXARIA. Phthisis ischiadica. A wasting of the thigh and leg from an

abscess, or other cause, in the hip

TABES DORSALIS. Lordosis Dr. Cullen makes it a variety of atrophia inanitorum. Hippocrates calls it tabes ossis socre. At present by the name of tabes dorsalis is understood a wasting of the body, attended at first with pain in the back or loins, and afterwards also in the neck and head, caused by a too early or a too frequent use of venery.

TABES NUTRICUM. A variety of atro-

phia mamtorum.

Ilippocrates' name TABLES OSSIS SACRI. for tabes dorsalis.

TABLE PULMONALIS. A name for phthisis. An abscess of the TABES RENALIS. kidney.

A variety of the TARES SIPHYLITICA.

atr phia cacochymica.

TACAMAHACCA. (Indian ) The name of a resinous substance which exudes both spontaneously and when incisions are made into the stem of the Rigara octandria of Linnæus :- foliolis tomentosis, and not as was formerly supposed from the Populus balsamifera Linner. Two kinds of marindi, which is in the Arabian language tacamahacca are met with in the shops, a synonym of the dactylus or date.) The best, called, from its being collected phenicon. Saliqua arabica. Balam pulli-in a kind of gourd shell, tacamahacca in Tamarea. Zecla oxyphenicia acceia inin a kind of gourd shell, tacamahacca in Tamaraa. Zecla oxyphanicia acacia in-shells, is somewhat unituous and soft, of dica. The tamarind. The tree which afa pale yellowish or greenish colour, a bit- fords this fruit is the Tumarindus indica of terish aromatic taste, and a fragrant de-Linnaus. The pulp of the tamarind, with lightful smell, approaching to that of la- the seeds, connected together by numerous

A bandage so named vender and ambergris. The more common TABAGUM. (From Tobago, the island in high estimation as an ingredient in warm stimulating plaisters; and although seldom used internally, it may be given with advantage as a corroborant and adstringent balsamic.

TACTUS. See Touch.

TEDA. (Daida, from daw, to burn.) A A species of pine which burns torch. like a torch. A medicated torch for fumi-

gations

TÆNIA. (Taivia, a He brew word, signifying a filler; so named from its resemblance to a fillet or piece of tape.) The tape-worm. A senus of intestinal worms; characterised by a long, flat, and jointed body. Species: 1. Tania osculis marginalibus, the long tape-worm, and the soleum of authors, which is peculiar to this country, Russia, France, &c.: 2. Tania osculis supe: ficialibus, the broad tape-worm, which is peculiar to the inhabitants of Switzerland, &c. See Worms.

Talc See Talcum.

TALCUM. (From tulk, German.) Talc. A white, grey, yellow, or greenish substance of a soft and soapy to ch, formed of transparent laminæ places upon each other. Talc is composed of pure magnesia mixed with near twice its weight of silex and less than its weight of alumine. There are several different appearances of talc. The greenish foliaceous Venice tale was formally used medicinally, as possessing antacid and and aperient qualities.

Talpa-TALPA. (From Taxpos, blind.) A mole. Also a tumour resembling a mole in eating and creeping under the

skin.

TALUS. A synonym of Astragalus. Sec Astragalus.

TAMALAPATRA. The Indian leaf isso term-See Cassia lignea. ed by some authors

Tamarind See Tamarindus

TAMARINDUS. (From tamar or ta-Balam pulli. freed from the outer shell, and commonly preserved in syrup. According to Long, tantarinds are prepared for exportation at Jamaica, in the following manner: "The ruit or pads are gathered in June, July, and August, when full ripe, which is known by their fragility or easy breaking on small pressure between the finger and The fruit taken out of the pod, and cleared from the shelly fragments, is pliced in layers in a cask, and boiling syrup, just before it begins to granulate, is poured in, till the cask is filled: the syrup pervades every part quite down to the bottom, and when cool the cask is headed for sale." The tamarind is employed as a laxative, and for abating thirst or heat in various inflammatory complaints, and for correcting putrid disorders, especially of a bilious kind, in which the cathartic, antiseptic, nd refrigerant qualities of the fruit have been found equally useful When intended merely as a laxative, it may be of advantage, (Dr. Woodville observes) to join it with manna or purgatives of a sweet kind, by which its use is ren-Three dered safer and more effectual. drachms of the pulp are usually sufficient to open the body, but to prove moderately cathartic, one or two ounces are required. It is an ingredient in the confection cassic and confectio senne. The systematic

See Tamarinname of the tamarind-tree.

(From Tamarik, abster-TAMANISCUS. tion, Heb. named from its properties of cleansing and purifying the blood.) Ta-The bark, wood, and leaves of this tree, Tamarix gallica of Linnaus, were formerly employed medicinally, though seldon used at present. The former for its aperient and carroborant virtues in obstructions of the liver; the latter in icterus. hamoptysis, and some affections of the skin,

TAMARIX GALLICA The systemat'c name of the tamarisk tree. See T. mariscus.

T. me-poison See Vincetoxicum

TANACETUM (Cirrupted from tanasia, athanasia, the old name for tansy ) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia superflua. Tansv.

common tansy. Tanasia Athanasia. The leaves and flowers of tansy have a foliis runcinates denticulatis Levibus. strong, not very disagreeable smell, and a young leaves of this plant in a blanched bitter somewhat aromatic taste. The vir- state have the taste of endive, and make tues of tansy are tonic, stomachic, anthel. an excellent addition to those plants eaten mintic, emmenagogue, and resolvent. It early in the spring as salads; and Murray has been much used as a vermifuge; and tes- informs us, that at Goettingen, the roots timomes of its efficacy are given by many are roasted and substituted for coffee by respectable physicians. Not only the leaves the poorer inhabitants, who find that an

tough strings or fibres, are brought to us but the seeds have been employed with this intention, and substituted for those of santonicum. We are told by Dr. Clark, that in Scotland tansy was found to be of great service in various cases of gout; and Dr. Cullen, who afterwards was informed of the effect it produced upon those who had used the herb for this purpose says, "I have known several who have taken it without any advantage, and some others who reported that they had been relieved from the frequency of their gout." Tansy is also recommended in the hysteria, especially when this disease is supposed to proceed from menstrual obstructions.

This plant may be given in powder to the quan ity of a drachm or more for a dose; but it has been more commonly taken in infusion, or drank in tea.

The syste-TANACETUM HALSAMITA. matic name of the officinal alecost. See Bulsamita mas.

TANACETUM HORTENSE. See Bulsamita

The systema-TANACETUM VULGARE. tic name of the common tansy. See Tanacetum.

TANASIA. See Tanacetum. Tansy. See Tanacetum. Tanky, wild. See Potentilla. T.pe-worm See Tenia. Taproca. See Cassava Tapping. See Parancetesis. TAPSUS RADDATUS. See Verbascum. Tar. See Pix liquida.

See Petroleum barba-Tar, Barbadoes. dense.

TAR- WATER. A once celebrated remedy, but now neglected more than it deserves. It is made by infusing tar in water, stirring it from time to time, and lastly pouring off the clear liquor now impregnated with the colour and virtues of the tar. It is drank in many chronic affections, particularly of the lungs.

(From tarantula, the TARANTISMUS animal whose bite is supposed to be cured only by music.) The desire of dancing which is produced by the bite of the taran-

TARANTULA. · (From Tarunta, a city in Naples, where they abound.) A kind of venemous spider, whose bite is said to be

cured by music.

TARAXACUM. (From Tapassw, to 2. The phar nacopoial name of the alter or change; because it alters the state of the blood.) Dens leonis. The dande-Parthenium mas. Tanacetum milgare of lion, or pissabed. Leontodon taraxacum of Linuxus :- foliis hipinnatis incisis serratis. Linuxus :- caude squamis inferne reflexis, infusion prepared in this way can hardly be cum. Sal essentiale tartari. Acidum tar. distinguished from that of the coffee-berry, turi essentiale. Tartareous acid. To ob-The expressed juice of dandelion is bitter tain the pure tartaric acid, take two and somewhat acrid; but that of the root pounds of the crystals, and dissolve is bitterer, and possesses more medicinal them in water, into which chalk is to be power than any other part of the plant, thrown by degrees till the liquid is satu-It has been long in repute as a detergent rated. A precipitate is formed, which is and aperient, and its diuretic effects may a true tartrate of lime, is tasteless, and be inferred from the vulgar name it bears cracks between the teeth. This tartrate in most of the European languages, quasi is put into a cucurbit, and nine ounces of lecti minga et urinaria herba dicitur; and sulphuric acid, with five ounces of water, there are various proofs of its efficacy in are poured on it. After twelve hours dijaundice, dropsy, consumption, and some gestion, with occasional stirring, the tartacutaneous disorders.

The leaves, roots, flower, stalks, and and may be cleared off the sulphate of juice of dandelion, have all been separate- lime by means of cold water. The virtues ly employed for medicinal purposes, and seem to differ rather in degree of strength than in any essential property; therefore the expressed juice, or a strong decoction Tartar, cream of The popular na of the roots have most commonly been the perified super-tartrate of potash. prescribed, from one ounce to four, two or three times a day. The plant should be always used fresh; even extracts prepared from it appear to lose much of their power by keeping.

TARAXIS. (From ragavow, to disturb.) A slight ophthalmy or inflammation of the

TARCHON SYLVESTRIS. See Ptarmica.

Ture. See Eroum

Tarsi, extensor minor. See Plantares.

TARSUS. Tapoor. 1. The instep or that part of the foot which is between the leg and metatarsus: it is composed of seven bones, viz the astragalus, os calcis, os naviculare, os cuboides, and three ossa cuneiformia.

2. The thin cartilage situated at the edges of the eyelids to preserve their firm- tartarisatum.

ness and shape.

TARTAR. (Tartarum, from raplapos, acetas. infernal; because it is the sediment or dregs.) 1. The concretion which fixes to the inside of hogsheads containing wine. It is alloyed with much extractive and colouring matter, from which it is purified by decoction with argillaceous earths and potassæ acidulus ferratus. subsequent crystallization. By this means it becomes perfectly white, and shoots out startarisatum of Bergman. crystals of tartar, consisting of a peculiar cum tartareum. Tartarus ammonia. acid, called acid of tartar and potash, and salt composed of tartaric acid and ammois a super-tartrate of that alkali which nia, its virtues are diaphoretic, dioretic, when powdered is the cream or tartar of the and deobstruent. It is prescribed in feshops. Its virtues are eccoprotic, dinretic, vers, atonic exanthemata, catarrh, arthriand refrigerant, and it is exhibited in ab- tic and rheumatic arthrodynia, hysteric dominal physconia, dropsy, inflammatory spasms, &c. and bilious fevers, dyspepsia from rancid or fat substances, bilious diarrhea and colic, hæmorrhoids and obstipation.

2. A name heretofore given to many officinal preparations, containing the acid Globuli martiales Tartarus chalybeatus. of tartar; but in consequence of recent Mars solubilis Ferrum potabile. Its virchanges in the chemical nomenclature tues are adstrongent. It is principally superseded by appellations more expressused externelly in the form of fomentation sive of the respective compositions.

TARTARIC ACID. Acidum tartari- ations.

ric acid is set at liberty in the solution, of this acid are antiseptic, refrigerant, and diuretic. It is used in acute fevers, scur-

vy, and hæmorrhage.

Tartar, cream of The popular name of

Tartar, emetic. See Antimonium tartarisatum.

Tartar, oil of. See Liquor carbonatis pot-

Tartar, regenerated. See Potassæ ace-

Tartar, salt of. See Potassæ subcarbo-

Tartar, soluble. See Potassæ tartras.

Turtar, spirit of. If the crystals of tartar be distilled by a strong heat, without any additional body, they furnish an empyreumatic acid, called the pyrotartareous acid, or spirit of tartar, and a very fetid empyreumatic oil.

Tartar, vitriolated. See Potassæ sul-

TARTARUM EMETICUM. See Antimonium

TARTAHUM REGENERATUM. See Potassa

TARTARUM SOLUBILE. See Kali tartarisatum.

TARTARUS AMMONIÆ. See Tartras ammoniucæ. TARTARUS CHALTBEATUS,

TARTRAS AMMONIACE. Alkali volatile Sal ammonia-

TARTRAS POTASSÆ. See Potassæ tartras. TARTRAS POTASSE ACIDULUS,

tartar. See Tartar.

TARTRAS POTASSE ACIDULUS FERRATUS. or bath in contusions, distortions and lux-

TARTRAS POTASSAE ACIDULUS STIBIATUS. the pores of the cornea on the surface of See Antimonium tartarisatum.

TARTRAS SOBE. See Soda tartarisata.

differs but slightly from that of touch. It is propelled by the orbicular muscle, which appears, by certain experiments, to be so closely constringes the eyelid to the ball seated chiefly in those nervous papillæ of of the eye, as to leave no space between, the tongue which are formed from the mi- unless in the internal angle, where the tears nute ends of the ninth or lingual pair of arc collected. From this collection the nerves; for neither does sugar, applied tears are absorbed by the orifices of the to any other part of the mouth, excite the puncta lachrymalia; from theuce they least sense of taste in the mind; nor any are propelled through the lachrymal canals, other sapid body, unless it contain some into the lachrymal sac, and flow through thing vehemently penetrating; in which the ductus nasalis into the cavity of the case the palate, root of the tongue, uvula, nostrils, under the inferior concha na-and even the esophagus, are affected by salis. The lachrymal sac, appears to be the sapid aerimony. That sensation, formed of longitudinal and transverse mus-which is sometimes excited in the sto-ular fibres; and its three orifices furnish-mach, esophagus, and fauces, by the re-ed with small sphincters, as the spasmodic belong to the tongue, to which the sapid proves, if examined with a probe. vapours are applied

Nature designed the diversity of fla- taste, as people who cry perceive. vours, that animals might know those are of a transparent colour and aqueous things most proper for their food; for in consistence. general, there is no aliment unhealthy, take the food necessary for his subsistence, the eyelids, in the form of great and coboth by the pain called hunger, and by the pious drops upon the cheeks. A great pleasure arising from taste. But animals, quantity also descends, through the lachrywhich do not learn from example and the instruction of others, distinguish flavours most accurately, and, admonished by that the nose. test, abstain cautiously from unhealthy food; and, therefore, herbiverous animals moisten the surface of the eye and eyelids, especially, to which a very great diversity to prevent the pellucid cornea from drying of aliments mixed with noxious plants are and becoming opaque, or the eye from offered, are furnished with such long paconcreting with the eyelids. 2. They pilla, and so elegant a structure of the prevent that pain, which would otherwise

cing herma, &c.

flowing on the surface of the eye.

the eye. A certain part of this aqueous fluid is dissipated in the air; but the great-Gustus. The organ of taste est part, after having performed its office, gurgitation of the aliments, seems also to constriction of the puncta lachrymalia

The tears have no smell but a saltish

The quantity, in its natural state, is just that is of an agreeable taste; nor is any sufficient to moisten the surface of the eye thing ill tasted that is fit for the food of and eyelids; but from sorrow, or any kind We here take no notice of excess, of stimulus applied to the surface of the by which the most healthy food may be-eye, so great is the quantity of tears secome prejudicial, or of minerals, which creted, that the puncta lachrymalia are are not furnished by nature, but prepared unable to absorb them. Thus the greatest by art. Thus nature has invited man to part runs down from the internal angle of

Use of the tears.-1. They continually TAXIS. An operation, by which those against the bulb of the eye from continuparts which have quitted their natural situation are replaced by the hand without the assistance of instruments, as in reduting a crid that has fallen into the cyc. 4. Crying unloads the head of congestions.

TEAR. See Thea TEEFH. (Dens, a tooth; quasi edeus, TEAR. Lachryma. The limpid fluid from edo, to eat.) Small bones fixed in secreted by the lachrymal glands, and the alveoli of the upper and under jaw. In early infancy Nature designs us for the The organ which secretes this liquid is softest aliment, so that the gums alone formed by the lachrymal glands, one of are then sufficient for the purpose of manwhich is situated in the external earthus ducation; but as we advance in life, and of each orbit, and emits six or seven ex- require a different food, she wisely procretory ducts, which open on the internal vides us with teeth. These are the hardest surface of the upper eyelid above its tar- and whitest of our bones, and, at full masus, and pour for h the tears. The tears turity, we usually find thirty-two in both have mixed with them an arterious roscid jaws; viz. sixteen above, and as many vapour, which exhales from the internal below. Their number varies indeed in difsurface of the cyclids, and external of the ferent subjects; but it is seldom seen to tunica conjunctiva, into the eye. Perhaps exceed thirty-two, and it will very rarely theaqueous humour also transudes through be found to be less than twenty-eight.

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parts; viz. its body, or that part which ances still subsisting, with this addition, appears above the gums; and its fangs or that all the parts of the teeth which were root, which is fixed into the socket. The formed after leaving off the madder will boundary between these two, close to the be write. This experiment proves that a edge of the gum, where there is usually a small circular depression, is called the neck of the tooth. The teeth of each jaw are commonly divided into three classes; but before each of these is treated of in particular, it will be right to say some-

thing of their general structure. Every tooth is composed of its cortex or enamel, and its internal bony substance. The enamel, or as it is sometimes called, the vitreous part of the tooth, is a very hard and compact substance, of a white colour, and peculiar to the teeth. It is found only upon the body of the tooth, covering the outside of the bony or internal substance. When broken it appears fibrous or striated; and all the striæ are directed from the circumference to the centre of the tooth. This enamel is thickest on the grinding surface, and on the cutting edges or points of the teeth, becoming , radually thinner as it approaches the neck, where it terminates insensi-Some writers have described it as being vascular, but it is certain that no injection will ever reach this substance; that it receives no tinge from madder; and that it affords no appearance of a circulation of fluids The bony part of a tooth resembles other bones in its structure, but is much harder than the most compact part of bones in general It composes the inner part of the body and neek, and the whole of the root of the tooth. This part of a too h, when completely and there does not appear to be any doubt formed, does not, like the other bones, receive a tinge from madder, nor do the minutest injections penetrate into it's substance, although many writers have asserted the contrary. Mr. Hunter has been therefore induced to deny its being vascular, although he is aware that the teeth, like other bones, are liable to swellings, especially as we find them invested with a and that they are found anchylosed with periosteum. 3dly, It is a curious fact, their sockets. that both these may be original forma- that, in eases of phthisis pulmonalis, the tions; and, as the most convincing proof teeth become of a milky whiteness, and in of their not being vascular, he reasons from the analogy between them and other bones. He observes, for instance, that in that such parts as were formed while the of a red colour; whereas, in other bones, the hardest parts are susceptible of the dye, though more slowly than the parts which are growing. Again, he tells us, that if you leave off feeding the animal

Each tooth may be divided into two you kill it, you will find the above appeartooth once tinged does not lose its colour: whereas other bones do (though very slowly) return again to their natural appear. ance: and, as the dye in this case must be taken into the habit by absorbents, he is led to suspect that the teeth are without absorbents as well as other vessels. These arguments are very ingenious, but they are far from being satisfactory. The facts adduced by Mr. Hunter are capable of a different explanation from that which he has given them; and when other facts are added relative to the same subject, it will appear that this bony part of a tooth has a circulation through its substance, and even lymphanes, although, from the hardness of its structure, we are unable to demonstrate its vessels. The facts which may be adduced are, 1st. We find that a tooth recently drawn and transplanted into another socket, becomes as firmly fixed after a certain time, and preserves the same colour as the rest of the set; whereas a cooth hat has been long drawn before it is transplanted, will never become fixed Mr. Hunter, indeed, is aware of this objection, and refers the success of the transplanta. tion, in the first instance, to the living principle possessed by the tooth, and which he thinks may exist independent of a circula ion. But however applicable such a doctrine may be to zoophytes, it is suspeeted that it will not hold good in man, and others of the more perfect animals; but that, in the case of a transplanted tooth, there is a real union by vessels. 2dly. The swellings of the fangs of a tooth, which in many instances are known to be the effects of disease, and which are analogous to the swelling of other hones, are a clear proof of a similarity of structure, He supposes, however, though as yet perhaps not generally known, some degree, transparent; does not this prove them to have absorbents? Each tooth has an inner cavity, which,

a young animal that has been fed with beginning by a small opening at the point madder, the parts of the teeth which were of the fang, becomes larger, and termi-formed before it was put on madder diet nates in the body of the tooth. This will appear of their natural colour, but cavity is supplied with blood-vessels and nerves, which pass through the small animal was taking the madder, will be hold in the root. In old people this hole sometimes closes, and the tooth becomes then insensible.

The teeth are invested with a periosteum from their fangs to a little beyond their bony sockets, where it is attached to the with madder a considerable time before gums. This membrane seems to be com-

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mon to the tooth which it encloses, and to have in general only one root, and the body the sockets which it lines. The eeth are of the tooth terminates in two points, of likewise secured in their sockets by a red which the anterior one is the highest, so that substance called the gums, which every the tooth has in some measure the appearwhere covers the alveolar processes, and has as many perforations as there are teeth. The gums are exceedingly vascular, and have something like eartilaginous hardness and elasticity, but do not seem to have much sensibility. The gums of infants, which perform the offices of teeth have a hard ridge extending through their whole length; but in old people, who have lost their teeth, this ridge is wanting. The three classes into which the teeth are commonly divided, are incisores, canini, and molares or grinders.

The incisores are the four teeth in the fore part of the jaws; they derive their name from their use in dividing and cutting the food in the manner of a wedge, and have each of them two surfaces, which meet in a sharp edge. Of these surfaces, the anterior one is convex, and the postejaw they are usually broader and thicker, especially the two first, than those of the

by being placed a little obliquely.

most perfectly earnivorous.

ance of one of the canini The two grinders beyond these, on each side, are much larger. Their body forms almost a square with rounded angles; and their grinding surface has commonly five points or protuberances, two of which are on the inner, and three on the outer part of the tooth. The last grinder is shorter and smaller than the rest, and, from its coming through the gums later than the rest, and sometimes not appearing till late in life, is called dens sapientiæ. The variation in the number of teeth usually depends on these dentes sapientiæ.

Having thus described the appearance of the teeth in the adult; the manner of their formation and growth in the fœtus is next to be considered. We shall find that the alveolar process, which begins to be formed at a very early period, appears about the rior one somewhat concave. In the upper fourth month, only as a shallow longitudinal groove, divided by slight ridges into a number of intermediate depressions, under jaw, over which they generally fall which are to be the future alveoli or sockets. These depressions are at first filled The estini or cuspidati are the longest of all the teeth, deriving their name from their vascular membrane; and these pulpy subresemblance to a dog's tusk. There is stances are the rudiments of the teeth. As one of these teeth on each side of the incisores, so that there are two in each jaw, processes become gradually more com-They are the longest of all the teeth. Their fangs differ from that of the incisores only first begins to harden; the ossification proin being much larger, and their shape may be easily described to be that of an incisor with its edge worn off, so as to end in a formed. Thus, in the incisores and caagreemy point instead of a thin edge. The point is to be found. narrow point instead of a thin edge. The nuni, it begins from one point; in the bicanini not being calculated for dividing cuspides, from two points, corresponding like the incisores, or for grinding, seem to with the future shape of those teeth; and be intended for laying hold of substances. in the molares from four or five points As Mr. Hunter remarks of these teeth, that the ossification advances, the whole of the we may trace in them a similarity in shape, pulp is gradually covered with bone, exsituation, and use, from the most imperfect cepting its under surface, and then the carnivorous animal which we believe to be fang begins to be formed. Soon after the the human species, to the lion, which is the formation of this bony part, the tooth begins to be incrusted with its enamel; but The molarcs, or grinders, of which in what manner this is deposited we are there are ton in each jaw, are so called, as yet unable to explain.-Perhaps the because from their size and figure they are vascular membrane, which encloses the calculated for grinding the food. The ea- pulp, may serve to secrete it. It gradunini and incisores have only one fang, but ally crystallizes upon the surface of the the three last grinders in the under jaw bony part, and continues to increase in have constantly two fangs, and the same thickness, especially at the points and teeth in the upper jaw three fangs. Some- basis of the tooth, till some time before the times these fangs are divided into two tooth begins to pass through the gum; and points near their base, and each of these when this happens, the enamel seems to be points has, perhaps, been sometimes consi- as hard as it is afterwards, so that the air dered as a distinct fang. The grinders does not appear to have the least effect in likewise differ from each other in their ap. hardening it, as has been sometimes sup. pearance. The two first on each side, posed .- While the enamel is thus forming. which Mr. Hunter appears to have distin- the lower part of the pulp is gradually guished very properly by the name of bi- lengthened out and ossified, so as to form cuspides, seem to be of a middle nature the fang. In those teeth which are to between the incisores and grinders; they have more than one fang, the ossification

TEETH.

begins from different parts of the pulp at pletely filled with twenty teeth, as they one and the same time In this manner are afterwards with thirty-two. Hence, in are formed the incisores, the canini, and children the face is flatter and rounder than two motares on each side, making in the whole twenty teeth, in both jaws, which are sufficient for the purposes of manducation early in life. As the fangs of the teeth are formed, their upper part is gradually pushed upwards, till at length, about the seventh, eighth, or ninth mouth after birth, the incisores, which are the first formed, begin to pass through the gum. The first that appears is generally in the lower jaw. The canini and molares not being formed so soon as the incisores, do not appear till about the twentieth or twenty-fourth month. Some times one of the canini, but more frequently one of the molares appears first.

The danger to which children are exposed, during the time of dentition, arises from the pressure of the teeth in the gum, so as to irritate it, and excite pain and inflammation. The effect of this irritation is, that the gum wastes, and becomes gradually thinner at this part, till at length the tooth protrudes. In such cases therefore we may, with great propriety, assist nature by cutting the gum. These twenty teeth are called temporary, or milk teeth, because they are all shed between the age of seven and fourteen, and are supplied by others of a firmer texture, with large fangs, which remain till hey become affected by disease, or fall out in old age, and are therefore called the permanent, or adult teeth. The rudiments of these adult teeth begin to be formed at different peri-The pulp of the first adult incisor, and of the first adult grinder, may be perceived in a foctus of seven or eight months, and the ossification begins in them about six months after birth. Soon after birth the second incisor, and canine tooth on each side, begin to be formed. About the fifth or sixth year the first becaspis and about the seventh the second bicuspis begins to ossify. These bicuspides are destined to replace the temporary grinders. All these permanent teeth are formed in a distinct set of alveoli; so that it is not by the growing of one tooth under another in the same socket, that the uppermost tooth is gradually pushed out, as is commonly imagined; but the temporary teeth, and those which are to succeed them, being placed in separate alveol, the upper sockets gradually disappear, as the under ones increase in size, till at length the teeth they contain, having no longer any support, consequently fall out. But, besides these twenty teeth, which succeed the temporary ones, there are twelve others to be added to make up the number thirty-two. These mastication. And here we cannot help twelve are three grinders on each side in both jaws; and in order to make room for of the human teeth, which fits us for such a this addition, we find the jaws grow as the variety of food, and which, when compared

in adults The first adult grinder usually passes through the g.m about the twelfth year; the second, which begins to be formed in the sixth or seventh year, cuts the gum about the seventeenth eighteenth; and the third or dens sapien. tiz, which begins to be formed about the twelfth year, passes through the gum between the age of twenty and thirty. The dentes sapientiæ have, in some instances. been cut at the age of forty, fifty, sixty, and even eighty years; and it sometimes happens that they do not appear at all. Sometimes likewise it happens, that a third set of teeth appear about the age of sixty or seventy. Dermebroeck tells us that he himself, at the age of fifty-six, had a fresh canine tooth in the place of one he had lost several years before; M. du Fay saw two incisores and two canini cut the gum in a man aged eighty-four; Mr. Hunter has seen two fore-teeth shoot up in the lower jaw of a very old person; and an account was lately published of a man who had a complete set at the age of sixty. Other instances of the same kind are to be met with in authors. The circumstance is curious, and from the time of life at which it takes place, and the return of the catamenia, which sometimes happens to women at the same age, it has been very ingeniously supposed, that there is some effort in nature to renew the body at that period. The teeth are subject to a variety of ac-

Sometimes the gums become so cidents. affected as to occasion them to fall out, and the teeth themselves are frequently rendered carious by causes which have not hitherto been satisfactorily explained. The disease usually begins on that side of the tooth which is not exposed to pressure, and gradually advances till an opening is made into the cavity: as soon as the cavity is exposed, the tooth becomes liable to considerable pain, from the air coming into contact with the nerve. Besides these accidental means by which the teeth are occasionally affected, old age seldom fails to bring with it sure and n tural causes for their removal. The alveoli fill up, and the teeth consequently fall out. The gums then no longer meet in the fore part of the mouth, the chin projects forwards, and the face being rendered much shorter, the whole physiognomy appears considerably altered. . Having thus described the formation, structure, growth, and decay of the teeth, it remains to speak of their uses; the chief of which we know to be in observing the great variety in the structure teeth grow, so that they appear as com- with the teeth given to other animals, may

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an some measure enable us to explain the vision most generally received is into the nature of the aliment for which man is intended by Nature. Thus, in ruminate animals, we find incisores only in the lower jaw, for cutting the grass, and molares for grinding it; in graminivorous animals, we see molares alone; and in carnivorous animals, canine teeth for catching at their prey, and incisores and molares for cutting and dividing it. But, as man is not designed to catch and kill his prey with his teeth, we observe that our canini are shaped differently from the fangs of beasts of prey, in whom we find them either longer than the rest of the teeth, or curved. The incisores likewise are sharper in those animals than in man. Nor are the molares in the human subject similar to the molares of carnivorous animals; they are flatter in man than in these animals; and, in the latter, we likewise find them sharper at the edges, more calculated to cut and tear the food, and, by their greater strength, capable of breaking the bones of animals. From these circumstances, therefore, we may consider man as partaking of the nature of these different classes; as approaching more to the carnivorous than to the herbivorous tribe of animals; but upon the whole, formed for a mixed aliment, and fitted equally to live upon flesh and upon vegetables. Those philosophers, therefore, who would confine a man wholly to a vegetable food, do not seem to have studied nature. As the molares are the last teeth that are formed, so they are usually the first that fall out; this would seem to prove, that we require the same kind of aliment in old age as in infancy. Besides the use of the teeth in mustication, they likewise serve a secondary purpose, by assisting in the articulation of the voice.

Teething. See Dentition and Teeth TEGULA HIHEHNICA. See Lapis Hiberni-

TEGUMENTS, COMMON. Under this term anatomists comprehend the cuticle, rete mucosum, skin, and adipose membrane, as being the covering to every part of the body except the nails. See Skin

A web of cloth. The cellular membrane is so called from its likeness to

a fine web.

TELA CELLULOSA. See Cellular mem-

TELEPHICM. (Because it heals old ulcers, such as that of Telephus, made by Ulysses.) See Fabu crassu.

TELLURIUM. A very scarce metal of a tin white colour, and a high metallic lustre, found in nature alloyed with gold, silver, and lead, in the aurum paradoxicum and sylvanite.

TEMPERAMENTUM. (From tempe-To, to mix together.) The peculiar con- affords a pas age to the portio dura of the stitution of the humours. Temperaments and to yor seventh pair of nerves 5 Be-

sanguinous, phlegmatic, choleric, and melancholic.

TEMPLE. The lateral and flat parts of the head above the ears.

TEMPORALIS ARTERIA. The 'emporal artery. A branch of the external caroud, which runs on the temples and give off the frontal artery.

TEMPORAL BONES. Ossa tempora-Ossa temporum These two bones, which are situated one on each side of the head, are of a very irregular figure. They are usually divided into two parts, one of which from the manner of its connexion with the neighbouring bones, is called os squamosum, and the other os petrosum, from its irregularity and hardness.

In both these parts there are processes and cavities to be described Externally there are three processes; one anterior, called zygomatic process, which is stretched forwards to join with the os malæ, and thus forms the bony jugum under which the temporal muscle passes; one posterior, called the mastoid or mamillary process, from its resemblance to a nipple; and one inferior, called the styloid process, from its shape, which is said to resemble that of the ancient stylus scriptorius. In young subjects this process is united with the bone by an intermediate cartilage, which sometimes, even in adults, is not completely ossified Three muscles have their origin from this process, and borrow half of their names from it, viz stylo-glossus, stylo-hyordeus, and stylo-pharyngeus. Round the root of this process there is a part cular rising of the os petrosum, which some writers describe as a process, and, from its appearance with the s yloid, have named it vaginalis, others describe the semi-circular ridge of the meatus anditorius externus as a fifth process, to which they give the name of auditory. The depressions and cavities arc, 1 A large fossa, which serves for the articulation of the lower jaw; it is situated between the zygomatic auditory, and vaginal processes, and is separated in its middle by a fissure into which the ligament that secures the articulation of the lower jaw with this bone is fixed. The fore part of this cavity, which receives the condyle of the jaw, is covered with car-ilage; the back part only with the perios enni. 2 A long ossa behind the mustoid process, where the digastrie muscle has its origin. 3 The meatus auditorius externus, the name given it a large funnel-like canal that leads to the organ of heating. 4. The style masteid hole, so called from its situation between the s ylood and mastord processes It is I kewise called the aqueduct of Fallopius, and have been variously distinguished: the di- low and on the fore part of the last foramen we observe part of the jugular fossa, nous substance; there is no appearance a thimble-like cavity, in which the begin- either of the mastoid or styloid processes. ning of the internal jugular vein is lodged, and, instead of a long funnel-like meatus 6. Before, and a little above this fossa is auditorius externus, there is only a smooth the orifice of a foramen, through which bony ring, within which the membrana pass the internal carotid artery and two filaments of the intercostal nerve. This conduit runs first upward and then forward, forming a kind of elbow, and terminates at the end of the os petrosum. 7. At this part of the ossa temporum we observe the orifice of a canal which runs outwards and backwards in an horizontal di rection, till it terminates in the cavity of the ear called tympanum. This canal, which in the recent subject is continued from the ear to the mouth, is called the culus.) Arcardi-temporo-maxillaire of Du-Eustachian tube. We shall speak of it more mas. This muscle, which Winslow has particularly hereafter. 8 A small hole behind the mastoid process, which serves for the transmission of a vein to the lateral sinus. But this, like other foraming in the tien of the temporal bone; from the lower skull that serve only for the transmission of and lateral part of the os frontis; from vessels, is neither uniform in its situation, the posterior surface of the os malz; from nor to be met with in every subject. The internal surface of these bones may easily be divided into three parts. The first, up- lower part of this process. This latter permost and largest, is the squamous part, portion, however, is often common to this which is slightly concave from the impression of the brain. Its semicircular edges is sloping, so that the external lamella of fibres converge, so as to form a strong the bone advances farther than the internal, and thus rests more securely on the parietal jugum, and is inserted into the coronoid bones. The second and middlemost, which process of the lower jaw, to which it adis the petrous part of the bone, forms a heres on every side, but more particuhard, craggy protuberance, nearly of a triangular shape. On its posterior side we observe a large foramen, which is the meatus auditories internus; it receives the double nerve of the seventh pair, viz. the por- ously described as a part of the aponeurotio dura and portio modis of that pair. About the middle of its anterior surface is a small for men, which opens into the aque- circumference of the origin of the muscle, duct of Failopius, and receives a twig of the portio dura of the seventh pair of the ridge where the zygomatic process nerves. This foramen having been first described by Fallopins, and by him named hiatus, is sometimes called hiatus Fallopii. itself, and anteriorly to the smalz. Besides these, we observe other smaller fascia serves as a defence to the muscle, holes for the transmission of blood-vessels and likewise gives origin to some of its fleshy and herves. rance is the third part, which, from its muscle is to draw the lower jaw upwards, shape and connexion with the os occipitis by means of the lambdoidal suture, may be called the lambdoidal angle of the temporal bone. It is concave from the impression of the brain; it helps to form the posterior and inferior fossæ of the skull, and has a considerable furrow, in which is lodged part of the lateral sinus. The temporal bones differ a little in their structure from the other bones of the cranium. At their upper parts they are very thin, and tendo. almost without diploë, but below they have great strength and thickness. In the fætus, the thin upper part, and the lower craggy part, are separated by a cartilagi-

tympani is fastened. Within the petrous part of these bones there are several cavities, processes, and bones, which belong altogether to the ear, do not enter into the formation of the cranium, and are described under the article Ear. The ossa temporum are connected by suture with the ossa parietalia, the os occipitis, the ossa malarum, and the os sphenoides, and are articulated with the lower jaw,

TEMPORALIS (Temporalis sc. mus. named the crotophyte, arises fleshy from the lower, lateral, and anterior part of the parietal bone; from all the squamous porall the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and sometimes from a ridge at the muscle and the pterygoideus externus. It is of a semicircular shape, and its radiated middle tendon, which passes under the larly at its fore part, where the insertion is continued down to the body of the bone. This muscle is covered by a pretty strong fascia, which some writers have erronesis of the occipito-frontalis. This fascia adheres to the bones, round the whole and, descerding over it, is fixed below to begins, just above the meatus auditorius; to the upper edge of the zygomatic process Below this craggy protube- fibres. The principal use of the temporal as in the action of biting; and as it passes a little forwards to its insertion, it may at the same time pull the condyle a little backwards, though not so much as it would have done if its fibres had passed in a direct line from their origin to their insertion, because the posterior and lower part of the muscle passes over the root of the zygomatic process, as over a pulley.

Achillie See TENDO ACHILLIS.

TENDON. (Tendo, from tendo, to stretch.) The white and glistening extremity of a muscle. See Muscle.

(From Telva, to cen-TENESMUS.

stringe; so called from the perception of a continual constriction or bou d state of the part.) A continual inclination to go to stool, without a discharge.

TENSOR (From tende, to stretch.)

to which it is fixed.

TENSOR PALATI. See Circumflexus.

TENSOR TYMPANI. Internus auris of Diu les and Cowper Internus mallei of Winslow, and salpingo mulleen of Dumas A muscle of the ear, which pulls the malleus and the membrane of the tympan m towards the petreous portion of the temporal bone, by which the membrana tympani is made more concave and 'ense.

TENSOR VAGINÆ FEMORIS. Fas. Membranosus of Douglas branus vel fuscia lata of Cowper, and Ilio apmeurosi femoral of Dum s. Musculus aponeurosis, vel fascia lata of Winslow. A muscl, situated on the outside of the thigh, which stretches the membranous fascia of the thigh, assists in the abduction of the thigh, and somewhat in its rotation in-It arises by a narrow, tendinous, and fleshy beginning from the external part of the anterior, superior, spinous process of the ilium, and is inserted a little below the great trochanter into the membranous fascia.

TENT. A roll of lint for dilating open-

TENTORIUM. A process of the dura mater, separating the cerebrum from the cerebellum It extends from the internal horizontal spine of the occipital bone, directly forwards to the sella turcica of the sphænoid bone.

TEREBELLA. (Dim. of terebrn, a piercer or gamblet.) A trepan or instrument for sawing out circular portions of the skull.

A trephine.

TEREBINTHINA. (From Tegesiveos, the turpentine tree.) Turpentine, the

produce of pine-trees.

TEREBINTHINA ARGENTAROTEN-Strasburg turpentine. This species is generally more transparent and less tenacious than either the Venice or Chio turpentines. It is of a yellowish brown colour, and of a more agreeable smell than any of the turpentines, except the Chio. It is extracted in several parts of Germany, from the red and silver fir, by cutting out, successively, narrow strips of the back In some places a resinous price is codected from under the bark called Cachrym ab egna, and oleum abietinum

TEREBINTHINA CANADENSIS. Canada turpentine. A production of the pinus balsamen See Balsamum Canadense.

TEREBINTHINA CHIA. Cyprus turpentine. The resin obtained from the pistacia terebinthus. See Chio turpentine.

TEREBINTHINA COMMUNIS. See Terebinthina vulgaris.

TEREBINTHINA CYPRIA. See Chio turpen-

TEREBINTHINA VENETA. turpen ine; so called because we are supplied with it from the V netians. A muscle whose office is to extend the part species of turpentine issues spontaneously through the bark of the Pinus lang; folis fasciculatis mollibus obtusiusculis bracteis ex tra squamas strobilorum exuntibus. Hort. It is usually thenner than any of the other sorts; of a clear whitish or pole yellowish colour; a hot, pungent, bitterish, disagreeable taste; and a strong smell, without any thing of the atomatic flavour of the chian kind For its virtues see Turpentines

TEREBINTHINA VULGARIS. Common turpentine. The liquid resin of the pints sylvestris. See Turpentine.

TEREBUNTHINE OLEUM. The oil distilled from the liquid resin of the pinus

TERES. Round, smooth. 1. The name

of some muscles and ligaments.

2. The name of the ascaris lumbricoides, or round worm, which infests the intestines. Teres ligamentum. The ligament at the bottom of the socket of the hip joint,

TERES MAJOR TERES MAJOR (Teres sc. Musculus major. Teres, round, smooth) Riolanus, who was the first that distinguished this and the other muscles of the scapula by particular appellations, gave the name of teres to this and the following muscle, on account of their long and round shape. Anguliscapulo. Humeral, of Damas. This muscle, which is longer and thicker than the teres minur, is situated along the inferior costa of the scapula, and is in part covered by the deltoides.

It arises fleshy from the outer surface of the inferior angle of the scapula, (where it covers some part of the infra spinacus and teres minor, with both which its fibres intermix,) and likewise from the lower and posterior half of the inferior costa of the scapula. Ascending obliquely towards the os humeri, it passes under the long head of the triceps brachii, and then becomes thinner and flatter to form a thin tendon of about an inch in breadth, and somewhat more in length, which runs immediately behind that of the latissimus dorsi, and is inserted along with it into the ridge at the inner side of the groove that lodges the long head of the biceps. These two tendons are included in a common capsula, besides which the tendon of this muscle adheres to the os humen, by two other capsulæ which we find placed one above the other.

This muscle assists in the rotatory motion of the arm, and Lkewise in drawing it downwards and backwards; so that we may consider it as the congener of the latissimus dorsi.

TERES MINOR. Marginisus scapulotrochiterien of Dumas. This muscle seems to 306

The teres minor is a thin fleshy muscle, situated along the inferior edge of the infra spinatus, and is in part covered by the

posterior part of the deltoides

It arises fleshy from all the convex edge. of the inferior costa of the scapula; from thence it ascends obliquely upwards and forwards, and terminates in a flat tendon, which adheres to the lower and posterior part of the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the lower part of the great tuberosity of the os humeri, a little below the termination of the infra-spinatus.

The tendinous membrane, which is continued from the infra-spinatus, and spread over the teres minor, likewise forms a thin septum between the two muscles. In some subjects, however, they are so closely united, as to be with difficulty separated from each other. Some of the fibres of the teres minor are intermixed with those of the teres major and subscapularis.

The uses of this muscle are similar to

those of the infra spinatus.

TERRA LEMNIA. Earth of Lemnos. See Bole.

TERRA LIVONICA See Bole.
TERRA MERITA. The curcuma or turmeric root is sometimes so called.

TERRA MORTUA See Terra damnata. TERRA PONDEROSA SALITA. See Murias

baryte.

TERRA SIGILLATA. See Bole. TERRE OLEUM. See Petroleum.

TERREA ABSORBENTIA. Absorbent earths, distinguishable from other earthy and stony substances by their solubility in acids, as chalk, crabs, claws, oyster-shells, egg-shells, pearl, cor 1, &c.

TERTHRA. (From TEgggov, a crane) The

middle and lateral parts of the neck. Tertian ague. See Febris intermittens.

DUPLEX. TERTIANA fever that returns every day; but the paroxysms are unequal, every other fit being alike.

TERTIANA DUPLICATA. fever returning very other day; but there are two paroxysms in one day.

See Febris in-TERTIANA FEBRIS.

termittens.

TERTIANA TRIPLEX. A tertian fever returning every day; every other day there are two paroxysms, and but one in the in-

termediate one.

TERTIANARIA. (From tertiana, a species of intermittent fever which is said to be cured by this plant ) The plant which is thus called in some pharmacopæras is the Scutellaria galericulata foriis cordato lanceolatis, crenatis; floribus axillaribus of Linnaus, which is common in the hedges and I has a bitter ditches of this country. taste and a garlic smell, and is said to be serviceable against that species of ague which attacks the patient every third day.

(From tertius, thi-' TERTIUM SAL.

have been first described by Fallopius. A neutral salt as being the product of an acid, and an alkali making a third body different from either.

> TESSERA. (From reoraga, four.) A four-square bone. The cuboid bone,

> TESTA PROBATRIX. (Quasi tosto, from torreo, to burn.) A cupel or test. A pot for separating baser metals from gold and

TESTADO. (From testa, a shell; because it is covered with a shell ) A tortoise, a snail. An ulcer, which, like a snail, creeps under the skin.

TESTES CEREBRI. See Tubercula qua

drigemina.

TESTICLE. Testes. Orchis. called dydimi, and by some perin. Two little oval bodies situated within the scrotum, and covered by a strong, white and dense coat, called tunica albuginea iestis. Each testicle is composed of small vessels, bent in a serpentine direction, arising from the spermatic artery, and convoluted into little heaps, separated from one another by cellular partitions. In each partition there is a duct receiving semen from the small vessels; and all the ducts constitute a net which is attached to the tunica albuginea. From this net-work twenty or more vessels arise, all of which are variously contorted, and, being reflected, ascend to the posterior margin of the testis, where they unite into one common duct, bent into serpentine windings, and forming a hard body called the epididymis. The spermatic arteries are branches of the aorta. The spermatic veins empty themselves into the vena cava and emulgent vein. nerves of the testicle are branches of the lumbar and great intercostal nerve. The use of the testicle is to secrete the semen.

Testicle, swelled See Orchitis. TESTICULUS. (Testiculus, dim. of testis.) A small testicle. Also the orchis plant, so named from the resemblance of its roots to a testicle.

TESTICULUS CANINUS. See Satarion.

TESTIS. (A witness, the testes being the witnesses of our manhood ) See Testicle.

TETANOMATA. (From TETAVOW, to smooth.) Tetanothra. Medicines which smooth the

skin, and remove wrinkles.

TETANUS. (From Ture, to stretch.) Spasm with rigidity. Convulsio indica. Holotonicos. Rigor nervosus. A genus of disease in the class neuroses and order spusmi of Cullen; characterised by a spasmodic rigidity of almost the whole The varieties of tetanus are, 1. body. Opisthotonos, where the body is thrown back by spasmodic contractions of the muscles. 2. Emprosdotonos, the body being bent forwards. 3. Trismus, the locked jaw. Tetanus is often symptomatic of syphilis and worms.

These affections arise more frequently in warm climates that in cold ones, and are

sultry weather. They attack persons of all nate costiveness prevails, and both the ages, sexes, temperaments, and complex- flexor and extensor muscles of the lower ions, but the male sex more frequently than extremities are commonly affected at the the female, and those of a robust and vigor- same time, so as to keep the limbs rigidly ous constitution than those of a weak ha- extended. An idea is entertained by many, Dr. Tho has observes, that negroes are more come at length so strongly affected, as to predisposed to attacks of tetanus than white balance the action of the extensors, and to people; they certainly are more frequent- keep the head and trunk so rigidly ex-

jury by puncture, incision, or laceration, strictly applied. Lacerated wounds of tendinous parts prove, in warm climates, a never-failing every organ of voluntary motion becomes source of these complaints. In cold cli. affected; the eyes are rigid and immoveable mates, as well as in warmones, the locked in their sockets, the countenance is hide-jaw, or trismus, frequently arises in conse-ously distorted, and expresses great disquence of the amputation of a limb.

quence of a puncture, or any other exter. puts a period to a most miscrable state of nal mjury, the symptoms shew themselves generally about the eighth day, but when it proceeds from an exposure to cold, they

sooner.

In some instances it comes on suddenly, and with great violence; but it more usually makes its attack in a gradual manner; in which case, a slight stiffness is at first per. tempt to speak, drink, or alter his position. ceived in the back part of the neck, which, after a short time, becomes considerably in- quence of a wound, puncture, or laceracreased, and at length renders the motion tion, in warm climates, Dr. Thomas obof the head both difficult and painful,

With the rigidity of the head there is likewise an uneasy sensation at the root of putation, likewise proves usually fatal. the tongue, together with some difficulty in swallowing, and a great tightness is per- exposure to cold, they may in most cases eeived about the chest, with a pain at the be removed by a timely use of proper reextremity of the sternum, shooting into medies, although a considerable space will the back. A stiffness also takes place in probably clapse before the patient will be the jaws, which soon increases to such a able to recover his former strength. height, that the teeth become so closely set together as not to admit of the smallest fusions within the cranium have been obopening. This is what is termed the locked served in a few instances; but in by far the

extends no farther. In others the spasm other organ. at this stage of the disease, returning with great frequency become likewise more ge- quartan fever. neral, and now affect not only the muscles of the neck and jaws, but likewise those aver, an ointment.) An ointment of four of the whole spine, so as to bend the trunk ingredients. of the body very forcibly backwards, and this is what is named opisthotonos. Where ay los, a cup; so called because its fruit rethe body is bent forwards the disease is sembles a cup divided into four parts.) called emprosthotonos.

During the whole course of the disorder, the abdominal muscles are violently affect. and orgunarora, a drug ) A medicine comed with spasm, so that the belly is strongly posed of four ingredients.

ture quickly succeeds excessive dry and retracted, and feels very hard, most obsti-

The flexors of the head and trunk bedoes not arise from any constitutional pre-does not arise from any constitutional pre-disposition, but from their being more ex-posed to punctures and wounds in the feet, are now likewise rigidly extended, the by nails, splinters of wood, pieces -f broken tongue also becomes affected with spasm, glass, &c. from usually going bare-footed, and being convulsively darted out, is often Tetanic affections are occasioned either much mivred by the teeth at that moment Tetanic affections are occasioned either much injured by the teeth at that moment by exposures to cold, or by some irritation of the nerves, in consequence of local in-

The disorder continuing to advance, tress; the strength is exhausted, the pulse When the disease has arisen in consc. becomes irregular, and one universal spasm

existence.

Attacks of tetanus are seldom attended with any fever, but always with violent generally make their appearance much pain, and the spasms do not continue for a constancy, but the muscles admit of some remission in their contraction, which is renewed every ten or fifteen minutes, especially if the patient makes the least at-

When tetanic affections arise in conseserves, they are almost sure to prove fatal. The locked jaw, in consequence of an am-When these affections are produced by an

On dissections of this disease, slight efgreater number, nothing particular has In some cases, the spasmodic affection been discovered, either in the brain, or any

(Teragraice, fourth.) TETARTA US.

TETRAMERUM. (From rereas, four, and

TETRANGURIA. (From TETERS, four, and The citrul.

TETHAPHAHMACEM. (From Tergas, four,

Tetters. See Herbes.

TEUCRIUM (From Teucer, who discovered it.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Didynamia Order, Verticillatæ The herb speedw. ll.

TER

name of the poley mountain of Montpelier.

See Polium montanum.

TEUCRIUM CHAMEDRYS. tic name of the common germander. See ance it in general has, from which circum-Chamædrys.

TEUCRIUM CHAMÆPITYS.

TEUCHIUM CRITICUM. name of the poley mountain of Candy. See See Catechu. Polium creticum.

TEUCRIUM MARUM. The systematic name um. of the Syrian herb mastich. See Marum Syriacum.

LEUCRIUM MONTANUM. tic name of the common poley mountain, near to each other, in appearance white, See Polium montanum.

of the golden poley mountain. See Polium wards, a little downwards, and upwards. montanum.

TEUCRIUM SCORDIUM. name of the water germander. See Scor- of sea-water and honey,

TERETRUM. (From τεgew, to pierce.) rish.) 1. The name of a genus of plants The trepan.

TERMINALIA BENZOIN.

gum-tree.

TERMINTHUS. (From περμινθος, the tur- also called Rhuburbarum panperum. The pentine tree.) Albatis. Black and ardent root of this plant, Thalictrum flavium of pustules, mostly attacking the legs of fe- Linnæus, is said to be aperient and stomamales; so called from their resemblance to chic, and to come very near in its virtues the fruit of the turpentine-tree.

TERNARY. three, which some chemical and mystical writers have made strange work with; but name of the poor man's rhubarb. See Thathe most remarkable distinction of this lictrum. kind, and the only one worth notice, is that of Hippocrates, who divides the parts where it was found.) The deadly carrot of a human body into continentes, content Thapsia asclepias of Linnaus. The root ta, and impetum facientes, though the lat- operates violently both upwards and downter is resolvable into the mechanism of the wards, and is not used in the present practwo former, rather than any thing distinct tice. in itself.

TERRA. Earth, as distinguished from The great white mullein, or cows lungminerals and metals and precious stones.

TERRA CARIOSA. Rotten bone, a species of non-effervescent chalk, of a brown of this tree; viz. 1. The bohea, or black colour.

TERRA CATECHU. See Catechu.

TERRA DAMNATA. Terra mortua. Condemned earth, is the remainder after some feet. distillations, where all that will rise is drawn off; the same as Caput mortuum.

The acetate TERRA FOLIATA TARTARI.

of potash.

TERRA JAPONICA. Catechu vulgo. Terra Japonica. Cachou. posed to the steam of boiling water, and Faufel. Catchu. Caschu. Catechu. Cadt- then dried on copper-plates; yet it is now the English who reside there Cutch. It till they become dry and shrivelled; when

was called Japan earth, because it was long supposed to be an earthy substance from It is the inspisated juice of a Japan. species of mimosa, which grows in great abundance in the kingdom of Bahar. It is TEUCRIUM CAPITATUM. The systematic prepared from a decoction of the inner part of the wood. From the negligent method in which it is dried in little kilns dug for The systema- that purpose, it acquires the earthy appearstance it takes its name. In the kingdom The systema. of Bahar, besides being much used in metic name of the ground pine. See Chamæ- dicine, it is employed for many purposes in arts, particularly for paining the beams The systematic of houses, to defend them from vermin,

TEUTHRUM. (Teudgov.) The herb poli-

THALAMI NERVORUM OPTICO. RUM. (Φαλαμος, a bed.) Two bodies, The systema. which form in part the optic nerve, placed protruding at the base of the lateral ven-TEUCRIUM POLIUM. The systematic name tricles, and running in their direction in-

> THALASSOMELI. (From θαλασσα, the sea, The systematic and mean, honey.) A medicine composed

THALICTRUM. (From θαλλω, to flouin the Linnzan system. Class, Polyandria.

The Benjamin Order, Polyginia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of what is to rhubarb. It is a common plant in this Consisting of the number country, but seld m used medicinally.

THALICTRUM FLAVUM. The systematic

THAPSIA. (From Thapsus, the island

THAPSUS. (From the island Thupsus.)

wort.

THEA. Tea. There are two species tea; and 2. The viridis, or green tea; both of which are natives of China or Japan where they attain the height of five or six

Great pains are taken in collecting the leaves singly, at three different times, viz. about the middle of February, in the beginning of March, and in April. Although Japan earth. some writers assert, that they are first ex-Caitchu. Castjoe. Cacha understood that such leaves are simply Kuath. The natives call it Cutt, dried on iron plates, suspended over a fire, cool, they are packed in tin boxes to exclude the air, and in that state exported to

Europe.

kinds of green, and five of bohea. The from the deliciousness of its fruit.) Cacao former class includes, 1. Imperial or bloom ten, having a large leaf, a faint smell, and being of a light green colour. 2. Hyson, which has small curled leaves, of a green shade inclining to blue. 3 Single tea, thus termed from the place where it is cultivited. The bolicus comprehend: 1. Son- heal.) Therapia. The art of healing dischong, which, on inf sion, imparts a yellowish green colour. 2. Camho, a fine tea, emitting a fragrant violet smell, and yielding a pale shade; it receives its name from the province where it is reared 3. Pekoe tea is known by the small white flowers that are mixed with it. 4. Congo has a larger leaf than the preceding variety, and yields a deeper tint to water; and 5. Common bohea, the leaves of which are of an uniform green colour. There are besides other kinds of tea, sold under the names of gunpowder tea, &c. which differ from the preceding, only in the minuteness of their leaves, and being dried with additional care.

Much has been said and written on the medicinal properties of tea; in its natural state it is a narcotic plant, on which account the Chinese refrain from its use till it has been divested of this property by keeping it at least for twelve months. If, however, good tea be drunk in moderate quantities, with sufficient milk and sugar, it invigorates the system, and produces a temporary exhibaration; but when taken too copionsly, it is apt to occasion weakness, tremor, palsies, and various other symptoms arising from narcotic plants, while it contributes to aggravate hysterical and hypochondriacal complaints. Tea has also been supposed to possess considerable diuretic and sudorific virtues, which, however, depend more on the quantity of warm water employed as a vehicle, than the quality of the tea itself. Lastly, as infusions of these leaves are the salest refreshment after undergoing great bodily fatigue or mental exertion; they afford an agrecable beverage to those who are exposed to cold weather; at the same time tending to support and promote perspiration, which is otherwise liable to be impeded.

THEA GERMANICA. Fluellin; male speed-

well. Sec Veronica

THEBAICA. (A Thebaide regione, from Thebe, where it flourished.) The Egyptian poppy

THEBESH FORAMINA. The orifices of veins in the cavities of the heart.

THECA VERTEBRALIS. (Theca, from τιθημι, to place) The vertebral canal.
ΤΠΕΙΥΡΥΕΝΙS. (From θηλος, female, and

πτιεις, fern.) The female fern.

THENAR. (Thenar, sc. musculus.) Flexor brevis pollicis manus.

Theobroma CACAO (Theobroma, from Teas are divided in Britain into three bear, he gods, and Rewna, food; so called Indian The systematic name of the tree which affords cocoa and chocolate.

> Theodoricum (From 8001, the gods, and Sogor, a gift ) The pompous name of

some nuclotes.

THERAPEIA. (From θεραπυα, to eases.

THERAPEUTICS. (Therapeutica, from gaπευω, to cure.) Therapia. Metho-Bεξαπευω, to cure.) Therapia. Metho-dis medendi. That branch of medicine which treats of the operation of the different means employed for obviating diseases, and of the application of these

Theriaca. (From Sng, a viper or venomous wild beast.) Treacle, or molasses: also a medicine appropriated to the cure of the bites of venomous animals, or to resist poisons.

THERIACA ANDROMACHI. The Venice or Mithridate treacle; a composition of sixty-one ingredients, prepared, pulver-ised, and with honey formed into an electuary.

THERIACA CELESTIS. Liquid lauda.

THERIACA COMMUNIS. Common treacle, or molasses.

THERIACA DAMOCRATIS. An old preparation usually called Confectio Damo-

Edinburgh the. THERIACA EDINENSIS. riaca The thebaic electuary.

THERTACA JERMANORUM. A rob of juni-

per-berries.

THERIACA LONDINENSIS. A cataplasm of cummin seed, bay-berries, germander, snake-root, cloves and honey.

THERIACA RUSTICORUM. The roots of the common garlie were so called. See

Allium.

THERIOMA. (From Ongico, to rage like a wild beast ) A malignant ulcer.
THERME. Warm baths or springs. See

Medicinal waters.

THERMOMETER. (Thermometrum, from begun, heat, and mergew, to measure.) An instrument for measuring the degrees of heat. See Caloric.

Thigh bone. See Femer.

THIRST. Sitis. The sensation by which we experience a desire to drink. The seat of this sensation appears to be either in the fauces or the stomach

Thistle, carline. See Chameleon album.

Thiste, toly. See Cardina benedictus.
Thistle, pine. See Cardina gummifera.
THLASPI. (From 6120, to break, because its seed appears as if it were broken or bruised.) 1. The name of a genus

5 L

of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Tetradynamia Order, Siliculosa.

2. The pharmaceutical name of the herb penny-cress. Two species of thlaspi are directed in some pharmacopias for medici. See Arbor vita. nal uses; -the Thlaspi arvense of Linnaus, or treacle mustard, and Thlaspi campestre of Linnxus, or mithridate mustard. seeds of both have an acrid biting taste approaching to that of common mustard, with which they agree nearly in their pharmaceutic qualities. They have also an unpleasant flavour, somewhat of the garlic or onion kind.

THLASPI ARVENSE. The systematic name of the treacte mustard. See Thlaspi.

The systematic THLASPI CAMPESTRE. name of the mithridate mustard. See Thlastn

THORACIC DUCT. Ductus thorathe absorbents; of a serpentine form, and about the diameter of a crow-quill. It resembles that of our mezereum. Garou lies upon the dorsal vertebræ, between the bark is to be immersed in vinegar for aorta and vena azygos, and extends from about an hour before it is wanted, a small the posterior opening of the diaphragm piece, the size of a sixpence, thus steeped, to the angle formed by the union of the is applied to the arm or any other part, subclavian and jugular veins, into which and renewed once a day in winter and it opens and evacuates its contents. In twice in summer. It produces a serous this course the thoracic duct receives the exudation from the skin without irritating absorbent vessels from every part of the or blistering. It is recommended, and is body.

THORAX. (From Dapea, to leap, be- against some diseases of the eyes. cause in it the heart leaps.) The chest. That part of the body situated between the neck and the abdomen. The external wood. Thus judeorum. A bark in small parts of the thorax are, the common integuments, the breasts, various muscles, and of leaves, seeming as if the bark and leaves the bones of the thorax. (See Bones and had been bruised and pressed together, Respiration.) The parts within the cavity brought from Syria, Cicilia, &c. and supof the thorax are, the pleura and its pro- posed to be the produce of the liquid ductions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, storax tree. This bark has an agreeable ductions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, osophagus, thoracic duct, arch of the balsamic smell, approaching to that of aorta, part of the vena cava, vena azygos, liquid storax, and a sub-acrid bitterish the eighth pair of nerves, and part of the taste accompanied with some slight adgreat intercostal nerve.

Thorn, Egyptian. The Mimosa nilotica

See Arabic gum. of Linnæus

Thorn-apple See Stramonium. Thorn, black. See Prunus sylvestris.

THROMBUS. (From Seew, to disturb.) A small tumour which sometimes arises after bleeding, from the blood escaping from the vein into the cellular structure surrounding it.

Thrush. See Aphtha.

(From beunta, to break.) THRYPTICA. Lithontriptics, medicines which are said to have the power of destroying stones in the bladder.

The cascarilla and THURIS CORTEX. eleuthera barks, were so called. See

THUS. (From Dvw, to sacrifice, so called from its great use in sacrifices.) Olibanum

THUS JUDEORUM. See Thymiama.

THUS MASCULUM. See Olibanum.

THUYA OCCIDENTALIS. (Thuya, from 600); odour, so named from its fragrant smell.) The systematic name of the tree of life,

THYLACITIS. (From bunaxos, a seed. vessel, so called from its large head.) The white garden poppy.

(From bunes, thyme; so THYMBRA. named because it smells like thyme.) See Satureja.

THYMBRA HISPANICA. The name given by Tournefourt to the common herb mas. tich. Se e Marum vulgare.

Thyme, lemon. See Serpyllum citratum. Thyme, mother of. Sce Serpyllum.

THYMELEA. (From buna, an odour, because of its smell.) Oneoron. Spurgeflax. Flax-leaved Daphne. This plant, Daphne guidium : panicula terminali foliis Ductus Pecquettii. The trunk of lineari-lauceolatis accuminatis of Linnaus, affords the garou bark, which very much in frequent use in France and Russia

THYMIAMA (From buma, an odour, so called from its odoriferous smell) Muskbrownish grey pieces, intermixed with bits

stringency.

THYMIUM. (From bumos, thyme, because it is of the colour of thyme.) A small wart upon the skin.

(From Bupos, thyme, THYMOXALME. ogus, acid, and axs, salt.) A composition of

thyme, vinegar and salt.

THYMUS. (A TO TE Suma, because it was used in faintings; or from Jupa, an odour, because of its fragrant smell.) 1. A gland of considerable size in the fætus, situated in the anterior duplicature or space of the mediastinum, under the superior part of the sternum. An excretory duct has not yet been detected, but lymphatic vessels have been seen going from it to the thoracic duct. Its use is unknown,

2. A small indolent carnous tubercle like a wart arising about the anus, or the pudenda, resembling the flowers of thyme, from whence it takes its name.

Class, Didynamia. Or- and its use is not yet known. Linnæan system

der, Gymnospermia. Thym ..

unigaris of Linnaus; -erectus foliis revo- Fosilus; and, from its resemblance to an butis ovatis, floribus verticillato spicatis, old musical instrument, Canna major; has an agrecable aromatic smell, and a Canna-domestica cruris. The largest bone warm pungent taste. Its virtues are said of the leg. It is of a long, thick and trito be resolvent, emmenagogue, tonic, and angular shape, and is situated on the instomachic; yet there is no disease men- ternal part of the leg. Its upper extremity tioned in which its use is particularly re- is large, and flattened at its summit, where commended by any writer on the materia we observe two articulating surfaces, a little medica.

THYMUS CRETICUS. bears this name in some pharmacopæias external one is rounded, and more superis the Satureja capitata of Linnaus, which ficial. Each of these, in the recent sub-possesses similar virtues to our thyme, but ject, is covered by a cartilage, which in a strenger degree.

THYMUS MASTICHINA.

Marum vulgare.

THYMUS SERPYLLUM.

THYMUS VULGARIS. name of the common thyme. See Thy- termediate protuberance, or tubercle, is

tached to the thyroid cartilage; as,

lus thyro-arytenoideus) A muscle situated covered with cartilage, which serves for about the glottis, which pulls the ary-the articulation of the fibula; and at the THYRO-ARYTENOIDEUS. larynx

Musculus thyro-THYRO-HYOIDEUS. the os hyoides and trunk, which pulls the os hyoides downwards, and the thyroid

cartilage upwards.

See Thyro-pharyngeus.

pharyngis inferior.

lato-pharyngeus.

THYROID GLAND dea. A large gland situated upon the critachment of the interoseous ligament; could cartilage, trachea, and horns of the and the internal one is more rounded still thyroid cartilage. It is uncertain when the conglobate or conglomerate. Its

The tibia enlarges again a little at its ther it be conglobate or conglomerate. Its

3. The name of a genus of plants in the excretory duct has never been detected,

TIBIA. (Tibia, the hautboy, qu. tubia, 4. The pharmacopæial name of the from tuba, a tube; so called from its pipe-common thyme. This herb, the Thymus like shape.) Focile majus; Arundo major; concave, and separated from each other THYMUS CITHATUS. See Serpyllum citra. by an intermediate irregular protuberance. Of these two cavities, the internal one is The plant which deepest, and of an oblong shape, while the extends to the intermediate protuberance, The systematic where it terminates. These two little name of the common herb mastich. See cavities receive the condyles of the os femoris, and the eminence between them The systematic is admitted into the cavity which is seen name of the mother of thyme. See Serpyl. between the two condyles of that bone; so that this articulation affords a specimen of The systematic the complete ginglimus. Behind the ina pretty deep depression, which serves for Names compounded with the attachment of a ligament, and likethis word belong to muscles which are at. wise to separate the two cavities from each other. Under the edge of the ex-(Muscu- ternal cavity is a circular flat surface, tenoid cartilage forwards nearer to the fore part of the bone is a considerable middle of the thyroid, and consequently tuberosity, of an nch and a half in length, shortens and relaxes the ligament of the to which the strong ligament of the rotula is fixed

The body of the tibia is smaller than hyordeus.) A muscle, situated between its extremities, and, being of a triangular shape, affords three surfices. Of these, the external one is broad, and slightly hollowed by muscles above and below; Constrictor the internal surface is broad and flat, and the poster or surface is narrower than the Thyno-pharyngo starmilinus. See Pa- other two, and nearly cylindrical. This last has a slight ridge running obliquely across it, from the outer side of the upper end of the bone to about one-third of its THYROID CARTILAGE. (Cartilago length downwards. A little below this thyroidea, from Dugeoc, a shield, and aboc, we observe a passage for the medullary. resemblance, from its supposed resem vessels, which is pretty considerable, and blance to a shield.) Scutiform cartilage, slants obliquely downwards. Of the three The cartilage which is placed perpendicu- angles which separate these surfaces, the lar to the cricoid cartilages of the laryux, anterior one, from its sharpness, is called constituting the anterior, superior, and the spine, or shin. This rudge is not straight, largest part of the larynx. It is harder but describes a figure like an Italic f, and more prominent in men than in wo- turning first inwards, then outwards, and men, in whom it forms the pomum adami. Lastly inwards again. The external angle Glandala thyrois is more rounded, and serves for the at-

lower extremity, and terminates in a pretty deep cavity, by which it is articulated with the uppermost bone of the foot. This cavity, in the recent subject, is lined with cartilage. Its internal side is formed into a considerable process, called malleolus internus, which, in its situation, resembles the styloid process of the radius. This process is broad, and of considerable thickness, and from it ligaments are extended smell, in which their virtue seems to conto the foot. At its back part we find a sist, and abound with a strong mucilage. groove, lined with a thin layer of cartilage, in which slide the tendons of the flexor digitorum longus, and of the tibialis posticus; and a little behind this is a smaller groove, for the tendon of the flexor longus potlicis. On the side opposite to the malleolus internus, the cavity is interrupted, and immediately above it is a rough triangular depression, which is furnished with cartilage, and receives the lower end of the fibula,

The whole of this lower extremity of the bone seems to be turned somewhat outwards, so that the malleolus internus is situated more forwards than the inner border of the upper extremity of the

bone.

In the fætus both ends of the tibia are cartilaginous, and become afterwards epi-

physes.

TIBIAL ARTERIES. Arteriæ tibiales. The two principal branches of the popliteal artery: the o e proceeds forwards, and is called the auterior tibial; the other the native xid, termed so from its fibrous backwards, and is called the posterior ti- texture. This variety has hitherto been bial; of which the external tibial, the fiber found only in Cornwall. It occurs in fraglar, the external and internal plantar, and the plantal arch, are branches.

TIBIALIS ANTICUS. (Musculus tibialis anticus.) Tibio-sus-metatarsien of Dumas A flexor muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, which bends the foot by drawing it upwards and at the same time turns

the toes inwards

TIBIALIS GRACILIS. See Plantaris.

TIBIALIS POSTICUS (Musculus tibialis posticus ) Tibio tursien of Dumas. A flexor muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, which extends the foot, and turns the toes inwards.

A painful affec-TIC DOLOUREUX tion of the nerves of the face, particularly of that branch of the lifth pair, which comes out of the infraorbitary foramen.

Grana tilli. TIGETA GRANA. tiglii The grana tilia are seeds of a dark grey colour, the produce of Troton tylium of Linnaus, in shape very like the seed of the ricinus communis. They abound with an oil which is far more acrid and purgative than castor-oil.

TILBURY WATER. This is found at West Tilbury in Essex. It is an aperient and chalybeate now seldom used medici-

nally.

TILIA. (Please, ulmus, the elm-tree.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan sys'em. Class, Polyandria. Or-

der, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the lime or linden tree. Tilia Europea of Linnaus. The flowers of this tree are supposed to possess anodyne and antispasmodic virtues. They have a moderately strong They are in high esteem in France.

TILIA EUROPÆA. The systematic name

of the lime-tree. See Tilia.
TILIA GRANA. See Tiglio Grana.

TILMUS. (From TINAW, to pluck.) Floccitatio or picking of bed-clothes, observable in the last stages of some disorders.

TIMAC. The name of a root imported from the East Indies, which is said to possess diuretic virtues, and therefore exhibited in dropsies It is not known from

what plant it is obtained.

TIN. Stannum. Jupiter of the alchemis:s It has been much doubted whether this metal is found native. In the opinion of Kirwan there are sufficient authorities to determine the question in the affirmative. The native oxid of tin, or tin stone, occurs both massive and crystallized. Its colour is a dark brown, sometimes yellowish grey. When crystallized, it is somewhat transparent. The wood tin ore is a variety of ments which are generally round, and its colour is brown, sometimes inclining to yellow. Tin is also found mineralized by sulphur, associated always with a portion of copper, and often of iron. This ore is called tin pyrites Its colour is yellowish grey. It has a metallic lustre, and a fibrous or lamellated texture; sometimes it exhibits prismatic colours. Tin is comparatively a rare metal, as it is not found in great quantity any where but in Cornwall or Devonshire; though it is likewise met with in the mines of Bohemia, Saxony, the island of Buca, the peninsula of Malacca, and in the East Indies.

Properties of tin .- Tin is of a brilliant white colour, though not quite so white as silver. It is one of the lightest of the metals; its specific gravity, when ham-mered, being 7299. It is very fusible, melting at about 410° Fahr. By intense heat it is volatilized. It becomes oxidated by a moderate degree of heat. It easily bends and emits a noise, called the crackling of tin. It is exceedingly soft and ductile. It may be reduced to very thin leaves. Tin foil, or tin leaf, which is tin beat out, is about one-thousandth part of an inch thick. It has scarcely any sound.

tallizes in rhombs formed of small octable. matter of vegetables, and generally those dra. It unites, by fusion, with phosphorus parts of animal bodies in which their pecuand suphur. It does not decompose liar smell and taste reside. water alone, or in the cold; but easily by means of many other bodies. It decom- tracted almost equally by water and recposes the sulphuric acid, and unites with tified spirit; but in the watery and spiritthe sulphureous acid. It decomposes the wows tinctures of them there is this differ nitric acid, and is very soluble in murianc ence, that the active par s in the watery acid. Nitromuriatic acid acts on it very extractions are blended with a large proreadily. It is slightly soluble in the fluo- portion of inert guminy matter, on which ric and boracic acids. Phosphoric acid at acks it by heat. Tartareous acid has measure depends, while rectified spirit no perceptible action on it. The oxalic extracts them almost pure from gum. and acetic a ids dissolve it in small quan- Hence, when the spirituous tinctures are tities. The alkalies appear to have some mixed with watery liquors, a part of what action on it by heat. I combines with the spirit had taken up from the subject sulphuret of polash by fusion. It unit s generally separates and subsides, on acwith the greater number of the met As with count of its having been freed from that facility. It decomposes muriate of mer- matter, which, being blended with it in cury and muriate of ammonia. I causes the original vegetable, made it soluble in nitrate of potash to de onate. It takes fire spontaneously in oxigenated muriatic acid gas, and is capable of combining with two different proportions of oxigen.

Method of obtaining tin-In order to in both mensiqua. obtain tin from its ore, a mere fusion of it, with pounded charcoal, is sufficient. Or, a certain quantity of the ore is first freed from sulphur and arsen c by torrifaction; after which it is mixed with equal parts of potash, one half of common resin, and two their green tincture, which for the most parts of black flux; the mixture is then fused in a crucible covered with charcoal, by means of which the inetal is recovered in its metallic state. In order to obtain of spirituous tinctures; and hence they pure tin, let the tin obtained before be rapidly dissolved in strong mitric acid with heat. Thus some of the metals it may this does not appear from experience; in contain will be held in solution, and others the trials which have been made no more become oxidated, but muriatic, or nitro- was found to be taken up in the deepmuriatic acid will, on digestion, take up coloured tinciures than in the paler ones, those oxids, and after sufficient ablution, and often not so much; if the alkali be leave that of tin, which may afterwards added after the extraction of the tincture, be reduced by mixing it when pulverised it will heighten the colour as much as when with double its weight of a flux formed of mixed with the ingredients at first equal parts of pitch and borax, or resin and addition of these salts in making tinctures borax, and puting it into a covered cruci- is not only needless but prejudicial, as they ble, lined with charcoal, which must be generally injure the flavour of aromatics, placed in a forge, and strongly heated for and superadd a quality sometimes contraa quarter of an hour.

TINCE OS. (Tinca, a tench.) The mouth of the uterus is so called by some writers, from its resemblance to a tench's mouth.

TINCAL. See Borax.

Tixcrories. (From tingo, to die.) An epithet of a species of broom used by dyers: the genista tinctoria of Lungus.

TINCTURA. (From tingo, to dye a tinctura.) A solution of any substance in spirit of wine. Recaified spirit of wine is tified spirit, four fluidounces." the direct menstraum of the resins, and in a sand bath until the extract is dissolved, essential oils of vegetables, and totally and then strain. This preparation posextracts these active principles from sun- sesses stomachic and purgative qualities, dry vegetable matters, which yield them but should never be given where there is a to water not at all, or only in part. It tendency to hamorrhoids. In choleric

It resists the action of the air. It crys- dissolves likewise the sweet saccharine

The virtues of many vegetables are extheir solubility in this menstrum in a great water. This, however, is not universal, for active parts of some vegetables when extracted by rectified spirits, are not precipitated by water, being almost soluble

Rectified spirit may be tinged by vegetables of all colours, except blue: the leaves of plants, in general, will give out little of their natural colour to watery liquors, communica e to spirit the whole of part proves elegant, though not very durable.

Fixed alkaline salts deepen the colour have been supposed to promote the dissolving power of the menstruum, though ry to the intention of the medicine.

Volatile alkaline salts, in many cases, promote the action of the spirits. generally weaken it; unless when the acid has been previously combined with the vinous spirit into a compound of new qualities, called dulcified spirit.

TINCTURA ALOES. Tincture of aloe. "Take of the inspissated juice of spike aloe, half an ounce; extract of liquorice, an ounce and half; water, a pint; rec- . Macerate

cases and amennorhea it is preferred to other purges. The dose is from half a fluidounce to an onnce.

TINCTURA ALOES COMPOSITA. Compound tincture of aloe, formerly called Elixir aloes: Elixir proprietatis. "Take of extract of spiked aloe, powdered, saffron, of each three ounces; uncture of myrrh, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. A more stimulating compound than the former. It is a useful application to old indolent ulcers. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to two drachms.

TINCTURA ALOES VITRIOLATA. With the bitter inf sion a drachm or two of this clegant tincture is extremely serviceable against gonly and rheumatic affections of the stomach and bowels, and also in the weaknesses of those organs which frequent-

ly attend old age.

TINCTURA ASSAFŒTIDÆ. Tinc ure of assafætida, formerly known by the name tinctura fætida. "Take of assafætida, four onnces; rectified spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days and strain. Diluted with water, this is mostly given in all kinds of fits, by the vulgar. It is a useful preparation as an antispasmodic, especially in conjunction with vitriolated zinc. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to two drachms.

TINCTURA AURANTII. Tincture of orangepeel, formerly tinctura corticis aurantii. "Take of fresh orange-peel, three ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. A mild and

pleasant stomachic bitter.

TINCTURA BENZOINI COMPOSITA. Compound tincture of benzoin, formerly known by the names of tinctura benzoes composita, and balsamum traumaticum. " Take of benzoin, three ounces; storax balsam, strained, two ounces; balsam of Tolu, an ounce; extract of spiked aloe, an ounce and half; rectified spirit, two pints."
Macerate for fourteen days, and strain This tincure is more generally applied externally to ulcers and wounds than given internally, though possessing ex- Tinotura cascarilla. Tincture of pectorant, antispasmodic, and stimulat- cascarilla. "Take of cascarilla-bark, ing powers. Against coughs, spasmodic powdered, four ounces; proof spirit, two ing powers. Against coughs, spasmodic affections of the stomach and bowels, and diarrhea, produced by illegrations of strain. A stimulating aromatic tonic, that those parts, it is a very excellent medianay be exhibited in debility of the bowels cine. The dose when given internally is from half a fluiddrachm to two drachms dil ted.

Tincture of ca-TINCTURA CALUMBR. lumba, formerly called tinctura columbæ. "Take of calumba root, powdered, two ounces and a half; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. This tincture contains the active part of stimulant and antispasmodic, mostly exhithe root, and is generally given with the infusion of it, as a stomachic and adstringent.

TINCTURA CAMPHONE COMPOSITA. Compound tincture of camphor, fowerly called tinctura opii comphoratu; and chair "Take of camphor, two paregoricum. screples; opiom, dred and powdered. benzoic acid, of each a drachn; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. The London college has changed the name of this preparation, because it was occasionally the source of mistakes under its old one, and tincture of opium was sometimes substituted for it. It differs also from the former preparation in the omission of the oil of aniseed, which was often complained of as disagreeable to the palate, and to which, as an addition, no increase of power could be affixed. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to half an ounce.

TINCTURA CANTHARIDIS. See Tinctura Lytta.

TINCTURA CAPSICI. Tincture of capsi-"Take of capsicum berries, an onnce; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain.

Tincture of TINCTURA CARDAMOMI. "Take of cardamom-seeds, cardamom. bruised, three ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. A powerful stimulating carminative. In spasm of the stomach, an ounce with some other diluted stimulant is given with advantage. The dose may vary according to circumstances, from half a drachm to an ounce and upwards.

TINCTURA CARDAMOMI COMPOSITA pound tincture of cardamom, formerly called tinctura stomuchica. "Take of called tinctura stomachica. cardamom-seeds, carraway-seeds, cochineal, of each bruised, two drachms; cinnamon-bark, bruised, halfan ounce; raisins, stoned, four ounces; proof spirit, two pmis." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. A useful and elegant carminative and cordial The dose from half a fluiddrachm to half an ounce and upwards.

pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and may be exhibited in debility of the bowels and stomach, and in those cases of fever in which the Peruvian bark proves purgative. The dosc from half a drachm to two drachms.

TINCTURA CASTOREI. Tincture of castor. " Take of castor, powdered, two ounces; rectified spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. A powerful bited in hysterical affections in a dilute form. The close is from half a fluiddrachm to two drachms.

TIN

chu, formerly known by the name tinctura in the cure of dropsical and other cachecjaponica. "Take of extract of catechu, tie diseases. The dose is from half a cumamon-bark, bruised, of each two oun-fluiddrachm to two drachms. ces; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate TINCTURA FERRI MURIATIS. for fourteen days, and strain. An aroma- of muriate of iron. Formerly called tinctic adstringent, mostly given to the hys- tura martis in spiritu salis: tinctura martis terical epilepsy of young women, which cum spiritu salis: and lately known by the arises from irregularity in the menstrual name of tinctura ferri muriati. "Take of discharge. The dose is from half a fluid- subcarbonate of iron half a pound; mu-

chona. Formerly known by the name of of iron in a glass vessel, and shake it octinctura corticis peruviani simplex. "Take ensonally for three days. Set it by, that of lance-leaved cinchona bark, powdered, the faces, if there be any, may subside; seven ounces; proof spirit, two pints." then pour off the solution, and add the Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. spirit. Mr. Cline strongly recommends The dose is from a draelim to half a fluidounce. For its virtues see Cinchona.

TINCTURA CINCHONA COMPOSITA. Compound tinetura of cinehona. "Take of chalybeate, and serviceable against most lanee-leaved cinchona bark, powdered, two ounces; orange-peel, dried, an ounce and half; serpentary root, bruised, three drachms; salfron, a drachm; eochineal, powdered, two scriples; proof spirit, twenty fluidonnees." Macerate for four-teen days, and strain. The dose is from one fluiddrachm to half an ounce. For its virtues see Cinchona.

TINCTURA CINNAMOMI. Tincture of cinnamon Formerly ealled aqua ciunamomi fortis. "Take of e mnamon bark, bruised, three ounces; proof spirit, two pints"
Macerate for fourteen days. The dose is from a fluiddraelim to three drachms or

TINCTURA CINNAMOMI COMPOSITA Compound lineture of cinnamon Formerly called tinctura aromatica. " Take of cinnamon bark, bruised, six drachms; eardamom-seeds, bruised, three draelims; long pepper, powdered, ginger-root, sliced. of each two drachms; proof spirit, two pints." Maeerate for fourteen days, and strain. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to two drachms or more.

TINCTURA DIGITALIS Tincture of foxglove. "Take of fox-glove leaves, dried, four ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Matincture is introduced in the London Pharthe plant in a convenient, uniform, and permanent form; it is a saturated tineture, and in the same proportions h s been long used in general practice. The dose is from ten 10 forty minims. For its virtues see Digitalis.

tura ferri ammoniacalis: tinctura florum rationsofthis bitter have lately been strong-martialium, tinctura martis mynsichti. "Take ly recommended by Mr. Freke, (Obserspirit, a pint." Digest and strain. This ployed by many practitioners, who believe is a most excellent chalybeate in all atonic that it unites sedative and tonic powers,

TINCTURA CATECHU. Tincture of cate- affections, and may be given with cinchona

drachm to two drachms.

Tineture of ein-pints." Pour the acid upon the carbonate this in ischuria and many diseases of the kidneys and urinary passages. The dose is from ten to twenty drops. It is a good diseases of debility without fever.

TINCTURA GENTIANA COMPOSITA pound tineture of gentian. Formerly ealled tinctura amara, "Take of gentian root, sliced, two ounces; orange-peel, dried, an ounce; eardamom-seeds, bruised, half an ounce; proof spirit, two pints." Maccrate for fourteen days, and strain. The dose is from one fleiddrachm to two drachins For its virtues see Gentiana.

TINCTURA GUALACI. Tincture of guaia-cum. "Take of guaiacum gum resin, half a pound; reet fied spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. This tincture, which possesses all the active parts of this peculiar vegetable matter, is now first introduced into the London Pharmacopæia. The dose is from one fluiddrachm to two drachms. For its virtues see Guatacum.

TINCTURA GUAIACI AMMONIATA. Ammoniated tineture of guaiacum. Formerly ealled tinctura guaiacina volatilis "Take of gualacum gum resin, powdered, four ounces; compound spirit of ammonia, a pint and half." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. The dose is from one fluiddrachm to two drachms.

TINCTURA HELLEBORI NIGRI. Tineture of cerate for fourteen days, and strain. This black hellebore Formerly called tinctura "Take of black helleboremelampodii macopeia as possessing the properties of root, sheed, four ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Maeerate for fourteen days, and strain. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to a drachm. For its virtues consult Helleborns niger.

l'incrura numuli. Tineture of hop. "Take of hops, five ounces; proof spirit, TINCTURA FERRI AMMONIATI. Tineture two pints.' Macerate for fourteen days, and of ammoniated iron, formerly called tine. strain. Various modifications of the prepaof ammoniated iron, four ounces; proof vations on Humidus Lupulus,) and emand thus forms a useful combination. The drops, to half a fluiddrachm. For its virdose is from half a fluiddrachm to a tues see Opium. drachm. See Humulus.

bane. "Take of henbane leaves, dried, rhabarbari, and tinctura rhabarbari spirituofour ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Ma. sa "Take of rhubarb-root, suced, two cerate for fourteen days, and strain. That ounces; cardamom-seeds, bruised, an ounce the henbane itself is narcotic is abundant and half; saffron, two drachins; proof ly proved, that the same power is also spirit, two pints. Macerate for fourteen found in its tincture is also certain, but to days, and strain. The dose is from half a produce the same effects requires a much fluidounce to an onnce and half. For its larger dose. In some of the statements virtues see Rhabarbarum. made to the College of Physicians of Lon- TINCTURA RHEI COMPOSITA. Compound don a different opinion has been given, and tincture of rhubarb. Formerly called tine. twenty five drops have been considered as tura rhabarbari composita. "Take of rhuequivalent to twenty of tincture of opium; barb-root, sliced, two ounces; liquoriceit does not produce costiveness, or the sub- root, bruised, half an ounce; ginger root, sequent confusion of head which follows sliced, saffron, of each two drachms; wathe use of opium, and will therefore be, ter, a pint, proof spira, twelve fludounces." even if its powers be weaker, of consider-Macerate for fourteen days, and strain, able use. The dose is from ten minims. This is a mild stomachic aperient. The to one fluiddrachin.

TINCTURA JALAPE. Tincture of jalap. and half.

Formerly called tinctura jalapii. "Take Tinctura scille. Tincture of squills of jalap-root, powdered, eight onness; "Take of squills-root, fresh dried, four proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate fourteen days, and strain. The dose is rate for fourteen days, and strain. The vir-

"Take of kino, powdered, three ounces; drachm. proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. All the adstrin- Formerly called elixir salutis "Take of gency of kino is included in this prepara- senna-leaves, three ounces; carrawaytion. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm seeds, three drachms; cardamom-seeds, to two drachms See Kino.

ing fly. Formerly called tinctura canthari- for fourteen days, and strain. A carminadis:-tinctura cantharidum. " Take of tive, aperient, and purgative in doses from blistering flies, bruised, three drachms; two drachms to a fluidounce. See Senna-proof spirit, two pints." Macerate for TINCTURA SERPENTARIE. Tincture of fourteen days, and strain. In the last edi- serpentary Formerly called tinctura sertion of the London Pharmacopæia the penturic virginiane. "Take of serpentacolouring matter of the former preparation ry root, three ounces; proof spirit, two is omitted as useless, and that of the fly pints." Macerate for fourteen days, and increased. It is a very acrid, diuretic, and strain. This tincture possesses, in addition stimulating preparation, which should al. to the virtues of the spirit, those of the ways be administered with great caution serpentaria. The dose is from half affuidfrom its known action on the parts of gene-drachm to two drachms. See Serpentaria-ration. In chronic eruptions on the skin, TINCTURA VALERIANE. Tincture of va-and dropsical diseases of the aged, it is lerian. Formerly called tinctura valeriane often very useful when other medicines simplex. have been inert. The dose is from half a ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Macefluiddrachm to two drachms.

rectified spirit, twenty-two fluidounces; drachm to two drachms. See Valeriana. water, a pint and half." Macerate for TINGTURA VALERIANE AMMONIATE. Amfourteen days, and strain. The dose is from moniated tincture of valerian. Formerly half a fluiddrachm to a drachm. For its called tinctura valeriane volatilis. " Take virtues see Myrrha.

"Take of hard opium, powdered, two for fourteen days, and strain. A strong ounces and a half; proof spirit, two pints." antispasmodic and stimulating tincture. Macerate for fourteen days, and strain. The dose is from half a fluiddrachm to two The dose is from ten minims, or twenty drachms.

TINCTURA RHEI. Tincture of rhubarb. TINCTURA HYOSCIAMI. Tincture of hen- Formerly known by the names of tinctura

dose is from half a fluidounce to an ounce

from one fluiddrachm to half an ounce. For tues of the squill (see Scilla) reside in its virtues see Jalapa. this tincture, which is administered in its virtues see Jalapa. this tincture, which is administered in Tinctura kino. Tincture of kino doses of from twenty drops to a fluid-

TINCTURA SENNE. Tincture of senna. bruised, a drachm; raisins, stoned, four TINCTURA LYTTE. Tincture of blister. ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Macerate

" Take of valerian-root, four rate for fourteen days, and strain. A use-TINCTURA MYRRED. Tincture of myrrh. ful antispasmodic in conjunction with "Take of myrrh, bruised, three ounces; others. The dose is from half a fluid-

of valerian-roo, four ounces; aromatic TINCTURA OFIL. 'Tincture of opium, spirit of ammonia, two pints." Macerate

TINCTURA VERATRI. A very active alterative, recommended in the cure of epilepsy and cutaneous cruptions. administration requires great caution; the white hellebore being a powerful poison.

TINCTURA. ZINZIBERIS. Tincture of ginger. "Take of ginger-root, sliced, two ounces; proof spirit, two pints." Maccrate for fourteen days, and strain. stimulating carminative. The dose is from a fluiddraehm to three draclins.

Tincture of aloes. See Tinctura aloes.

Tinct re of assafatida. See Tinctura assufatida.

Tincture of black hellebore. See Tinc-

tura hellebori nigri.

Tincture of blistering fly. See Tinctura

Tincture of calumba. See Tinctura calumbæ.

Tincture of capsicum. See Tinctura capsici.

Tincture of cardamom. Sec Tinctura

cardamomi. Tincture of cascarilla. See T'inctura

cascarilla. Tincture of castor. See Tinctura cas-

Tincture of catechu. See Tinctura catechn.

Tincture of cinchona. Sce Tinctura cin-

Tincture of cinnamon. See Tinctura cin-

Tincture of fox-glove. Sec Tinctura digi-

Tincture of guaiacum. Sec Tinctura guaiaci

Tincture of guaiacum, ammoniated. Tinctura guaiaci ammoniati.

Tincture of ginger. See Tinctura zinzi-

Tincture of henbane. See Tinctura hy-

Tincture of hops. See Tinctura hu-

Tincture of jalap.

Tincture of kino. See Tinctura kino. Tincture of myrrh. See Tinetura

Tincture of opium. Sec Tinctura opii. Tincture of orange-peck. See Tinctura aurantii.

Tincture of rhubarb. See Tinctura rhei. Tincture of serpentary.

serpentariæ.

Tincture of squills. Sec scillæ.

Tincture of valerian. See Tinctura va-

Tinctura valeriane ammoniata.

tura alocs composita.

Tincture, compound, of benzoin. See Tinctura benz ini composita.

Tincture, compound of camphor. See Tinctura camphore compositu. Tincture, compound, of cardamom See

Tinctura cardamomi composita. Tincture, compound, of cinnamon. See

Tinctura cinnamomi composita.

Tincture, compound, of cinchona. See Tinctura cinchonæ composita.

Tincture, compound, of gentian. See

Tinctura gentianæ composita. Tincture, compound, of rhubarb. See

Tinctura rhabarbari composita

TINEA CAPITIS. (Tinea, from teneo, to hold ) The sald-head A genus of disease in the class locales and order dialyses of Collen; characterised by small ulcers at the root of the hairs of the head, which produce a friable white erust.

Tiu-glass. See Bismuth.

TINNITUS AURIUM. See Paracusis.

TITANIUM. This is a lately disco-It was first noticed by vered metal Macgregor as existing in the state of an oxid, mixed with iron, manganese, and silex, in a greyish black sand found in the vale of Menachan in Cornwall, and thence named menachanite, or oxid of titanium, combined with iron. It has since been discovered by Klaproth, in an ore named titanite, or oxid of titanium, combined with lime and silex. This ore is generally met with crystallized in four-sided prisms, not longer than a quarter of an inch. Its colour is a yellowish red, or blackish brown; it is opaque and of an imperfect lustre. It breaks with a foliated, uneven, or conchoidal fracture. It exists also in an ore ealled red schorl of Hungary, or red oxid of titanium. This ore, which is found gcnerally erystallized in reetangular prisms. is of a brownish red colour; and its texture foliated. In all these ores titanium exists in the state of an oxid

Properties of titanium -Titanium has See Tinctura ja- been only obtained in very small agglatinated grains. It is of a red-yellow and crystalline texture, brittle and extremely refractory. Its specific gravity is about 4.2; when broken with a hammer while yet hot from its recent reduction it shows a change of colours of purple, violet, and blue. In very intense heat it is volatilized. Most of the acids have a striking ac-Tincture of senna. See Tinctura senna, tion on this metal. Nitrie and has little See Tinctura effect upon it. It is very oxidable by the muriatic acid. It is not attacked by the Tinctura alkalies. Nitro-muriatie acid converts it into a white powder. Sulphurie acid when boiled upon it is partly decomposed. It is one of the most infusible metals. It does Tincture of valerian, ammoniated. See not combine with sulphor, but it may be united to phosphorus. It does not alloy Tincture, compound, of aloes. See Tinc. with copper, lead, or arsenic, but combines with iron.

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tremely difficult to reduce the oxid of tita- the pia mater, give it a flocky appearance, nium to the metallic state. However, the TONIC SPASM. (Spasmus tonicus, experiments of Klaproth, Hecht and Vauquelin, have proved its reducibility. According to the two latter, one part of oxid of titanium is to be melted with six of potash; the mass when cold is to be dissolved in water. A white precipitate will be formed which is carbonate of titanium. This carbonate is then made into a paste with oil, and the mixture is put into a crucible filled with charcoal powder and The whole is then exa little alumine posed for a few hours to the action of a strong heat. The metallic titanium will be found in a blackish puffed-up substance, possessing a metallic appearance.

TOM

TITHEMALUS. (From TITHOS, a dug, and Maxos, tender; so called from its smooth leaves and milky juice.) Spurge. Two plants are directed for medicinal purposes by this name. See Tithymalus paralios

and Esula minor.

TITHYMALUS CYPARISSIUS. See Esula

TITHYMALUS PARALIOS. Sea spurge. Every part of this plant, Euthorbia jaralius of Linnæus, is violently camartic and irritating, inflaming the mouth and fauces. It is seldom employed in the practice of this country; but where it is used vinegar is recommended to correct its irritating power.

TITHYMELEA. See Thymelea.

(From titillo, to tickle; tory ducts. TITTILLICUM. so called from its being easily tickled.) The arm-pit.

Toad flax. See Linaria. Tobucco. See Nicotiana. Tobucco, English. See Nicotiana minor. Tobacco, Virginian. See Nicotiana.

TOES. Digiti pedis. They consist of dicines applied to a particular place. three distinct bones disposed in rows called phalanges, or ranks of the toes. The great toe has but two phalanges; the others have three ranks of bones, which have nothing particular, only the joints are made round and free, formed by a round head on one bone, and by a pretty deep hollow for receiving it, in the one above it.

Tolu balsam. Sec Balsamum Toluta-

TOLUIFERA HALSAMUM. The systematic name of the tree which affords the Tolu balsam. See Balsamum Tolutanum

TOLUTANUM HALSAMUM. See Balsamum

(From TEUVE, to cut.) An TOMETUM.

incision-knife.

(From tomentum, a flock TOMENTITIA. of wool; so called from its soft coat.) Cot- pain; because it was supposed to relieve ton-weed.

(Tomen-TOMENTUM CEREBRI. tum, a flock of wool.) The small vessels that penetrate the cortical substance of the brain, from the pia mater, which, when taphyllum. Consolida rubra. Common

Method of obtaining titanium .- It is ex- separated from the brain, and adhering to

(Spasmus tonicus. Torinos, from Terro, to pull or draw.) Con. tractura a spasmo. A rigid contraction of the muscles, without relaxation, as in trismus, tetanus, &c. See Tetanus

TONICS. (Medicamenta tonica, from τονεω, to strengthen) Medicines which increase the tone of the muscular fibre; such as stimulants, adstringents, &c.

TONGUE. Lingua. A soft fleshy viscus, very moveable in every direction, situated inferiorly in the cavity of the mouth, and constituting the organ of taste, It is divided into a base, body, and back, an inferior surface, and two lateral parts. It is composed of muscular fibres, covered by a nervous membrane, on which are a great number of nervous papillæ, particularly at the apex and lateral parts; the rete mucosum, and epidermis. The arteries of the tongue are branches of the ranine and labial. The veins empty themselves into the great lingual, which proceed to the ex ernal jugular. The nerves come from the eighth, ninth, and fifth pair. The use of this organ is for chewing, swallowing, sucking, and tasting. See also Tuste

TONSILS Tonsille. Amygdule Toles. Tolles. Two oblong, sub oval glands, situated one on each side of the fauces, and opening into the cavity of the mouth by twelve or more large excre-

Tooth. See Teeth

Touth-ache See Odontalgia.

TOPHUS (Toph, Hebrew.) Epipo. roma. The concretion on the teeth or in Also gravel. the joints of gouty people.

TOPICA. (From Toxos, a place.) Me-

TOPINARIA. A species of tumour in the skin of the head.

TORCULAR. (From torqueo, to twist) The tourniquet; a bandage to\_check hamorrhages after wounds or amputations.

FORCULAR HEROPHILI (Torcular, from torqueo, to twist.) Lechencon Lenos The press of Herophilus. That place where the four sinuses of the dura mater meet together, first accurately described by Herophilus, the anatomist.

TORDYLIUM OFFICINALE (Tordyllium quasi tortilium, from torqueo, to twist; so named from is tortuous branches) The systematic name of the officinal seseli creticum. See Seseli creticum.

Tormentil See Tormentilla.

TORMENTILLA. (From tormentum, pain in the teeth.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Icosandria. Order, Monogynia

2. The pharmacopoial name of the hep-

termentil, or upright septfoil. Tormentilla erecta of Linnaus:—caule erectiusculo, beam.) This word is mostly applied by foliis sessilibus. The root is the only part anatomists to the small medullary fibres of the plant which is used medicinally: of the brain, which constitute the commisit has a strong styptic taste, but imparts no sures. peculiar sapid flavour: it has been long held in estimation as a powerful adstrin- ness; from τεαχυς, rough.) The windgent; and, as a proof of its efficacy in this way, it has been substituted for oak-bark in the tanning of skins for leather. Tormentil is ordered in the pulvis crete compositus of the London Pharmacopæia.

TORMENTILLA ERECTA. The systematic name of the upright septfoil. See Tor-

mentilla.

TORMINA. Gripes. Pains in the bowels

TORPOR. A numbness, or deficient sensation.

TORTICOLLIS. (From torqueo, to twist, and collum, the neck.) The wry neck. TORTURA OSSIS. The locked jaw.

TOTA HONA. See Bonus Henricus.
TOUCH. Tactus. The sensation by which we perceive any thing that is applied to the skin. The organ of touch is formed by the nervous papilla, which are situated all over the skin, but more especially at the points of the fingers.

Touch me not. See Noli me tangere. Touch-wood See Agaricus.

TOURNIQUET. (French, from tour-ner, to turn.) An instrument used for stopping the flow of blood into a limb.

TOXICARIA MACASARIENSIS, An Indian poison, obtained from a tree hitherto undescribed by any medical botanist, known by the name of Boas-upas; it is a native of South America. Concerning this plant various and almost incredible particulars have been related, both in ancient and modern times; some of them true, others probably founded on superstition. Rumphius testifies that he had not met with any other more dreadful produced from any vegetable. And he adds, that this poison, of which the Indians boast, covered anteriorly by a considerable body, was much more terrible to the Dutch than any warlike instrument. He likewise says, it is his opinion, that it is of the same natural order if not of the same genus as the cestrum.

TUXICODENDRUM. (From Togicov, a poison, and ferdeor, a tree ) The poison-tree, which is so noxious that no insects ever

come near it.

TOXICOLOGY. (Toxicologia, from with some poisonous substance; and xoyos, a discourse.) A dissertation on poisons. Se Poison

TOXICUM. (From Togor, an arrow, which was sometimes poisoned.) Any deadly poison.

The artimesia or mug-TOXITESIA. wort.

TRABECULA. (Trabecula, a small

TRACHEA. (So called from its roughpipe. The trachea is a cartilaginous and membranous canal, through which the air passes into the lungs. Its upper part, which is called the larynx, is composed of five cartilages. The uppermost and smallest of these cartilages, is placed over the glottis or mouth of the larynx, and is called epiglottis, as closing the passage to the lungs in the act of swallowing. The sides of the larynx are composed of the two aryteno d cartilages, which are of a very complex figure, not easy to be described. The anterior and larger part of the larynx is made up of two cartilages, one of which is called thyroides or scutiformis, from its being shaped like a buckler; and the other cricoides or annularis, from its resembling a ring. Both these cartilages may be felt immediately under the skin, at the fore part of the thorax; and the thyroides, by its convexity, forms an eminence called the pomum adami, which is usually more considerable in the male than in the female subject.

All these cartilages are united to each other by means of very elastic ligamentous fibres; and are enabled by the assistance of their several muscles, to dilate or contract the passage of the larynx, and to perform that variety of motion which seems to point out the larynx, as the principal organ of the voice; for when the air passes out through a wound in the trachea, it produces

no sound.

These cartilages are moistened by a mucus, which seems to be secreted by minute glans situated near them. The upper part of the trachea, and the cricoid and thyroid cartilages, are in some measure which is supposed to be of a glandular structure, and from its situation is called the thyroid gland, though its excretory duct has not yet been discovered, or its real use astertained. The glottis is entirely covered by a very fine membrane, which is moistened by a constant supply of a watery fluid. From the larynx the canal begins to take the name of trachea or aspera arteria, and extends from thence as τοξον, an arrow or bow; because the darts far down as the fourth or fifth vertebræ of of the ancien's were usually besmeared the back, where it divides into two branches, which are the right and left brouchial tube. Each of these bronchia ramifies through the substance of that lobe of the lungs, to which it is distributed, by an infinite number of branches, which are formed of cartilages separated from each other like those of the trachea, by an intervening membranous and ligamentary

substance. Each of these cartilages is of transversalis cervicis and of the three supean angular figure; and as they become gradually less and less in their diameter, the lower ones are in some measure received into those above them, when the lungs, after being inflated, gradually collapse by the air being pushed out from them in expiration. As the branches of the bronchiæ cause of the rough cartilages.) The windbecome more minute, their cartilages become more and more angular and membranous, till at length they become perfeetly membranous, and at last become invisible. The trachea is furnished with fleshy or muscular fibres, some of which pass through its whole extent longitudinally, while the others are carried round it in a circular direction, so that by the contraction or relaxation of these fibres, it is enabled to shorten or lengthen itself, and likewise to dilate or contract the diameter of its passage. The trachea and its branches, in all their ramifications, are furnished with a great number of small glands which are lodged in their cellular substance, and discharge a mucous fluid on the inner surface of these tubes.

The cartilages of the trachea, by keeping it constantly open, afford a free passage to the air which we are obliged to be incessantly respiring; and its membranous part, by being capable of contraction or dilatation, enables us to receive and expel the air in a greater or less quantity, and with more or less velocity, as may be required in singing and declamation. membranous structure of the trachea posteriorly, seems likewise to assist in the descent of the food, by preventing that impediment to its passage down the osophagus, which might be expected, if the cartilages be complete rings. The trachea receives its arteries from the carotid and subclavian arteriés, and its veins pass into the jugulars. Its nerves arise from the recurrent branch of the eighth pair, and from the cervical plexus

TRACHELAGRA. (From τζαχηλος, the throat, and agea, a seizure.) The gout in the neck.

TRACHELIUM. (From reaxinos, the throat; so called from its efficacy in discases of the throat.) The herb throat wort.

(From Teaxnhos, the TRACHELO. neck ) Names compounded of bis word belong to muscles which are attached to the neck; as the

TRACHELOCELE. (From reaxera, the wind-pipe, and MANN, a tumour) A wen or tumour upon the trachea.

TRACHELO-MASTOIDEUS. A muscle situated on the neck, which assists the complexus, but pulls the head more to o e It is the complexus minor seu mustoideus lateralis of Winslow. Trachelo mas- ter a thick and glutinous consistence. The verse processes of the five inferior cervical considered as similar to those of gumarabic vertebra, where it is connected with the It is seldom given alone, but frequently in

rior dorsal, and it is inserted into the middle of the posterior part of the mastoid process.

TRACHELOPHYMA. (From τεαχηλος, the throat, and quaa, a tumour.) A swelling of the bronchial gland.

TRACHELOS. (From Teaxus, rough, be-

TRACHEOTOMY (Tracheotomia, from τραχυς, rough, and τεμνω, to cut.) Laryngotomia. A synonym of bronchotomy. See B onchotomy

TRACHOMA. (From reaxue, rough.) An asperity in the internal superfices of the eyelid. The effects are a violent ophthalmia, and a severe pain, as often as the evelid moves. The species are,

1. Trocoma subulosum, from sand falling between the eye and the eyelid of persons travelling, blown by a high wind; this happens chiefly in sabulous situations, and may be prevented by spectacles for the purpose, or by guarding against the flights of sand by covering the eyes.

2 Trachoma carunculosum, which arises from caruncles, or fleshy veruca, growing in the internal superfices of the evelid. This species of the trachoma is called morum palpebræ internæ, because the tuberculous internal superfices appears of a livid red like a mulberry Others call these carunculæ pladorotes.

3. Truchoma herpeticum, which are hard pustules in the internal superfices of the eyelids. This is also called fycosis, and palpebra ficosa, from its resemblance to granulated substances in a cut fig. the Greeks it is nominated atomable pharon, or proptoris.

Tragacanth gum. See Tragacantha. TRAGACANTHA. (From Teaper, 2 goat, and anav Da, a thorn; so called from its pods resembling the goat's beard.) Goat's thorn. Milk-vetch. Spina hirci. Astragulus aculeatus. We are indebted to a French traveller of the name of Olivier for the discovery that the gum tragacanth of commerce, is the produce of a species of astragulus not before known. describes it under the name of astragulus verus, being different both from A. tragacantha of Linnxus, and from the A. gummifera of Labillardiere. It grows in the North of Persia. Gum tragacanth, or gum dragant, (which is forced from this plant by the intensity of the solar rays, is concreted into irregular lumps or vermicular pieces, bent into a variety of shapes, and larger or smaller proportions, according to the size of the wound from which it issues,) differs from all other known gums in imparting to a very large quantity of wacombination with more powerful medicines, especially in the form of troches, for which it is peculiarly well adapted: it gives name to an officinal powder, and is an ingredient in the compound powder of cerus

TRAGICUS. (Musculus tragicus.) A proper muscle of the ear, which pulls the point of the tragus a little forward.

TRAGIUM. (From reapor, a goat; so named from its fil by smell.) Bastard dit-

tany.

Transcenus. (From rgayor, a goar, and regar, a horn; so named from the supposed resemblance of its leaves to the horn of a

goat ) The aloe

TRAGOPOGON. (From πραγος, a goat, and πωγων, a beard; so called be ause its downy seed, while enclosed in the calyx, resembles a go is beard) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Lunnæan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygania.

2. The pharmacopeial name of the common goat's beard. The young stems of this plant, Tragopogon pratense of Linnus, are eaten like asparagus, and are a pleasant and wholesome food. The root is also excellent, and was formerly used medicinally as a diuretic.

THAGOPOGON PRATENSE. The systematic name of the common goat's beard. See

Tragopogon.

Thacopyrum. (From Tpayor, a goat, and Tugor, wheat; so named from its beard.) Buck-wheat.

Traconcurs (From reaver, a goat, and egge, a testicle; so named from the supposed resemblance of its roots to the testicles of a goat.) A species of orchis

The General Transfer of the Tr

marjoram

The soselinum. (From τg 2700, a goat, and σελινον, pursley; named from its harry coat like the beard of a goat.) The birner saxifrage was so called. See Pimpinella.

TRAGUS. (Tgayot, a goat; so called from its having numerous little hairs, or from its being hairy like the goat) A small cartilaginous eminence of the auricula or external ear, placed anteriorly, and connected to the anterior extremity of the helix. It is beset with numerous little hairs, defending in some measure the entrance of the external auditory passage.

Thans. (Tgamis) Raphe. The line which divides the scrotum, and runs on to

the anus

TRANSFUSION. (Transfusio, from transfundo, to pour from one vessel into another.) The transmission of blood from one animal to another by means of a cample.

TRANSPIRATION. (Transpiratio, from trans, through, and spire, to breathe.) A

synonym of perspiration. See Perspiration.

TRANSUDATION. The same as perspir tion

TRANSVERSALIS ABDOMINIS. A musch situated on the anterior part of the abdomien. It arises internally or posteriorly from the cartilages of the seven lower ribs, being there connected with the intercostals and diaphragm, also from the transverse process of the last vertebra of the back from these of the four upper vertebra of the loins, from the inner edge of the crista ilu and from part of Poupart's ligament, and it is inserted into the inferior bone of the sternum, and almost all the length of the linea aba. Its use is to support and compress the abdominal viscera.

TRANSVERSALIS ANTICUS PRIMUS. Sec Rectus capitis lateralis.

THANSVERSALIS CERVICIS. See Longissimus dorsi.

TRANSVERSALIS COLLI. A muscle, situated on the posterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side.

Transversalis dorsi. See Multifidus spinæ.

TRANSVERSALIS MAJOR COLLI. See Longissimus dorsi.

Thansversalis pedis (Musculus transversalis pedis) A muscle of the foot, which it contracts by bringing the great toe and the two outermost toes nearer each other.

TRANSVERSE SUTURE. Sutura transversalis. This suture runs across the face, and sinks down into the orbits, joins the bones of the sak ill to the bones of the face; but with so many irregularities and interruptions, that it can scarcely be recognised as a suture.

Transverso-spinales, See Multifidus spinæ.

TRANSVERSIS AUMS. (Musculus transversus aurs.) A muscle of the external ear, which draws the upper part of the couch towards the helix.

TRANSVERSUS PERINÆI. (Musculus transversus perinæi) A muscle of the organs of generation, which sustains and keeps the perinæum in its proper place.

Thansvensus Peringi Alten. Infrrior prestate of Winslow. A small muscle occasionally found accompanying the former.

TRAPA NATANS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the nux aquatica. See Tribulus aquaticus.

TRAPEZIUM. (A four-sided figure; so called from its shape.) The first bone of the second row of the carpus.

TRAPEZIUS (Musculus trapezius, from τρατεξιος, four-square; so named from its shape) Cucullaris. A muscle situated immediately under the integuments of the

posterior part of the neck and back. It arises, by a thick, round, and short tendon, from the lower part of a protuberance in the middle of the occipital bone backwards, and from the rough line that is extended from thence towards the mastoid process of the os temporis, and by a thin membranous tendon, which covers part of the complexus and splenius. It then runs downwards along the nape of the neck, and rises tendious from the spinous processes of the two lowermost vertebræ of the neck, and from the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the back, being inseparably united to its fellow, the whole length of its origin, by tendinous fibres, which, in the nape of the neck, form what is called ligamentum colli, or the cervical ligament. It is inserted fleshy into the broad and posterior half of the clavicle, tendinous and fleshy into one half of the acromion, and into almost all the spine of the scapula.

This muscle serves to move the scapula in different directions. Its upper descending fibres pull it obliquely upwards; its middle transverse ones pull it directly backwards; its inferior fibres, which ascend obliquely upwards, draw it obliquely

downwards and backwards.

The upper part of the muscle acts upon the neck and head, the latter of which it draws backwards, and turns upon its axis. It likewise concurs with other muscles in counteracting the flexion of the head forwards.

TRAPEZOIDES OS. The second bone of the second row of the carpus; so called from its resemblance to the trapezium or quadrilateral geometrical figure.

TRAUMATIC. (From TPAUMA, a wound.)

Any thing relating to a wound. Travellers, joy See Vitalba.

Treacle. See Theriaca.

Treacle, mustard. See Thlaspi. Trefoil, marsh. See Trifolium paludo-

TREMOR. An involuntary trembling

of parts

TREPAN. Trephine. An instrument used by surgeons to remove a portion of bone from the skull

TREPHINE See Trepan.

Triangularis See Steruocostalis and De-

pressor anguli oris.

(From Teisa, to TRIBULUS AQUATICUS vex, an instrument of war to be thrown in the way to annoy the enemy's horse: hence the name of an herb from its resemblance to this instrument.) Nux aquatica. The fruit of the trapa nata of Linnæus, of a quadrangular and somewhat oval shape, including a nut of a sweet farinaceous flavour, somewhat like that of the chesnut, which is apt to constipate the bowels, and Produce disease; a poultice of these nuts sembles fine hair.) Common maiden-hair,

is said to be efficacious in resolving hard and indolent tumours.

TRICAUDALIS. (From tres, three, and cauda, a tail.) A muscle with three

TRICEPS ADDUCTOR FEMORIS. (Triceps, from tres, three, and caput, a head; having three heads) Under this appellation are comprehended three distinet muscles. See Adductor brevis, longus,

and magnus femoris.

See Retrahentes auris. TRICEPS AURIS. TRICEPS EXTENSOR CUBITI. This muscle, which occupies all the posterior part of the os humeri, is described as two distinct muscles by Douglas, and as three by Winslow. The upper part of its long head is covered by the deltoides: the rest of the muscle is situated immediately under the integuments.

It arises, as its name indicates, by three heads. The first, or long head, (the long head of the biceps externus, of Douglas; anconeus major, of Winslow, as it is called,) springs by a flat tendon of an lach in breadth, from the anterior extremity of the inferior costa of the scapula, near its neck, and below the origin of the teres minor. The second head, (the short head of the biceps externus of Douglas; anconeus externus of Winslow), arises by an acute tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the upper and outer part of the os humeri, at the bottom of its great tuberosity. third head, (brachialis externus of Douglas; anconeus internus of Winslow), which is the shortest of the three, originates by an acute fleshy beginning, from the back part of the os humeri, behind the flat tendon of the latissimus dorsi. These three portions unite about the middle of the arm, so as to form one thick and powerful muscle, which adheres to the os humeri to within an inch of the elbow, where it begins to form a broad tendon, which after adhering to the capsular ligament of the elbow, is inserted into the upper and outer part of the olecranon, and sends off a great number of fibres, which help to form the fascia on the outer part of the fore-arm. The use of this muscle is to extend the fore-arm.

TRICHIASIS. (From TRIE, a hair.) Trichia. Trichosis. Entropeon. chiasis. Districhiasis Capillitium. Distichia. A disease of the eye-lashes, in which they are turned in towards the bulb of the eye.

TRICHISMUS. (From bpig, hair.) A species of fracture which appears like a hair,

and is almost imperceptible.

TRICHOMA. (From rpixes, the hair.) The plaited hair. See Plica polonica.

TRICHOMANES. (From TPIXES, hair, and mayor, thin, lax; so called because it reor spleen-wort. Linnaus: - froudibus pinnatis, piunis subro- lachrymal, and nasal nerves; the superior tundis crenaus. This plant is admitted maxillary into the spheno-palatine, posteinto the Edinburgh Pharmacopæia: the rioralveolar, and infra-orbital nerves; and leaves have a mucilaginous, sweetish, subadstringent taste, without any particular flavour: they are esteemed useful in disorders of the breast, being supposed to promote the expectoration of tough phlegm, tematic name of the fanugrek. and to open obstructions of the viscera.

Turcuosis. See Plica polonica.

TRICHURIS. (From Tpig, a hair.) The

long hair-worm. See Worms. TRICUSPID VALVES. (Valvulæ tricuspides, from tres, three, and cuspis, a point; so called from their being threequinted) The name of the three valves situated at the origin of the aorta and pul-

monary artery.

See Trifolium paludosum. Trifoil, water. TRIFOLIUM. (From tres, three, and folium, a lcaf; so called because it has three leaves on each stalk.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. Trefoil.

THIFOLIUM ACETOSUM. The wood-sorrel

was so called. See Lujula.

TRIFOLIUM AQUATICUM. See Trifolium paludosum.

THIFOLIUM ARVENSE. Harc's-foot trefoil or lagopodium.

TRIFOLIUM AUREUM. Herb trinity; noble liver-wort.

Melilotus. TRIFOLIUM CABALLINUM.

TRIFOLIUM CARULEUM. Sweet trefoil. TRIFOLIUM FALCATUM. The Auricula

muris. See Pilocella. TRIFOLIUM FIBRINUM. See Trifolium

paludosum.

TRIFOLIUM HEPATICUM. See Hepatica TRIFOLIUM MILILOTUS OFFICINALIS. The

systematic name of the officinal melilot. Sce Melilotus.

TRIFOLIUM ODORATUM. See Melilotus.
TRIFOLIUM PALI DOSUM. Trifolium aquaticum. Trifolium fibrinum. Menyanthes. Water-trefoil, or buck-bean Menganthes Water-trefoil, or buck-bean trifoliata of Linnaus :- foliis ternatis. The whole plant is so extremely bitter, that in some countries it is used as a substitute for hops, in the preparation of malt liquor. It is sometimes employed in country places as an active eccoprotic bitter in hydropic and rheumatic affections. Cases are related of its good effects in some cutancous diseases of the herpetic and seemingly cancerous kind.

TRIGEMINI. (Trigeminus, from tres, three, and geminus, double; three times double.) The fifth pair of nerves, which arise from the crura of the cerebellum, and are divided within the cavity of the cranium into three branches viz. the orbital, superior, and inferior maxillary. The Femur.

Asplenium trichomanes of orbital branch is divided into the frontal, the inferior maxillary into two branches, the internal lingual, and one more properly called the inferior maxillary.

> TRIGONELLA FENUM GRECUM. See

Fænum græcum.

TRINITATIS HERBA. See Hepatica nobilis.

Trinity-herb. See Hepatica nobilis.
Tripastrum archimedris. A surgical instrument for extending fractured limbs; so named because it resembled a machine invented by Apellides or Archimedes, for launching of ships, and because it was worked with three cords.

TRIQUETRA OSSICULA. (Triquetrus, from tres, three.) Ossicula Wormiana. The triangular-shaped bones, which are found mostly in the course of the lambdoidal

suture.

TRISMUS. (From τριζω, to gnash.) Locked jaw. Spastic rigidity of the under jaw Capistrum of Vogel. Dr. Cullen makes two species. 1. Trismus nascentium, attacking infants during the two first weeks from their birth. 2. Trismus traumaticus, attacking persons of all ages, and arising from cold or a wound. See Tetanus.

TRISSAGO. (Quasi tristago, from tristis, sad; because it dispels sadness.) The common germander is sometimes so called. See Chamedrys.

TRISSAGO PALUSTRIS. The water-germander was so called. See Scordium

TRITAOPHYA. (From Tpilatos, tertian, and qua, of a like nature, or original.) It is an epithet of a fever much of a nature with a tertian, and taking its rise from it. Some call it a continued tertian. It is remittent or intermittent.

TRITEOPHYA CAUSUS. The fever called

causus by Hippocrates.

TRITEUS Terraios. The same as Triteophya.

TRITICUM. (From tero, to thresh from the husk.) See Wheat.

TRITORIUM. (From trito, to beat small.) A mortar. Also a glass for separating the oil from the water in distilling.

TROCAR. (Corrupted from un trois quart, French, a three quarters, from the three sides with which the point is made.) The name of an instrument used in tapping

for the dropsy

TROCHANTER. (From TPEXa, to run; because the muscles inserted into them perform the office of running.) Two processes of the thigh bone, which are distinguished into the greater and lesser. See

TROCHISCI AMYLI. Starch lozenges are vertebra upon the odontoid process of the used in tickling coughs and acidities of second. the stomach and bowels.

TRO

TROCHISCI CRETE in cardialgia, acidities of the primæ viæ indicum.

TROCHISCI GLYCTRRHIZE. and demulcent lozenge.

lozenge possesses pectoral and anodyne without any roots or the access of light, qualities, but requires that the quantity and attains a size from a pea to the be regulated, one grain being contained in largest potatoe. It has a rough blackish a drachm.

TROCHISCI MAGNESIÆ. viceable in pyrosis and flatulent colic.

TROCHISCI SULPHUMIS. Aperient and an- much larger size than they do Lere. In

tiscorbutic

A troch or round tablet. Troches and train up dogs and swine for this purpose, lozenges are composed of powders made who after they have been inured to their up with glutinous substances into little smell by their masters frequently placing cakes, and afterwards dried. This form is them in their way, will readily scrape them principally us d for the more commodious up as they ramble the fields and woods. exh bition of certain medicines, by fitting them to dissolve slowly in the mouth, so as totelica. to pass by degrees into the stomach; and lopii. Mentus siccus. Palatinus ductus. hence these preparations have generally a Ductus auris palatinus. considerable portion of sugar or other ma- tube. The Eustachian tube, so called terials grateful to the palate. Some pow- because it was first described by Enstaders have likewise been reduced into chius, arises in each ear from the antetroches, with a view to their preparation, rior extremity of the tympanum by means though possibly for no very good reasons: of a bony semi canal; runs forwards and for the moistening them and afterwards inwards, at the same time becoming gradrying them in the air, must on this ac-dually smaller; and after perforating the count be of greater injury, than any ad petrous portion of the temporal bone tervantage accruing from this form can coun- minates in a passage, partly cartilaginous terbalance.

General rules for making troches.

stick to the fingers in making up, the hands palate. It is through this orifice that the may be anointed with any sweet or aromatic oil; or else sprinkled with powder or starch, or of liquorice, or with flour.

2. In order to thoroughly dry the troches, put them on an inverted sieve, in a shady airy place, and frequently turn them.

3. Troches are to be kept in glass vessels, or in earthen ones well glazed.

TROCHLEA. (Tpoxxia, a pulley, from τρεχω, to run.) A kind of cartilaginous pulley, through which the tendon of one of the uterus, passes transversely and ends the muscles of the eye passes.

See Obliquus superior TROCHLEARIS,

TROCHLEATORES. The fourth pair of nerves are so called, because they are inserted into the musculus trochlearis of

the eye. See Pathetici. TROCHOIDES. (From TPOXOS, a wheel, and eises, resemblance) Axeu commissura. A species of diarthrosis, or moveable connexion of bones, in which one bone pora quadrigemina.

TROPEOLUM MAJUS. The systematic These are exhibited name of the Indian cress. See Nasturtium

TRUFFLE. Lycoperdon tuber of Line A pectoral næus. Tuber cibarium of Dr. Withering, A solid fungus of a globular figure, which TROCHISCI GLYCTRRIZE CUM OPIO. This grows under the surface of the ground coat, and is destitute of fibres. Cooks Extremely ser- are well acquainted with its use and qualities. It is found in woods and pastures in Trochisci Nitri. An attenuating diasome parts of Kent, but is not very comphoratic, calculated to remove viscid mon in England. In France and Spain phlegm arising from inflammatory angina. truffles are very frequent, and grow to a these places the peasants find it worth TROCHISUS. (Dim. of TPOXOS, a wheel.) their while to search for them, and they

TUBA EUSTACHIANA. Tuba Aristelica. Aquaducus. Aquaducus Fal-The auditory and partly membranous, narrow at the beginning, but becoming gradually larger, 1. If the mass prove so glutinous as to and ending in a pouch behind the soft pituitary membrane of the nose enters the tympanum. It is always open, and affords a free passage for the air into the tympanum; hence persons hear better with their mouth open.

FALLOPIANA. Tuba fallo-TUBA pina. The Fallopian tube first described by Fallopins. The uterine tabe. A canal included in two laminæ of the peritonæum, which arises at each side of the fundus of with its extremity turned downwards at the ovarium. Its use is to grasp the ovum, and convey the prolific vapour to it, and to conduct the fertilised ovum into the cavity

of the oterus.

A hard su-Tuber culum. TUBERCLE. perficial tumour, circomscribed and permanent: or proceeding very slowly to suppuration.

TUBERCULA QUADRIGEMINA. Corrotates upon another; as the first cervical gemina. Four white oval tubercles of the brain, two of which are situated on each lime, combined with the acid of this meside over the posterior orifice of the third tal. This ore is now called tungstate of twentriele and the aqueduct of Sylvius. The ancients called them nates and testes, from their supposed resemblance.

TUBERCULUM ANNULARE. The commencement of the medulla oblon-

gata.

TUBERGULUM LOWERI. An eminence in the right auricle of the heart where the two venæ cavæ meet; so called from Lower, who first described it.

TUBULI LACTIFERI. The duets or tubes in the nipple, through which the milk

passes.

TUMOR. A swelling.

TUMORES. (Tumor, from tumeo, to swell.) Tumours. An order in the class locales of Cullen's nosology, comprehending partial swellings without inflammation.

TUNBRIDGE WATER. Tunbridge Wells is a populous village in the county of Kent, which contains many chalybeare springs, all of which resemble each other very closely in their chemical properties. Two of these are chiefly used, which yield about a gallon in a minute, and therefore afford an abundant supply for the numerous invalids who yearly resort thither. The analysis of Tunbridge spring prove it to be a very pure water, as to the quantity of solid matter; and the saline contents (the iron excepted) are such as may be found in almost any water that is used as common drink. It is only as a chalybcate, and in the quantity of earhonic acid, that it differs from common water. Of this acid it contains one twenty second of its bulk. The general operation of this chalybeate water is to increase the power of the secretory system in a gradual, uniform manner, and to impart tone and strength to all the functions; hence it is asserted to be of eminent service in irregular digestion; flatulency; in the incipient stages of those chronic disorders, which are attended with great de-bility; in chloris; and numerous other complaints incident to the female sex. The prescribed method of using the Tunbridge water, observes Dr. Saunders, is judicious. The whole of the quantity daily used, is taken at about two or three intervals, bego ning at eight o'clock in the morning, and finishing about roon. The dose at each time varies from about one to three quarters of a pint; according to the age, sex, and general constitution of the patient, and especially the duration of the course, for it is found that these waters lose much of their effect by long habit.

TUNGSTEN (Tungsten, Swed ponderous stone.) This metal, which is never found but in combination, is by no means common. The substance known to mineralogists, under the name of tongsten, was, after some time, discovered to consist of

been found in Sweden and Germany, both in masses and crystallized, of a yellowish white, or grey colour. It has a sparry appearance, is shining, of a lamellated texture, and semi-transparent. The same metallic acid is likewise found united to iron and manganese; it then forms the ore called Wolfram, or tungstate of iron and manganese. This ore occurs both massive and crystallized, and is found in Cornwall, Germany, France and Spain. Its colour is brownish black, and its texture foliated. It has a metallic lustre, and a lamellated texture; it is brittle and very heavy; it is found in solid masses in the state of layers interspersed with quartz. These two substances are therefore ores of the same metal.

Properties .- Tungston appears of a steel grey colour. Its specific gravity is about 17.6. It is one of the hardest metals, but it is exceedingly brittle; and it is said to be almost as infusible as platina. Heated in the air it becomes converted into a yellow pulverulent oxid, which becomes blue by a strong heat or when exposed to light. Tungsten combines with phosphorus and sulphur, and with silver, copper, iron, lead, tin, antimony, and bismuth; but it does not unite with gold and platina. is not attacked by sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic acids; nitro muriatic acids acts upon it very slightly. It is oxidable and acidifiable by the nitrates and super-oxigenated muriates. It colours the vitrified carths or the vitreous fluxes, of a blue or brown colour. It is not known what its action will be on water and different oxids. Its action on the alkalies is likewise unknown. It is not employed yet, but promises real utility, on account of its colouring property, as a basis for pigment, since the compounds it is said to form with vegetable colouring matters, afford colours so permanent, as not to be acted on by the most concentrated oxigenated muriatic acid, the great enemy of vegetable colours.

Methods of obtaining Tungsten.—The method of obtaining metallic tungsten is a problem in chemistry. Scheele, Bergman, and Gmelin, did not succeed in their attempts to procure it. Klaproth tried to reduce the yellow oxid of this metal with a variety of combustible substances, but without success. Messrs Ruprecht and Tondy say they have obtained this metal by using combustible substances alone: and by a mixture of combustible and alkaling matter.

The following process is recommended by Richter, an ingenious German chemist.

\* 5 N

Let equal parts of tungstic acid and qualities which they possess in common and blood be exposed for some time to a They stimulate the prime vie, and prove dried blood be exposed for some time to a red heat in a crucible; press the black laxative; when carried into the blood. powder which is formed, into another smal- vessels they excite the whole system, and fer crucible, and expose it again to a vio- thus prove serviceable in chronic rheumalent heat in a forge, for at least half an tism and paralysis. Turpentine readily hour. Tungsten will then be found, according to this chemist, in its metallic state in the crucible.

defends the body.) A membrane or covering, as the coats of the eye, &c.

TUNICA ACINIFORMIS. The uvea or pos-

terior of the lamella of the isis.

TUNICA ALBUGINEA OCULI. See Conjunctive membrane,

TUNICA ALBUGINEA TESTIS. See

Albuginea testis.

TUNICA ARACHNOIDEA. See Arachnoid membrane.

coat of the intestines. TUNICA CHOROIDEA.

membrane.

TUNICA CONJUNCTIVA. See Conjunctive membrane.

TUNICA CORNEA. See Cornea.

TUNICA FILAMENTOSA. The false or spongy chorion.

TUNICA RETINA. See Retina.

TUNICA VAGINALIS TESTIS. continuation of the peritenzum through the inguinal ring, which loosely invests the testicle and spermatic cord.

TUNICA VILLOSA. The villous or inner

folding coat of the intestines.

TUNSTAT. Timistas. A salt formed by the combination of the tungstic acid, with different bases, as tunstat of ammo-

Turbeth, mineral. See Hydrargyrus vitrio-

Turbeth root See Turbethum

TURBINATED BONES. (Ossa turbinata, from turbino, to sharpen at the top, shaped like a sugar-loaf.) The superior spongy portion of the ethmoid bone, and the inferior spongy bones, are so called by some writers.

TURBINATUM. The pineal gland.

Turbith. A cathartic Eastern bark; a species of cicely.

Turcica sella. See Sella turcica.

Turmeric. See Curcuma.

Turnhoof A vulgar name of the groundivy. See Hedera terestris.

Turnip. See Rapa.

Turnip, French. See Rapus.

TURPENTINE. The different turpenor Cyrus turpentine, (see Terebinthus vul- exhibited in pulmonary consumptions, garis), the common turpentine, (see Te- coughs, asthmus, and catarrhal affections. rebinthina communis), and the Venice tur- It is used as tea, or given in the way of pentine, (see Terebinthina veneta). All infusion with liquorice-root or honey. these have been considered as hot, sti- Tussilago farfara. (Furfarg. mulating corroborants and detergents; farfarus, the white poplar; so called be-

passes off by urine, which it imbues with a peculiar odour; also by perspiration and by exhalation from the lungs; and to these TUNICA. (A tnendo corpore, because it respective effects are ascribed the virtues it possesses in gravelly complaints, scurvy, and pulmonic disorders. Turpentine is much used in gleets and fluor albus, and in general with much success. The essential oil, in which the virtues of turpentine reside, is not only preferred for external use, as a rubefacient, but also internally as a diuretic and septic; the latter of which qualities it possesses in a very high degree. Formerly turpentine was much used as a TUNICA CELLULOSA RUYSCHII. The second digestive application to ulcers, &c. but, in the modern practice of surgery, it is almost See Choroid wholly exploded.

Turpeth, mineral. See Hydrargyrus vi-

triolatus.

TURPETHUM, (from turpeth, Ind.) Turbeth. The cortical part of the root of a species of convolvulus, the Convolvulus turpethum of Linnæus, brought from the East Indies, in oblong pieces, of a brown or ash colour on the outside and whitish within; the best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. When chewed, it at first imparts a sweetish taste, which is followed by a nauseous acrimony. It is considered as a purgative, liable to much irregularity of action.

TURPETHUM MINERALE. See Hydrargyrus

vitriolatus.

TURUNDA. (A terendo, from its being rolled up.) A tent or suppository.

TUSSILAGO. (From tussis, a cough; because it relieves coughs) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Syngenesia. Order, Polygamia

superflua.

2. The pharmacopoial name of what is also-called bechium. Bechion. Calceum equinum. Chamæluie. Filius antipatrem Tussilago vulgaris. farfarella. Furfara Farfara bechiam. Ungula caballina. Coltsfact. Tussilago farfara: scapo unifloro imbricato, foliis subcordatis angulatis denticalatis. The sensible qualities of this plant are very inconsiderable; it has a rough mucilaginous taste, but no remarkable The leaves have always been esteemed as possessing demulcent and pectines employed medicinally are, the Chian toral virtues, and hence they have been

TUSSILAGO FARFARA. (Furfara, from

poplar )

coltstoot. See Tussilago.

TUSSILAGO PUTASITES. (From merasos, a hat; so named because its leaves are shaped like a hat.) The systematic name of the butter-bur. Sec Petasites.

TUSSIS. A cough. A sonorous concussion of the breast, produced by the violent and, for the most part, involuntary motion of the muscles of respiration. It is symptomatic of many diseases.

Tussis convulsiva. See Pertussis. TUSSIS EXANTHEMATICA. A cough attendant on an eruption.

TUSSIS PERINA. See Pertussis.

Tetia, (Persian) Pompholyx. mia. Tutty. A grey oxyd of zinc; it is generally formed by fusing load, or mixed with blende, when it is incrusted in the chimneys of the furnace. Mixed with any common cerate, it is applied to the cye, in debilitated states of the conjunctive membrane.

TUTIA PHEPARATA. Prepared tutty is often put into collyria, to which it imparts an adstringent virtue.

Tutty. See Tutia.

TYLOSIS. (From TUNOS, a callous.) An induration or callous of the margin of the eyc-lids.

TYMPANI MEMBRANA. See Membrana

tumpani.

TYMPANITES. (From TUMTAVOV, a drum; so called because the belly is distended with wind, and sounds like a druin when struck.) Tympany. An clastic distention of the abdomen not readily yielding to pressure, and sounding like a drum, with costiveness and atrophy, but no fluc-Species: 1. Tympunites intestitnation. nalis, a lodgment of wind in the intes-tines, known by the discharge of wind giving relief. 2. Tympanites abdominalis, when the wind is in the cavity of the abdomen

TYMPANUM. (Tumarov. A drum.) The drum or barrel of the car. The hol- lently, the tongue is dry and parched, relow part of the ear in which are lodged the spiration is commonly laborious, and internates the external auditory passage, and is the body is costive, and the pulse is usually surrounded by the petrous portion of the quick, small, and hard, and now and then temporal bone. It terminates at the coch fluttering and unequal. Sometimes a great tachian tube and mastoid sinus, the fenes. matter ensues. tra ovalis, and rotunda. It contains the four ossicula auditus.

TYPHA. (From Tipos, a lake, because a genus of plants in the Linnxan system. The cat's tail.

maria delirium.) A complication of phrensy and lethargy with fever.

cause its leaves resemble those of the white species of continued fever, characterised The systematic name of the by great debility, a tendency in the fluids to putrefaction and the ordinary symptoms of fever. It is to be readily distinguished from the inflammatory by the smallness of the pulse and the sudden and great debility which ensues on its first attack; and, in its more advanced stage, by the petechiæ, or purple spots, which come out on various parts of the body, and the fetid stools which are discharged; and it may be distinguished from a nervous fever by the great violence of all its symptoms on its first coming on.

The most general course that gives rise to this disease, is contagion, applied either immediately from the body of a person labouring under it, or conveyed in clothes or merchandise, &c.; but it may be occasioned by the effluvia arising from either animal or vegetable substances in a decayed or putrid state; and hence it is, that in low and marshy countries it is apt to be prevalent when intense and sultry heat quickly succeeds any great inundation. of proper cleanliness and confined air are likewise causes of this fever; hence it prevails in hospitals, jails, camps, and on board of ships, especially when such places are much crowded, and the strictest attention is not paid to a free ventilation and due cleanliness. A close state of the atmosphere, with damp weather, is likewise apt to give rise to putrid fever. Those of lax fibres, and who have been weakened by any previous debilitating cause, such as poor diet, long fasting, hard labour, continucd want of sleep, &c. are most liable to

On the first coming on of the disease, the person is seized with languor, dejection of spirits, amazing depression and loss of muscular strength, universal weariness and soreness, pains in the head, back, and extremities and rigors; the eyes appear full, heavy, yellowish, and often a little inflamed; the temporal arteries throb vio bones of the ear. It begins behind the rupted with deep sighing; the breath is hot membrane of the tympanum, which termi- and offensive, the urme is crude and pale, lea of the labyrinth, and has opening into heat, load, and pain are felt at the pit of it four foramina, viz. the orifice of the Eus. the stomach, and a vomiting of bilious

As the disease advances, the pulse increases in frequency, (beating often from 100 to 130 in a minute); there is vast debiit grows in marshy places.) The name of lity, a great heat and dryness in the skin, oppression at the breast, with anxiety, sighing, and moaning; the thirst is greatly TYPHOMANIA. (From TUON, to burn, and increased; the tongue, mouth, lips and teeth are covered over with a brown or black tenaceous fur; the speech is inarti-TYPHUS. (From Tupos, stupor.) A culate, and scarcely intelligible; the patient mutters much, and delirium ensues. light. On the contrary, petechia, with The fever continuing to increase still more dark, offensive, and involuntary discharges in violence, symptoms of putrefaction shew by urine and stool, fetid sweats, hamorthemselves; the breath becomes highly offensive; the urine deposits a black and certain dissolution of the patient. fetid sediment; the stools are dark, offensive, and pass off insensibly; hæmorrhages issue from the gums, nostrils, mouth, and other parts of the body; livid spots or petechia appear on its surface; the and then found in a gangrenous state. In pulse intermits and sinks; the extremities grow cold; hiccough ensue; and death at strong tendency to gangrene. last closes the tragic scene.

When this fever does not terminate fa- Egypt. tally, it generally begins in cold climates to diminish about the commencement of the third week, and goes off gradually towards the end of the fourth, without any very evident crisis; but in warm climates it seldom continues above a week or ten

days, if so long.

Our opinion, as to the event, is to be formed by the degreee of violence in the symptoms, particularly after petcchiæ although in some instances recoveries have ple spots. been effected under the most unpromising An abatement of febrile heat and thirst, a gentle moisture diffused drawn from the flesh. equally over the whole surface of the body, loose stools, turbid urine, rising of the A disorde pulse, and the absence of dehrium and died in it. stupor, may be regarded in a favourable

rhages, and hiccoughs, denote the almost

The appearances usually perceived on dissection, are inflammations of the brain and viscera, but more particularly of the stomach and intestines, which are now the muscular fibres there seems likewise a

TYPHUS AGYPTIACUS. The plague of

TYPHUS CARCERUM. The jail fever. TYPHUS CASTRENSIS. The camp-fever. TYPHUS GRAVIOR. The severe species of

TYPHUS ICTERODES. Typhus with symptoms of jaundice.

TYPHUS MITIOR.

The low fever. TYPHUS NERVOSUS. The nervous fe-

TYPHES PETECHIALIS. Typhus with pur-

TYRIASIS. Tupiavic. A species of leprosy in which the skin may be easily with-

Tyrosis (From rueow, to coagulate.) A disorder of the stomach from milk cur-

soft parts of an animal body. Ulcers may roots bone. 10 The inveterate ulcer, which arise from a variety of causes, as all those is of long continuance, and resists the which produce inflammation, from wounds, ordinary applications. 11. The scrofulous specific irritations of the absorbents, from ulcer, known by its having arisen from inscurvy, cancer, the venereal or scrofulous dolent tumours, its discharging a viscid, virus, &c. The proximate or immediate glary matter, and its indolent nature. cause is an increased action of the absorbents, and a specific action of the arteries, by which a fluid is separated from the blood named because it has leaves like the elm.) upon the olderated surface. They are variously denominated; the following is the most frequent division: 1. The simple ul-beautiful and fragrant plant is the Spirea cer, which takes place generally from a su-ulmaria of Linnaus. The leaves are reperficial wound. runs under the integuments, and the orifice flowers have a strong smell, resembling of which is narrow, but not callous. 3. that of May; they are supposed to possess The fistulous ulcer, or fistula, a deep ulcer, antispasmodic and diaphoretic virtues, and with a narrow and callous orifice. 4 The as they are very rarely used in medicine, fungous ulcer, the surface of which is cover- Linnans suspects that the neglect of them ed with fungous flesh. 5. The gangrenous, has arisen from the plant being supposed to which is livid, fetid, and gangrenous 6. be possessed of some noxious qualities, The scorbutic, which depends on a scorbu- which it seemed to betray by its being left tic acrimony. 7. The venereal, arising untouched by cattle. It may be observed, from the venereal disease. 8. The cancer-however, that the cattle also refuse the An-

ULCER. (Ulcus, from \$225, a sore.) ous ulcer, or open caucer, (see Cancer.) A purulent solution of continuity of the 9. The curious ulcer, depending upon a ca-See Cynanche. Ulcerated sore throat

(From ulmus, the elm; so ULMARIA. Regina prati. Barbara capræ. Meadow-Queen of the meadows. sweet. 2. The sinuous, that commended as mild adstringents.

gelica and other herbs, whose innocence is so as to afford three surfaces and as many apparent from daily experience.

plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pen- ternal one, and are separated by a sharp

tundria. Order, Digynia.

mon clm. Ulmus campestris foliis duplica- angle, which is turned towards the radius, to-sevratis, basi inequalibus of Linuxus. serves for the attachment of the ligament The inner tough bark of this tree, which is that connects the two bones, and which is directed for use by the pharmacopoias, therefore called the interesseus ligament, has no remarkable smell, but a bitterish. The posterior surface is convex, and cortaste, and abounds with a slimy juice, responds with the olecranon. The borders, which has been recommended in nephritic or angles, which separate it from the other cases, and externally as a useful application two surfaces, are somewhat rounded. At to burns. It is also highly recommended about a third of the length of this bone in some cutaneous affections allied to her-from the top, in its fore part, we observe a pes and lepra. It is mostly exhibited in channel for the passage of vessels. The the form of decoction, by boiling four lower extremity is smaller as it descends, ounces in four pints of water to two pints; nearly cylindrical, and slightly curved forof which from four to eight ounces are wards and outwards. Just before it tergiven two or three times a day.

This process forms the point of the elbow. scs, before they are completely united to The coronoid process is sharper at its ex- the rest of the bone. tremity than the olecranon, but is much smaller, and does not reach so high. In bending the arm it is received into the fossa at the fore part of the pulley. At the ex- ulnaris. ternal side of the coronoid process is the lesser sygmoid cavity, which is a small, naris. semi-lunar, articulating surface, lined with cartelage, on which the round head of the Functulus umbilicalis. The navel-string. A radius plays. At the fore part of the coro- cord-like substance, of an intestinal form, noid process we observe a small tubcrosi- about half a yard in length, that proceeds ty, into which the tendon of the brachia- from the navel of the focus to the centre lis internes is inserted. The greater syg- of the placenta. It is composed of a cutamoid cavity, the situation of which we just meons sheath, cellular substance, one iimnow mentioned, is divided into four surfa- bilical vein, and two umbilical arteries; ces by a prominent line which is intersect- the former conveys the blood to the child ed by a small sinuosity that serves for the from the placenta, and the latter return it lodgment of mucilaginous glands. The from the child to the placenta. whole of this cavity is covered with cartilage. The body, or middle part of the lis. ulna, is of a prismatic or triangular shape,

angles. The external and internal surfa-ULMUS. 1. The name of a genus of ces are flat and broad, especially the exangle, which, from its situation, may be 2. The pharmacopoial name of the com- termed the internal angle. This internal minates it contracts, so as to form a neck ULMUS CAMPESTRIS. The systematic to the small head with which it ends. On name of the common elm. Sec. Ulmus. the outside of this little head, answering the outside of this little head, answering to the olecranon. a small process, called Cubitus. The larger bone of the fore-arm. It is smaller and shorter than the oshumeri, and becomes gradually smaller as it descends to the wrist. We may divide it into its upper and lower extremities, and its body or middle part. At its upper extremity are two considerable processes, of twe interior one and largest is named olecranon, and the smaller and anterior one the coronoid process. Between these two processes, the extremity of the bone is formed into a deep articularing cavity, which, from its semi-circular shape, is called the greater sygmoid cavity. The olecranon begins by a considerable tuberosity, which is rough, and serves for the insertion of muscles, and terminates in a kind of hook, the concave surface of which moves upon the pulley of the os humeri. This process forms the point of the elow. the outside of this little head, answering

Ulnar artery. See Cubital artery. Ulnur nerve. See Cubital nerve.

ULNARIS EXTERNUS. See Extensor carfu

ULNARIS INTERNUS. See Flexor carpi ul-

UMBILICAL CORD. Funis umbilicalis.

Umbilical hernia. See Hernia umbilica-

UMBILICAL REGION. Regio um. bilicalis. The part of the abdominal pari- der of the lard, and mix. In very general

UMBILICUS MARINUS. Androsace. Acetabulum marinum. Androsace methioli. Fungus petraus marinus. A submarine production found on rocks and the shells of fishes, about the coast of Montpelier, &c. It is said to be in the form of powder a useful antithelmetic and diuretic.

UNCIFORM BONE. (Os unciforme, from uncus, a hook, and forma, a likeness.) The last bone of the second row of the earpus or wrist; so named from its hooklike process, which projects towards the palm of the hand, and gives origin to the great ligament by which the tendons of the wrist are wound down. See Carpal bones.

UNGUENTUM. (From ungo, to anoint.) An ointment. The usual consistence of thalmia, indolent tumours on the margin of ointments is about that of butter. The following are among the best formulæ.

Ung. Coutharidis. See Ceratum lytte. UNGUENTUM CETACEI. Ointment of spermaceti, formerly called linimentum album, and latterly unguentum spermaceti. " Take of spermaceti, six drachms; white wax, two drachms; olive oil, three fluidounces." Having melted them together over a slow fire, constantly stir the mixture until it gets cold. A simple emollient

oinment.

UNGUENTUM CICUTE. Hemlock oint-"Take of the fresh leaves of cicuta, and prepared hog's lard, of each four ounces." The cicuta is to be bruised in a marble mortar, after which the lard is to be added, and the two ingredients thoroughly incorporated by beating. They are then to be gently melted over the fire, and after being strained through a cloth, and the fibrous parts of the hemlock well pressed, the ointment is to be stirred till quite cold. To cancerous or scrophulous sores this ointment may be applied with a prospect of success.

UNGUENTUM ELEMI COMPOSITUM. Compound ointment of elemi, formerly called linimentum arcei and unguentum e gummi elemi. "Take of elemi, a pound; common turpentine, ten ounces; prepared suct, two pounds; olive oil, two fluidounces." Melt the clemi with the suet, then remove it from the fire, and immediately mix in the terpentine and oil, then strain the mixture through a linen cloth. Indolent ulcers, chilbiams, chronic ulcers after burns, and indolent tumours, are often

removed by this eintment.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI FORTIUS. Strong mercurial ointment, formerly called " Take of unguentum cæruleum fortuis. purified mercury, two pounds; prepared lard, twenty-three ounces: prepared suet, an ounce." First rub the mercury with the suet and a little of the lard, until the globules disappear; then add the remain- ment, formerly called unguentum picis;

etes about two inches all round the navel. use for mercurial frictions. It may be em-Cotyledon mari- ployed in almost all cases where mercury is indicated.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI MITIUS. Mild mercurial oiniment, formerly called unguentum caruleum mitius. " l'ake of strong mercurial ointment, a pound; prepared lard, two pounds." Mix. Weaker than the former.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGIRI NITRATI. Ountment of nitrate of mercury, "Take of purified mercury, an ounce; nitric acid. two fluidounces; prepared lard, six ounces; olive oil, tour fluidounces." First dissolve the mercury in the acid, then, while the liquor is hot, mix it with the lard and oil melted together. A stimulating and detergent outment. Tinea capitis, prophthe eye-lid, and ulcers in the urethra, are cured by its application.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI NITRATI MITI-Weaker only than the former.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI NITRICO-OXYDI, Ointment of nitric oxyd of mercury. " Take of nitric oxyd of mercury, an ounce; white wax, two ounces; prepared lard, six ounces." Having melted together the wax and lard, add thereto the nitric oxyd of mercury in very fine powder, and mix. A most excellent stimulating and escharotic ointment.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI PR.ECIPITATE ALBI. Ointment of white præcipitate of mercury, formerly called unguentum e mercurio precipitato albo, and latterly unguentum calcis hydrargyri albi. " Take of white præcipitate of mercury, a drachm: prepared lard, an ounce and half." Having melted the lard over a slow fire, add the precipitated mercury, and mix. useful ointment to destroy vermin in the head, and to assist in the removal of scald head, venereal ulcers of children, and cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM See Ceratum LYTTÆ.

lytta.

UNGUENTUM OPHTHALMICUM. Ophthalmic ointment of Janin. "Take of prepared hogslard, half an ounce; prepared tutia, bole ammoniac, of each two drachms; white precipitate, one drachm." Mix. This celebrated ointment may be used for the same diseases of the eye and eyelid as the ung. hydrarg. nitrati. It must be at first weakened with about twice its quantity of hogslard.

UNGUENTUM PICIS ARIDÆ. Pitch ointment, formerly called unguentum basilicum nigrum vel tetrapharmacum. " Take of pitch, yellow wax, yellow resin, of each nine ounces; olive oil, a pint." Melt them together, and strain the mixture through a

linen cloth.

UNGUENTUM PICIS LIQUIDE.

unguentum e pice. "Take of tar, prepared found in one shell not any one of them suct, of each a pound." Men them loge- is like the other.) Pearls. See Margather, and strain the mixture through a linen cloth. The two preceding omtnients are applicable to cases of tinea capitis, and some eruptive complaints; also to some kinds of irritable sores.

UNGUENTUM RESINE FLAVE. Yellow basilicon is in general use as a stimulant and detersive: it is an elegant and useful form

of applying the resin

UNGUENTUM SAMBUCI. Elder ointment, formerly called unguentum sambucinum. "Take of elder flowers, two pounds; prepared lard, two pounds." Boil the elder flowers in the lard until they become crisp, then strain the ointment through a linen cloth. A cooling and entollient preparation

UNGUENTEM SULPHURIS. Sulphur ointment, formerly called unguentum e sulphore. " Take of sublimed sulphur, three ounces; prepared lard, half a pound." Mix. The most effectual preparation to destroy the itch. It is also serviceable in the cure of

other cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM SULPHURIS COMPOSITUM, Compound sulphur ointment. "Take of sublimed sulphur, half a pound; white hellebore root, powdered, two ounces; nitrate of potash, a drachm; soft soap, half a pound; prepared lard, a pound and half." Mix. This preparation is introduced into the last London pharmacopæia as a more efficacious remedy for iich than common sulphur ointment. In the army, where it is generally used, the sulphur vivum, or native admixture of sulphur with various lieterogeneous matters, is used instead of sublaned sulphur.

UNGUENTUM VEASTHI. White hellebore ointment, formerly called unguentum helle-bori albi. "Take of white hellebore root, powdered, two.ounces; prepared land, eight ounces; oil of lemons, twenty mi-

nims." Mix.

UNGUENTUM ZINCI. Zinc ointment. "Take of the oxyd of zinc, an ounce; prepared lard, six ounces." Mix. A very opaque, scoriaceous bead. It is soluble in useful application to chronic ophthalmia sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids. It and relaxed ulcers.

tween the lamellæ of the cornea transpa- action of uranium alone upon water, &c. rens of the eye; so called from its resem- is still unknown, probably on account of blance to the lunated portion of the nail its extreme scarcity. of the finger.

See Lachrymul bone.

UNGULA CABALLINA. See Tussilago.

UNIONES. (Umo, pl uniones, from unus, one; so called because there is never is thus completely dissolved, while part of more than one found in the same shell, or the sulphur remains undissolved, and part according to others, for that many being of it is dissipated under the form of sul-

rita.

URACHUS. (From spor, urine, and εχω, to contain.) Urinaculum The ligamentaus cord that arises from the basis of the urmary bladder, which it runs along, and terminares in the umbilical cord. In the fœtuses of brute animals, which the ancients mostly dissected, it is a hollow tube and conveys the urme to the allantoid membrane.

URAGIUM. (From searce, the hinder part of an army ) The apex or extreme

point of the heart.

URANISCUS. (From segros, the firmament; so called from its arch.) The palate.

URANIUM. This metal was discovered by Klaproth in the year 1789. It exists combined with sulphur, and a portion of iron, lead, and silex, in the mineral termed Pechblende, or oxid of uranium bined with carbonic acid it forms the chalcolite, or green mica: and mixt with oxid of mon, it constitutes the uranitic ochre. It is always found in the state of an oxid with a greater or smaller portion of iron, or mineralized with sulphur and copper. The ores of uranium are of a blackish colour, inclining to a dark iron grey, and of a moderate splendor; they are of a close texture, and when broken present a somewhat uneven, and in the smallest particles a conchoidal surface. They are found in the mines of Saxony.

Properties of Uranium.-Uranium exhibits a mass of small metallic globules, agglutinated together. Its colour is a deep grey on the outside, in the inside it is a pale brown. It is very porous, and is so soft that it may be scraped with a knife. It has but little lustre. Its specific gravity is 6.440. It is more difficult to be fused than even manganese. When intensely heated with phosphate of soda and aminonia, or glacial phosphoric acid, it fuses with them into a grass-green glass. With soda or borax it melts only into a grey, combines with sulphur and phosphorus, UNGUIS. (From over, a hook.) I The and alloys with mercury. It has not yet nail. The nails are horny lamme situated been combined with other combustible at the extremities of the fingers and toes, bodies. It decomposes the nitric acid and 2. An abscess or collection of pus be- becomes converted into a yellow oxid. The

Method of obtaining Uranium.- In order 3. The lachrynial bone is so named from to obtain uraniom, the pechblende is first its resemblance to a nail of the finger, freed from sulphur by heat, and cleared from the adhering impurities as carefully as possible. It is then digested in nitric acid; the metallic matter that it contains phurated hydrogen gas. The solution is by a longitudinal orifice, called meature then precipitated by a carbonated alkali. The precipitate has a lemon-yellow colour when it is pure. This yellow carbonate is made into a paste with oil and exposed to a violent heat, bedded in a crucible containing and lined with charcoal.

Klaproth obtained a metallic globule 28 grains in weight, by forming a ball of 50 grains of the yellow carbonate with a little wax, and by exposing this ball in a crucible lined with charcoal to a heat equal to

170° of Wedgwood's pyrometer.

Richter obtained in a single experiment 100 grains of this metal, which seemed to be free from all admixture.

URCEOLA. (From urceolus, a small pitcher; so named from its uses in scowering glazed vessels.) The herb fever few.

UREDO. (From uro, to burn.) An itching or burning sensation of the skin, which accompanies many diseases. The nettle-

rash is also so called.

URETER. (From 800, urine.) membranous canal which conveys the urine from the kidney to the urinary bladder; at its superior part it is considerably the largest, occupying the greatest portion of the pelvis of the kidney; it then contracts to the size of a goose-quill, and descends over the psoas magnus muscle and large crural vessels into the pelvis, in which it perforates the urinary bladder very obliquely. Its internal surface is lubricated with mucus to defend it from the irritation of the urine in passing.

URETERITIS. (From senting, the ure-

ter.) An inflammation of the ureter.

Unetericus. (From sentne, the ureter, or sentupitis, an inflamination of the ureter.) Applied to an ischury, or suppression of urine, from an inflammation of the ureter.

URETEROLITHICUS. (From senting, the ureter, and λιθον, a stone.) Applied to an

ischury from a stone in the ureter.

URETEROTHROMBOIDES. (From sentue, the ureter, and beoutes, grumous blood, and sidos, a likeness.) Applied to an ischury from grumous blood in the ureter.

URETEROPHLEGMATICUS. (From sgring, the ureter, and pasyma, phlegm.) Applied to a suppression of urine from pituitous

matter in the ureter.

Unetero-pricus. (From sgnrng, the ureter, and woor, pus.) Applied to an ischury from purulent matter in the ureter.

URETEROSTOMATICUS. (From senting, the ureter, and soma, a mouth ) Applied to a suppression of urine from an obstruction in the lower orifice of the ureter.

(From seer, the nrine; URETHRA because it is the canal through which the of an healthy men is divided in general into, urine passes ) A membranous canal running from the neck of the bladder through or two hours after eating; this is for the the inferior part of the penis to the extre- most part aqueous, and often vitiated by mity of the glans penis, in which it opens some foods, and,

urinarius. In this course it first passes through the prostate gland, which portion is distinguished by the name of the prostatical urethra; it then becomes much di-lated, and is known by the name of the bulbous part, in which is situated a cutaneous eminence called the caput gallinaginis or verumontanum, around which are ten or twelve orifices of the excretory ducts of the prostate gland, and two of the spermatic vessels. The remaining part of the urethra contains a number of triangular months, which are the lacune, or openings of the excretory ducts of the mucous glands of the urethra.

URETHELMINTHICUS. (From 20,002, the urethra, and ελμινθες, worms.) Applied to an ischury from worms in the urethra,

URETHRITICUS. (From senbeitic, an inflammation of the urethra.) Applied to a suppression of urine from an inflammation of the urethra.

URETHRITIS. (From sender, the urethra.) An inflammation in the urethra.

See Gonorrhea.

URETHROHYMENODES. (From sender, the urethra, and umnr, a membrane.) Applied to an ischury from a membrane obstructing the urethra.

URETHROLITHICUS. (From senbea, the urethra, and λιθος, a stone.) Applied to a suppression of urine from a stone in the

urethra.

URETHROMBOIDES. (From εgnθga, the urethra, and beomboidns, a grumous concretion.) A caruncle in the urethra,

URETHROPHLEGMATICUS. (From sender, the urethra, and φλεγμα, phlegm.) Applied to an ischury from mucus obstricting the urethra.

URETHRO-PTICUS. (From zenbea, the urethra, and avov, pus.) Applied to a suppression of urine from pus collected in the urethra.

URETICA. (From secv, urine.) Medicines which promote a discharge of urine.

URIAS. (From 890v, urine.) The urethra. URINE. (Urina; 8gov, from cesa, to rush out.) The saline liquid, secreted in the kidneys, and dropping down from them, guttatim, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder. The secretory organ is composed of the arterious vessels of the cortical substance of the kidneys, from which the urine passes through the uriniferous tubuli and renal papillæ, into the renal pelvis: whence it flows drop by drop, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder: where it is detained some hours, and at length, when abundant, eliminated through the urethra. The urine

1. Crude, or that which is emitted one

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2. Cocted, which is climinated some hours after the digestion of the food, as that which is emitted in the morning after steeping. This is generally in smaller quantity, thicker, more coloured, more acrid than at any other time. Of such cocted urine, the colour is usually citrine, and not unliandsome.

The degree of heat agrees with that of the blood; hence in atmospheric air it is warmer, as is perceived if the hand be washed with urine. The specific gra- evaporation of urine. vity is greater than water, and that emitted in the morning is always heavier than at any other time. The smell of fresh urine is not disagreeable. The taste is saltish and na seous. The consistence is somewhat thicker than water. The quantity depends on that of the liquid drink, its diviretic nature, and the temperature Scheele first ascertained to be crystals of of the air.

Changes of urine in the air. Preserved in an open vessel, it remains pellucid for some time, and at length there is perceived at the bottom a nubecula or little cloud, cially during diseases of the liver, a coconsolidated as it were from the gluten, pious sediment of a brick-red colour is de-This nubecula increases by degrees, occu- posited from urine. This sediment conpies all the urine, and renders it opaque. The natural smell is changed into a putrid cadaverous one; and the surface is now generally covered with a cuticle, composed of very minute crystals. At length the urine regains its transparency, and the colour is changed from a yellow to a brown; the cadaverous smell passes into an alkaline, and a brown grumous sediment falls to the bottom, filled with white particles, deliquescing in the air, and so congluti-nated as to form, as it were, little soft calculi.

Thus two sediments are distinguishable in the urine; the one white and gelatinous, and separated in the beginning; the other brown and grumous, deposited by the

urine when putrid.

Of all the Spontaneous degeneration. fluids of the body, the urine first putrefies. In summer, after a few hours it becomes turbid, and sordidly black; then deposits a copious sediment, and exhales a fetor, like that of putrid cancers, which, at length becomes cadaverous. Putrid urine effervesces with acids, and if distilled, gives off, before water, an urmous volatile spirit.

The proporties of healthy urinc, are,

1. Urine reddens paper stained with turnsole and with the juice of radishes, and therefore contains in acid. This acid has been generally considered as the phosphoric, but Thenard has shewn that in reality it is the acetic.

2. If a solution of ammonia be poured into fresh urine, a white powder precipitates, which has the properties of phosphate

of lime.

3. If the phosphate of lime precipitated from urine be examined, a little magnesia will be found mixed with it. Fourcroy and Vanquelin have ascertained that this is owing to a lit le phosphate of mugnesia which urine contains, and which is decomposed by the atkali of lime employed to precipitate the phosphate of lime.

4. Proust informs us that carbonic acid exists in urine, and that its separation occasions the froth which appears during the

5. Proust has observed, that nrine kept in new casks deposits small crystals, which effloresce in the air, and fall to powder. These crystals possess the properties of the carbonate of lime.

6. When fresh urine cools, it often lets fall a brick-coloured precipitate, which uric acid All urine contains this acid even when no sensible precipitate appears when it cools.

7. During intermitting fevers, and espetains the rosacic acid of Proust.

8. If fresh urine be evaporated to the consistence of a syrup, and muriatic acid be then poured into it, a precipitate appears which possesses the properties of

benzoic acid.

9. When an infusion of tannin is dropped into urine, a white precipitate appears, having the properties of the combination of taunin and albumen or gelatine. Their quantity in healthy urine is very small, often indeed not sensible. Cruickshanks found that the precipitate afforded by tannin in healthy urine amounted to 1-240th

part of the weight of the urine.

10. If urine be evaporated by a slow fire to the consistence of a thick syrup, it assumes a deep brown colour, and exhales a fetul ammoniacal odour. When allowed to cool, it concretes into a mass of crystals, composed of all the component paris of urine. If four times its weight of alcohol be poured into this mass, at intervals, and a slight heat be applied, the greatest part is dissolved. The alcohol which has acquired a brown colour is to be decanted off, and distilled in a retort in a sand heat till the mixture has boiled for some time and acquired the consistence of a syrup. By this time the whole of the alcohol has passed off, and the matter, on cooling, crystallizes in quadrangular plates, which intersect each other. This substance is urea, which composes 9-20ths of the urine, provided the watery part be excluded. It is this substance which characterises urine, and constitutes it what it is, and to which the greater part of the very singular phanomena of urine are to be ascribed.

11. According to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, the colour of urine depends upon the urea; the greater the proportion of urea the deeper the colour. But Proust has detected a resinous matter in urine similar to the resin of bile, and to this substance he ascribes the colour of urine,

12 If urine be slowly evaporated to the consistence of a syrup, a number of crystals make their appearance on its surface, these possess the properties of the muriate of

13. The saline residuum which remains after the separation of urea from crystallized urine by means of alcohol, has been long known by the names of fusible salt of urine, and microcosmic salt. When these salts are examined, they are found to have the properties of phosphates. The rhombordal prisms consist of phosphate of ammonia, united to a little phosphate of soda, the rectangular tables, on the contrary, are phosphate of soda united to a small quantity of phosphate of ammonia, urine then contains phosphate of soda, and phosphate of ammonia.

14. When urine is cautiously evaporated, a few cubic crystals are often deposited among the other salts, these crystals have the properties of muriate of ammonia.

15. When urine is boiled in a silver basin, it blackens the basin, and if the quantity of urine be large, small crusts of sulphuret of silver may be detached. Hence we see that urine contains sul-

stances:

1. Water.

2. Acetic acid.

3. Phosphate of lime.

4. Phosphate of magnesia,

5. Carbonic acid.

6. Carbonate of lime:

7. Uric acid. 8. Rosaic acid

9. Benzoic acid.

10. Albumen.

11. Urea. 12. Resin:

13. Muriate of soda.

14. Phosphate of soda. 15. Phosphate of ammonia.

16. Muriate of ammonia.

17. Sulphur.

No liquor in the human body, however pure, is so variable, in respect to quantity and quality, as the urine; for it varies,

1. In respect to age: in the fatus it is inodorous, insipid, and almost aqueous; but as the infant grows, it becomes more acrid and fetid; and in old age more particularly so.

2. In respect to drink: it is secreted in greater quantity, and of a more pale colour, from cold and copious draughts. nettle.

It becomes green from an infusion of Chinese tea, or the use of the pulp of Cassia.

3. In respect to food: from eating the heads of asparagus, or olives, it contracts a peculiar smell; from the fruit of the opuntia, it becomes red; and from f-sting turbid.

4. In resiect to medicines: from the exhibition of rhubarb root, it becomes yellow; and from turpentine a violet co-

5. In respect to the time of the year: in the winter the urine is more copious and aqueous; but in the summer, from the increased transpiration, it is more sparing, higher coloured, and so acrid that it sometimes becomes strangurious. The climate induces the same difference.

6. In respect of the muscular motion of the body: it is secreted more sparingly, and concentrated by motion; and is more copiously diluted, and rendered more crude

by rest.

7. In respect of the affection of the mind:

thus fright makes the urme pale.

Use. The urine is an excrementitous fluid, like lixivium, by which the human body is not only liberated from the superfluous water, but also from the superfluous salts, and animal earth; and is defended from corruption.

Lastly, the vis medicatrix natura sometimes eliminates many morbid and acrid substances with the urine; as may be ob-

served in fevers, dropsies, &c.

URINE, RETENTION OF. A want of Urine then contains the following sub- the ordinary secretion of urine. In retention of urine there is none secreted; in a suppression, the urine is secreted but cannot be voided.

Urine, suppression of. See Ischuria.

URINA See Urine.

Urinaculum. See Urachus.

URINARIA. (From urina, urine; so named from its diuretic qualities.) The herb dandelion See Turaxacum.

URINÆ ARDOR. See Dysuria.

Unocrisia. (From seov, urine, and serva, to judge.) The judgment formed of diseases by the inspection of urine.

URORRHEA. (From sgov, the urine, and eεω, to flow.) A discharge of the urine

through the eroded peringum.

The root of the plant URSINA RADIX. See Meum athamanticalled baldmoney.

UROSCOPIA. (From 850v, the urine, and σκοπεω, to inspect.) Inspection of urine, that a judgment of diseases may be made

from its appearance.

(Ab urendo; because it ex-URTICA. cites an itching and pustules like those produced by fire.) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Monoecia. Order, Tetrandria.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the com- turæ. Hystera. Metra. mon nettle. Urtica dioica of Linnaus. womb. A spongy receptacle resembling a This plant is well known, and though compressed pear, situated in the cavity of generally despised as a noxious weed, has the pelvis, above the ragina, and between been long used for medical, enlinary, and the urinary bladder and rectum. economical purposes. The young shoots in the spring possess diuretic and antiscor- an oblong pear flattened, with the depressbutic properties, and are with these inten- ed sides placed towards the ossa pubis and tions boiled and eaten instead of cabbage greens.

URTICA DIOICA. The systematic name of the common stinging nettle. See Urtica.

Untica Mourua. See Lamium album. PILULIFERA. The systematic name of the pillbearing nettle. See Urtica and the cervix; the upper part is called romana.

URTICA HOMANA. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopæias is the Urtica pilulifera of Linnaus The seed was formerly given against diseases of the chest, but is now deservedly forgotten. To raise an irritation in paralytic limbs the fresh plant may be employed as producing a more permanent sting than the common nettle.

Untica uness. The systematic name of a lesser nettle than the dioica, and pos-

sessing similar virtues.

URTICARIA. (From urtica, a nettle.) bris urticata. Uredo. Purpura urticata. Febris urticata. Scarlatina urticata. The nettle-rash. A species of exanthematous fever, known by pregnancy, as to prevent any very accurate pyrexia and an eruption on the skin like mensuration. The cavity of the nterus that produced by the sting of the nettle, corresponds with the external form; that The little elevations, called the nettle rash, of the cervix leads from the os uteri, where often appear instantaneously, especially it is very small, in a straight direction, to if the skin be rubbed or scratched, and the fundus, where it is expanded into a seldom stay many hours in the same place, triangular form, with two of the angles and sometimes not many minutes. No opposed to the entrance into the Pallopian part of the body is exempt from them; tubes; and at the place of junction between and where many of them rise together, and the cervix and the body of the utcrus the continue an hour or two, the parts are eavity is smaller than it is in any other part, often considerably swelled, which particularly happens in the arms, face, and hands.

These eruptions will continue to infest the skin, sometimes in one place and sometimes longitudinally through its middle. The two or three times a day, or perhaps for the os uteri, and is continued into the greatest part of twenty four hours. membrane which lines the cavity of the In some constitutions they last only a few uteris. The internal surface of the uterus days, in others many months.

URTICATIO. (From urtica, a nettle.) The whipping a paralytic or benumbed nal, lessen as they advance into the uterus, limb with nettles, in order to restore its

feelings.

growing on the human skull, was formerly in high estimation, but now deservedly forgotten.

Uterine fury See Nymphomania. UTERUS. Younga. Matrix. Ager na. fibres are of a pale colour, and appear also

Utriculus.

The form of the uterus resembles that of sacrum; but, in the impregnated state, it becomes more oval, according to the degree of its distention. For the convenience of description, and for some practical purposes, the uterus is distinguised into three parts. The fundus, the body, the fundus, the lower the cervix, the space between them, the extent of which is undefined, the body. The uterns is about three inches in length, about two in breadth at the fundus, and one at the cervix. Its thickness is different at the fundus and cervix, being at the former usually rather less than half an inch, and at the latter somewhat more; and this thickness is preserved throughout pregnancy, chiefly by the enlargement of the veins and lymphatics; there being a smaller change in the size of the arteries But there is so great a variety in the size and dimensions of the uterus in different women, independent of the states of virginity, marriage, or is corrugated in a beautiful manner, but the ruge, or wrinkles, which are longitudithe fundus of which is smooth. In the intervals between the rugæ are small orifi-UNDEA. Muscus cranii humani. This ces, like those in the vagina, which dismoss, Lichen saxatilis of Lannzus, when charge a mucus, serving, besides other purposes, that of closing the os uters very curiously and perfectly during pregnancy. The subs ance of the uterus, which is very UTERARIA. (From uterus, the womb) firm, is composed of arteries, veins, lym-Med cines appropriated to diseases of the phatics, nerves, and muscular fibres, curiously interwoved and connected together by cellular membrane. The muscular

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in their texture somewhat different from or reticulated order, whilst others have muscular fibres in other parts of the body, contended that there were no muscular The arteries of the uterus are the sperma- fibres whatever in the uterus. In the untic and hypogastric. The spermatic arteries impregnated uterus, when boiled for the arise from the anterior part of the aorta, a little below the emulgents, and sometimes from the emulgents. They pass over the psox muscles behind the peritonxum, enter between the two taming or duplicatures of the peritonaum which form the broad ligaments of the uterus, and proceed to the uterus, near the fundus of which they insinuate the mselves, giving branches in their passage to the ovaria and Fallopian tubes. The hypogastric arteries are on each side a considerable branch of the internal iliacs. They pass to the sides of the body of the uterus, sending off a number of smaller branches, which dip into its substance. Some branches also are reflected upwards to the fundus uteri, which anastomose with the spermatic arteries, and others are reflected downwards, supplying the vagina. The veins which reconduct the blood from the uterus are very numerous, and their size in the unimpregnated state is proportioned to that of the arteries; but their enlargement during pregnancy is such, that the orifices of some of them, when divided, will admit ev n of the end of a small finger. The veins anastomose in the manner of the arteries which they accompany out of the uterus, and then, having the same names with the arteries spermatic and hypogastric, the former proceeds to the vena cava on the right side, and on fimbriæ. The canal which passes through the left to the emulgent vein; and the latter to the internal iliac.

From the substance and surfaces of the uterns an infinite number of lymphatics arise, which follow the course of the hypogastric and spermatic blood-vessels. The first pass into the gland of the internal iliac plexus, and the other into the glands which are situated near the origin of the spermatic arteries. Of these Nuck first gave a

The uterus is supplied with nerves from the lower mesocolic plexus, and from two small flat circular ganglions, which are situated behind the rectum. These ganglions are joined by a number of small branches from the third and fourth sacral The ovaria derive their nerves from the renal plexus. By the great number of nerves these parts are rendered very irritable, but it is by those branches which the uterus receives from the intercostal, that the intimate consent between it and the peritonaum, and pass out of the pelvis various other parts is chiefly preserved. through the ring of the external oblique The muscular fibres of the uterus have been muscle to the groin, where the vessels subdescribed in a very different manner by divide into small branches, and terminate anatomists, some of whom have asserted at the mons veneris and contiguous parts. that its substance was chiefly muscular, From the insertion of these ligaments into

purpose of a more perfect examination. the former seems to be a true representation; and when the uterus is distended towards the latter part of pregnancy, these fibres are very thinly scattered; but they may be discovered in a circular direction, at the junction between the body and the cervix of the uterus, and surrounding the entrance of each Fallopian tube in a similar order. Yet it does not seem reasonable to attribute the time of labour to its muscular fibres only, if we are to judge of the power of a muscle by the number of fibres of which it is composed, unless it is presumed that those of the uterus are stronger than in common muscles. With respect to the glands of the uterus, none are discoverable dispersed through its substance upon the inner surface of the cervix; between the rugæ there are lacunæ which secrete mucus, and there are small follicles at the edge of the os uteri. These last are only observable in a state of pregnancy, when they are much enlarged. From the angles at the fundus of the uterus, two processes of an irregular round form originate, called, from the name of the first describer, the Fallopian tubes. They are about three inches in length, and, becoming smaller in their progress from the uterus, have an uneven, fringed termination, called the these tubes is extremely small at their origin, but it is gradually enlarged, and terminates with a patulous orifice, the diameter of which is about one third of an inch, surrounded by the fimbriæ. It is also lined by a very fine vascular membrane, formed into serpentine plicæ. Through this canal, the communication between the uterus and ovaria is preserved. The Fallopian tubes are wrapped in duplicatures of the peritonæum, which are called the broad ligaments of the uterus; but a portion of their extremities, thus folded, hangs loose on each side of the pelvis. From each lateral angle of the uterus, a little before and below the Fallopian tubes, the round ligaments arise, which are composed of arteries, veins, lymphatics, nerves, and a fibrous structure. These are connected together by cellular membrane, and the whole is much enlarged during pregnancy. They receive their outward covering from with fibres running in transverse, orbicular, the groin, the reason appears why that part

generally suffers in all the diseases and though not in a sufficient quantity to reaffections of the uterus, and why the ingui- move it. There is also an obstinate connal glands are in women so often found in stipation of the bowels, produced by the a morbid or enlarged state. The dupli- pressure of the retroverted uterus upon catures of the peritonaum, in which the the rectum, which renders the injection of Fallopian tubes and ovaria are involved, a clyster very difficult, or even impossible. are called the broad ligaments of the uterus. But it appears that all the painful symp-These prevent the entanglement of the toms are chiefly in consequence of the parts, and are conductors of the vessels suppression of urine; for none of those and nerves as the mesentery is of those of parts which are apt to sympathise in affecthe intestines Both the round and broad ligaments after their position during preg- by its retroversion. The retroversion of nancy, appearing to rise lower and more the uterus has generally occurred about forward than in the unimpregnated state. the third month of pregnancy, and some-Their use is supposed to be that of prevent- times after delivery it may likewise happen, regulate its direct on when it ascends into the cavity of the abdomen; but whether third month of pregnancy, but not with they answer those purposes may be much such facility as in the pregnant state, bedoubted. The use of the womb is for cause the enlargement is then chiefly at menstruation, conception, nutrition of the the fundus. If the uterus is but little enforced, pregnanced, because the enlargement is then chiefly at menstruation, conception, nutrition of the fœtus, and parturition. The uterus is lia-larged, or if it be enlarged beyond a ble to many diseases, the principal of certain time, it cannot well be retroverted; which are prolapsus uteri, procidentia uteri, hydatids, dropsy of the uterus or tympanites uteri, moles, ulceration, &c.

UTERUS, RETROVERSION OF. By the term retroversion, such a change of the position of the uterus is understood, that the fundus is turned backwards and downwards upon its cervix, between the vagina and rectum, and the os uteri is turned forwards to the pubis, and upwards in proportion to the descent of the fundus, so that, by an examination per vaginum, it cannot be felt, or not without difficulty, when the utcrus is retroverted. By the same examination there may also be perceived a large round tumour, occupying the inferior part of the cavity of the pelvis, and pressing the vagina towards the pubis. By an examination per anum, the same tumour may be felt, pressing the rectum to the hollow of the sacrum, and if both these examinations are made at the same time, we may readily discover that the tumour is confined between the vagina and rectum. Besides the knowledge of the retroversion which may be gained by these examinations, it is found to be accompanied with other very distinguishing symptoms. There is in every case, together with extreme pain, a suppression of urine; and by the continuance of this distention of the bladder the tumour formed by it in the abdomen often equals in size, and resembles in shape, the uterns in the sixth or seventh months of pregnancy; but it is necessary to observe, that the suppression of urine is frequently absolute only before thiaca. the retroversion of the uterus, or during the time it is retroverted; for when the retroversion is completed, there is often a discharge of urine, so as to prevent an in- Bears' whorts, or bear's bilberries, called

tions or diseases of the uterus are disturbed the fundus. If the uterus is but little en-larged, or if it be enlarged beyond a for, in the first case, should the cause of a retroversion exist, the weight at the fundus would be wanting to produce it; and in the latter the uterus would be raised above the projection of the sacrum, and supported by the spine.

UTRICARIA. (From uter, a bottle; so named from its appendages at the end of the leaves resembling bottles, to contain water.) A name of the nepanthes, or wonderful plant.

UTHICULUS. (Dim. of uter, a bottle; so

called from its shape.): The womb.
Uva. (Quasi uvida, from its juice.) An unripe grape. A tumour on the eye resembling a grape.

UVA GRUINA. Crane-berries. They are brought from New England, and are reckoned antiscorbutic.

UVA PASSA MAJOR. Passula major. The raisin. The dried fruit of the Vitis vinifera of Linnæus :- foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis. Raisins are prepared by immersing the fresh fruit into a solution of alkaline salt and soap-ley, made boiling hot, to which is added some olive-oil, and a small quantity of common salt, and afterwards drying them in the shade. They are used as agreeable, lubricating, acescent sweets in pectoral decoctions, and for obtunding the acrimony in other medicines, and rendering them grateful to the palate and stomach. They are directed in the decoctum hordei compositum tinctura sennæ, and tinctura cardamonii composita.

UVA PASSA MINOR. Passa corin-The currants The dried fruit of the vitis corinthica. Their virtues are similar to those of the uva passa major.

UVA URSI. Bear's whortle-berry. crease of the distention of the bladder, also vaccaria vaccinic. Trailing arbutus, or bear-berry. Arbutus uva ursi of Linnæus: -canlibus procumbentibus, foliis integerrimis. This plant, though employed by the ancients in several diseases, requiring adstringent medicines, had almost entirely fallen into disuse until the middle of the present century, when it first drew the attention of physicians as a useful remedy in calculous and nephritic complaints, which diseases it appears to relieve by its adstringent qualities

UVEA. (From uva, an unripe grape.) The posterior lamina of the iris; so called because, in beasts, which the ancients chiefly dissected, it is of the colour of un-

lumella, Cion. Gargareon. Columna oris. more adstringent remedies.

Gurgulio interseptum. The small conical fleshy substance hanging in the middle of the velum pendulum palati, over the root of the tongue. It is composed of the common membrane of the mouth, and a small muscle resembling a worm which arises from the union of the palatine bone, and descends to the tip of the uvula. It was called Pulato staphilinus by Douglas, and Staphilinus epistaphilinus by Winslow. By its contraction the uvula is raised up.

UVULARIA. (From uvula, because it cured diseases of the uvula.) The plant which bears this epithet in some pharmacopaias is the Ruscus hypoglossum of Linripe grapes.

UVULA (Dim. of uva, a grape.)

næus: it was formerly used against relaxation of the uvula, but now laid aside for

VACCA. The cow.

VACCARIA. (From vacca, 2 cow; because it is coveted by cows.) The herb cow's basil.

VACCINATION. The insertion of the matter to produce the cow-pox. See Variolæ vaccinæ.

VACCINIUM. (Quasi baccinium, from its berry ) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Octandria. Order, Monogynia.

VACCINIUM MYRTILLUS. The systematic name of the myrtle-berry. See Myrtillus.

The systema-VACCINIUM OXYCOCCOS. tic name of the cranberry-plant. See Oxycoccos.

VACCINIUM VITIS IDEA. The systematic name of the red whortle-berry. See ed to the circumference of the os uteri, but

Vitis idea.

VAGINA. A sheath. Vagina uteri. That canal which leads from the pudendum or external brifice to the uterus, is called the vagina. It is somewhat of a conical form, with the narrowest part downwards, and is described as being five or six inches in length, and about two in diameter. But it would be more proper to say, that it is capable of being extended to those dimensions; for in its common state, the os uteri is seldom found to be more than three inches from the external orifice, and the vagina is contracted as well as shortened. The vagina is composed of two coats, the first or innermost of which is villous, interspersed with many exerctory ducts, and such an abbreviation and contraction as contracted into plica, or small transverse render it unfit for the uses for which it was folds, particularly at the fore and back designed: secondly, a cohesion of the sides part, but, by child-bearing these are les- in consequence of preceding ulceration:

sened or obliterated. The second coat is composed of a firm membrane, in which muscular fibres are not distinctly observable, but which are endowed, to a certain degree, with contractile powers like a This is surrounded by cellular muscle. membrane, which connects it to the neighbouring parts. A portion of the upper and posterior part of the vagina is also covered by the peritonæum. The entrance of the vagina is constricted by muscular fibres, originating from the rami of the pubis, which run on each side of the pudendum, surrounding the posterior part, and executing an equivalent office, though they cannot be said to form a true sphincter.

The upper part of the vagina is connect. not in a straight line, so as to render the cavity of the uterus a continuation of that of the vagina. For the latter stretches beyond the former, and, being joined to the cervix, is reflected over the os uteri, which, by this mode of union, is suspended with protuberan lips in the vagina, and permitted to change its position in various ways and directions. When therefore these parts are distended and unfolded at the time of labour, they are continued into each other, and there is no part which can properly be considered as the precise begin ing of the uterus or termination of the vagina.

The diseases of the vagina are, first,

thirdly, cicatrices after an ulceration of the cast off wholly or partially. An ulcerated parts: fourthly, excrescences: fifthly, surface being thus left, when the disposi-fluor albus This abbreviation and contion to heal has taken place, cicatrices traction of the vagina, which usually accompany each other, are produced by cording to the depth and extent of the original defective formation, and they are ulceration; and there being no counteracseldom discovered before the time of mar- tion to the contractile state of the parts, riage, the consummation of which they the dimensions of the vagina become much sometimes prevent. The curative inten- reduced, or if the ulceration should not tions are to relax the parts by the use of be healed, and the contractibility of the emollient applications, and to dilate them parts continue to operate, the ulcerated to their proper size by sponge, or other surfaces being brought together may cotents, or, which are more effectual, by here, and the canal of the vanina be perbougies gradually enlarged. But the cir- feetly closed. cumstances which attend this disorder, are sometimes such as might lead us to form an come an impediment to the connexion crroncous opinion of the disease. A case between the sexes; when they do, the of this kind, which was under Dr. Den- same kind of assistance is required as was man's care, from the strangury, from the recommended in the natural contraction heat of the parts, and the profuse and in- or abbreviation of the part; they always flammatory discharge, was suspected to give way to the pressure of the head of proceed from venereal infection; and with the child in the time of labour, though in that opinion the patient had been put upon many cases with great difficulty. Somea course of medicine composed of quick- times the appearances may mislead the silver, for several weeks, without relief, judgment; for the above author was called When she applied to the Dr. he prevailed to a woman in labour, who was thought upon her to submit to an examination, and to have become pregnant; the hymen refound the vagina rigid, so much contracted mained unbroken; but, on making very as not to exceed half an inch in diameter, particular inquiry, he discovered that this and more than one inch and a half in was her second labour, and that the part attempts which had been made to com- supposed to be the hymen, with a small plete the act of coition, had occasioned a aperture, was a cicatrice, or unnatural considerable inflammation upon the parts, contraction of the entrance into the vagina, and all the suspicious appearances before consequent to an inceration of the part mentioned. To remove the inflammation after her former labour. Fungous excresshe was bled, took some gentle purgative cences arising from any part of the vagina medicines, used an emollient fomentation, or uterns, have been distinguished, though and afterwards some unctuous applications; not very properly, by the general term po-she was also advised to live separate from lypus. See Polypus. her husband for some time. The inflammation being gone, tents of various sizes covering of nerves By some it is said to were introduced into the vagina, by which be a production of the pia mater only, it was distended, though not very amply, and by others of the dura mater, because She then returned to her husband, and in it agrees with it in tenacity, colour, and a few months became pregnant. Her la- texture bour, though slow, was not attended with any extraordinary difficulty. She was de- membranous sheath, formed of cellular livered of a full-sized child, and afterwards membrane, investing the tendons, and suffered no inconvenience. Another kind containing an unctuous juice, which is of constriction of the external parts somescented by the vessels of its internal surtimes occurs, and which seems to be a face. Ganglions are nothing more than an mere spasm. By the violence or long conaccumulation of this juice. tinuance of a labour, by the morbid state Vaginalis to of the constitution, or by the negligent vaginalis testis and improper use of instruments, an inflammation of the external parts, or vagina, is sometimes produced in such a degree as to endanger a mortification. By careful management this consequence is usually prevented, but in some cases, when the tris. constitution of the patient was prone to disease, the external parts have sloughed away, and in others, equal injury has been first particularly described it.) 1. The done to the vagina. But the effect of the name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan inflammation is usually confined to the system. Class, Triandria, Order, Monointernal or villous coat, which is sometimes gynia. Valerian.

Cicatrices in the vagina very seldom be-The repeated, though fruitless which, from its form and situation, was

VAGINA OF NERVES. The outer

VAGINA OF TENDONS.

VAGINALIS TUNICA TESTIS. See Tunica

Vagum par. See Par vagum. Vulerian, celtic. See Nurdus celtica. Valerian, garden. See Valeriana major. Valerian, great. See Valeriana major. Valerian, lesser. See Valeriana sylves-

Valerian, wild See Valeriana sylvestris. VALERIANA (From Valerius, who

2. The pharmacopoial name of the wild valerian. Valeriana minor. Officinal valerian. Valeriana officinalis of Linnaus: foribus triandris, foliis omnibus punnatis. The root of this plant has been long extolled as an efficacious remedy in epilepsy, which caused it to be exhibited in a variety of other complaints termed nervous, in which it has been found highly serviceable. It is also in very general use as an antispasmodic, and is exhibited in convulsive hysterical diseases. A simple and volatile tincture are directed in the pharmacopoxias.

VALERIANA CELTICA. The systematic name of the celtic nard. See Nardus cel-

tica.

Valeriana Majon. Phu. The garden valerian. The root of this plant, valeriana phu of Linnaus, is said to be efficacious in removing rheumatism, especially the sciatica, and also inveterate epilepsies.

VALERIANA MINOR. See Vuleriana sylvestris.

VALERIANA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the wild valerian. See Valeriana sylvestris.

VALERIANA PHU. The systematic name of the garden valerian. See Valeriana znajor.

VALERIANA SYLVESTRIS. See Valeriana.
VALLUM. (From vallus, a hedge stake; so called from the regular trench-like disposition of the hairs.) The eye-brows.

VALVA. (Valva; from valvee, to fold up.) A thin and transparent membrane situated within certain vessels, as arteries, veins, and absorbents, whose office appears to be to prevent the contents of the vessel

nem flowing back.

VALVE OF THE COLON. The end of the iliac portion of the small intestine enters the large one obliquely, and projects somewhat within it, so as to form a kind of valve, called from its discoverer the valve of Tulpius, also the valve of the cocum.

Valves, semilunar. See Semilunar valves.
Valves, tricuspid. See Tricuspid valves.
Valves, triglochin. See Tricuspid valves.

VALVULA. (Dim. of valva.) A little valve.

VALVULA COLI. See Intestines.

VALVULA EUSTACHII A membranous semilunar valve, which separates the right auricle from the inferior vena cava, first described by Eustachius.

VALVULA TULPII. See Valve of the

colon.

VALVULÆ CONNIVENTES. The semilunar folds formed of the villous coat of the intestinum duodenum and jejunum. Their use appears to be to increase the surface of the intestines.

VALVULÆ MITRALES. See Mitral

VALVULÆ SEMILUNARES. See Semilunar valves.

VALVULÆ TRIGLOCHINES. See

Tricuspid valves.

Vanelloe. Vanilla. Banilia. Banilas. Aracus. Aromaticus. A long, flattish pod, con aining, under a wrinkled brittle shell, a reddish brown pulp, with small shining black seeds. The plant which affords this fruit is the Epidendrum vanilla of Linnaus:—scandens, foliis ovato oblongis nervosis sessilibus canlinis, cirrhis spiralibus. Vanelloes have an unctuous aromatic taste, and a fragrant smell like that of some of the finer balsanis heightened with musk. Although chiefly used as perfumes, they are said to possess aphredisiac virtues.

Vanilla See Vanelloe.

VAPORARIUM. (From vapor, vapour.)
A vapour-bath

VARI See Jonthi.

VARIA. (From varius, changeable.) The small-pox, also small red pimples in the face.

VARICELLA. (Dim. of varie, the small-pox; so called from its being changeable.) Variola lymphatica. The Chickenpox. A genus of disease in the class pyrexix and order exauthemata of Cullen; known by moderate synocha; pimples bearing some resemblance to the small-pox, quickly forming pustules, which contain a fluid matter, and after three or four days from their first appearance, desquamate.

VARICOCELE. (From varia, a distended vein, and xnhh, a tumour.) A swelling of the veins of the scrotum, or spermatic cord; hence it is divided into the scrotal varicocele, which is known by the appearance of livid and tumid veins on the scrotum; and varicocele of the spermatic cord, known by feeling hard vermiform vessels in the course of the spermatic cord.

Varicocele mostly arises from excessive walking, running, jumping, wearing of trusses, and the like, producing at first a slight uneasiness in the part, which if not remedied, continues advancing towards

the loins.

VARIOLA. (From varius, changing colour, because it disfigures the skin.) The small pox. A genus of disease in the class pyrexia and order exanthemata of Cullen; distinguished by synocha; eruption of red pimples on the third day, which on the eighth day contain pus, and drying, fall off in crusts

It is a disease of a very contagious nature, supposed to have been introduced into Europe from Arabia, and in which there arises a fever, that is succeeded by a number of little inflammations in the skin, which proceed to suppuration, the matter formed thereby being capable of produ-

cing the disorder in another person. It number and size for three or four longer, makes its attack on people of all ages, but the young of both sexes are more hanle to it than those who are much advanced in life; and it may prevail at all the seasons of the year, but in general is most prevalent in the spring and summer.

The small-pox is distinguished into the distinct and confluent, implying that in the former, the eruptions are perfectly separate from each other, and that in the latter,

they run much into one another.

Both species are produced either by breathing air impregnated with the effluvia arising from the body of those who labour under the disease, or by the introduction of a small quantity of the variolous matter into the habit by inoculation; and it is probable that the difference of the smallpox is not owing to any difference in the contagion, but depends on the state of the person to whom it is applied, or on certain circumstances concurring with the application of it.

A variety of opinions have been entertained respecting the effect of the variolous infection on the feetus in the utero; a sufficient number of instances, however, has been recorded, to ascertain that the disease may be communicated from the mother to the child. In some cases, the body of the child, at its birth, has been covered with pustules, and the nature of the disease has been most satisfactorily ascertained by inoculating with matter taken from the pustules In other cases, there has been no appearance of the disease at the time of the birth, but an eruption and other symptoms of the disease have appeared so early, as to ascertain that the infection must have been received previously to the removal of the child from the aterus.

Four different states, or stages, are to be observed in the small-pox : first, the febrile; second, the emprive; third, the maturative; and fourth, that of the declina-tion or scabbing. When the disease has arisen naturally, and is of the distinct kind, the eruption is commonly preceded by a redness in the eyes, soreness in the throat, pains in the head, back, and loins, weariness and faintness, alternate fits of chillness and heat, thirst, nausea, inclination to voma, and a quick pulse.

In some instances these symptoms prevail in a high digree, and in others they are very moderate and triffing. In very young children, startings and convulsion are apt to take place a short time previous to the ppearance of the emption, always giving great alarm to those not conversant with the frequency of the occurrence.

About the third or fourth day from the first scizure, the eruption shews itself in little red spots on the face, neck, and breast, and these continue to increase in at the end of which time, they are to be observed dispersed over several parts of the body.

If the pustules are not very numerous, the febrile symptoms will generally go off on the appearance of the eruption, or they will become very moderate. It sometimes happens, that a number of little spots of an erysipelatous nature are interspersed amongst the pustules; but these generally go in again, as soon as the suppuration commences, which is usually about the fifth or sixth day, at which period, a small vesicle, containing an almost colourless fluid, may be observed upon the top of each pimple. Should the pustules be perfectly distinct and separate from each other, the suppuration will probably be completed about the eighth or ninth day, and they will then be filled with a thick yellow matter; but should they run much into each other, it will not be completed till some days later.

When the pustules are very thick and numerous on the face, it is apt about this time to become much swelled, and the eyelids to be closed up, previous to which, there usually arises a hourseness, and difficulty of swallowing, accompanied with a considerable discharge of viscid saliva. About the eleventh day, the swelling of the face usually subsides, together with the affection of the fauces, and is succeeded by the same in the hands and feet, after which the pustules break, and discharge their contents; and then b. coming dry, they fall in crusts, leaving the skin which they covered of a brown red colour, which appearance continues for many days. those cases where the pustules are large, and are late in becoming dry and falling off, they are very ap to leave pits behind them; but where they are small, suppurate quickly, and are few in number, they neither leave any marks behind them, nor do they occasion much affection of the sys-

In the confluent small pox, the fever which precedes the eruption is much more violent than in the distinct, bein, attended usually with great anxiety, heat, thirst, nausea, vomiting, and a frequent and contracted pulse, and often with coma or de-In infants, convulsive fits are apt to occur, which either prove fatal before any eruption appears, or they usher in a malignant species of the discuse.

The eruption usually makes its appearance about the third day, being frequently preceded or attended with a rusy efflorescence, similar to what takes place in the measles; but the fever, although it suffers some slight remission on the coming out of the eruption, does not go off as in he distinct kind; on the contrary, it becomes increased after the fifth or sixth day, and

continues considerably throughout the re- or approaches nearly in its nature to that mainder of he disease.

As the emption advances, the face being thickly beset with pustules, becomes degree of which is ever in proportion to the very much swelled, the eyelids are closed violence and permanence of the fever, the up, so as to deprive the patient of sight, number of postules on the face, and the and a gentle's divation ensues, which, to-disposition to putrescency which prevails. wards the eleventh day, is so viscid as to be spit up with great difficulty. In children, a diarrhœa usually attends this stage of the disease instead of a salivation, which is to be met with only in adults. The vesicles on the top of the pimples are to be perceived sooner in the confluent small pox than in the distinct; but they never rise to an eminence, being usually flatted in; neither do they arrive to proper suppuration, as the fluid contained in them, instead of becoming yellow, turns to a brown colour.

About the tenth or eleventh day, the swelling of the face usually subsides, and then the hands and feet begin to puff up and swell, and about the same time the vesicles break, and pour out a liquor that forms into brown or black crusts, which, upon falling off, leave deep pits behind them that continue for life; and where the pustules have run much into each other, they then disfigure and scar the face very

considerably.

Sometimes it happens that a putrescency of the fluids takes place at an early period of the disease, and shews itself in livid spots interspersed amongst the pustules, and by a discharge of blood by urine, stool, and from various parts of the body.

In the confluent small-pox, the fever, which, perhaps, had suffered some slight remission from the time the eruption made its appearance to that of maturation, is often renewed with considerable violence at this last-mentioned period, which is what is called the secondary fever, and this is the most dangerous stage of the disease. It has been observed, even amongst the vulgar, that the small pox is apt to appear immediately before or after the prevalence of the measles. Another curious observation has been made relating to the symptoms of these complaints, namely, that if, while a patient labours under the stances, the lungs have often a darker apsmall pox, he is seized with the measles, the course of the former is retarded till ous than usual. When no inflammatory the eruption of the measles is finished, affection has supervened, they are most The measles appear, for instance, on the second day of the eruption of small-pox, the progress of this ceases, till he measles terminate by desquamation, and then it goes on in the usual way. Several cases are, however, recorded in the Medical and Physical Journal, as likewise in the third volume of the Medical Commentaries, in which a concurrence of the small-pox and measles took place without the progress of which was recommended to the world by the former being retarded. The distinct Dr. Jenner, in the year 1798, as a substismall-pox is not attended with canger, ture for the small-pox. This, which oriexcept when it attacks pregnant women, ginates from the grease in the horse's heel,

of the confluent; but this last is always accompanied with considerable risk, the

When there is a great endency this way, the disease usually proves fatal between the eighth and eleventh day, but, in some cases, death is protracted till the fourteenth or sixteenth. The confluent small. pox, although it may not prove immediate. ly mortal, is very apt to induce various

morbid affections.

Both kinds of small-pox leave behind them a predisposition to inflammatory complaints, particularly to ophthalmia and visceral inflammations, but more especially of the thorax; and they not unfrequently excite scrophula into action which mi ht otherwise have laid dormant in the system.

The regular swelling of the hands and feet upon that of the face subsiding, and its continuance for the due time, may be re-

garded in a favourable light.

The dissections which have been made of confluent small pox, have never discovered any pustoles internally on the viscera. From them it also appears that variolous pustules never attack the cavities of the body, except those to which the air has free access, as the nose, mouth, trachea, the larger branches of the bronchia, and the outermost part of the meatus audiorius. In cases of prolapsus ani, they likewise frequently attack that part of the gut which is exposed to the air. They have usually shewn the same morbid appearances inwardly, as are met with in putrid fever, where the disease has been of the mahgnant kind. Where the febrile symptoms have run high, and the head has been much affect d with coma or debrium, the vessels of the brain appear, on removing the cranium and dura mater, more turgid, and filled with a darker coloured blood than usual, and a greater quantity of serous fluid is found, particularly towards the base of the brain. Under similar circumpearance, and their moisture is more copiusually found.

VARIOLA VACCINA. The cow-pox. Any pustulous disease affecting the cow, may be called the cow-pox: whether it arises from an over-distention of the udder, in consequence of a neglect in milking the cow, or from the sting of an insect, or any other cause. But the species which claims our particular attention, is that is called the genuine cow-pox; all other who contracted it by milking were ren-

Linds are spurious

unspeakable benefits to mankind, derives its origin from this humble source, how- which the disease was excited in the huever it may mortify human pride, or medi- man subject; one person, who caught the cal vanity, is confirmed by the observa- disease while the virus was in an active tions and experiments of competent judges. state, is rendered secure from variolous For proofs of this assertion, the reader may contagion; while another who received consult the works of Dr Jenner; the Me- the infection of the cow-pox when it had diral and Physical Journal; and a treatise undergone a decomposition, is still suson the subject by Dr. Loy, of which an analys's is given in the Annals of Medicine for of the prevention, the value of which is the year 1801; and Mr. Ring's work on this beyond all calculation, is probably the disease, which contains the whole mass of evidence that has appeared concerning it.

The genuine cow-pox appears on the teats of the cow, in the form of vesicles, of a blue colour approaching to livid. These vesicles are elevated at the margin, and depressed at the centre. They are surthey contain is impid. The animals are indisposed; and the secretion of milk is lessened. Solutions of the sulphats of zinc and copper are a speedy remedy for these pustules; otherwise they degenerate into ulcers, which are extremely troublesome. It must, however, be recollected, that much of the obstinacy attending these cases is owing to the friction of the pustules, in consequence of milking. It is probable, that a solution of the superacetare of lead would be preferable to irritating applications.

Similar effects are produced in the hands of the milkers, attended with febrile symptoms, and sometimes with tumours in the Other parts, where the cuticle is abrided, or which are naturally destitute of that defence, are also hable to the same affection, provided active matter is applied. It even appears that, in some instances, pustules have been produced by the application of vaccine virus to the sound cuticle. One case of this kind may be found in a letter from Dr. Fowler, of Salisbury, to Dr. Pearson, published in the first work of Dr. Pearson on this subject.

The spurious cow-pox is white: and another criterion is, that both in the brute animal and in the human subject, when infected with the casual cow-pox, the sores occasioned by the genuine species are more difficult to heal, than those which are occasioned by the spurious kindof the utmost importance to distinguish the genuine from the spurious sort, which is also in some degree infectious; since a want of such discrimination would cause the teats of the cow. He now concludes, an idea of security against the small-pox, that it is perfect when it excites the gewhich might prove delusive.

the first importance, relative to the ge-ferred to the latter animal, the nipples of nuine cow-pox uself. It had frequently which furnish a more obvious and a more been observed, that when this disorder abundant source of this inestimable fluid prevailed in a farm, some of the persons than its original element the horse.

dered insus eptible of the small pox, while That the vaccine fluid, fraught with such others continued liable to that infection. This is owing to the different periods at ceptible of the small pox. This uncertainty reason why it was not before introduced into practice.

From the violent opposition which vaccine moculation has niet with, in consequence of certain apparent failures in the casual way, it may be doubted whether the public would ever have adopted the practice, had not this fallacy been detected by Dr Jenner. To him also we are indebted for another discovery of the first importance, namely, that the pustule excited in the human subject by vaccine matter, yields a fluid of a similar nature with that which was inserted. This experiment, so essential to the general propagation of the practice, and so happy in its result, was never before at empted. It was reserved to crown the labours of Dr Jenner.

A considerable number of instances are on record, to prove that farriers and others who receive infection from the heel of a horse, are either partly or totally deprived of the susceptibility of the small-pox. When Dr. Jenner first published an account of his discoveries, this point was enveloped in some degree of obscurity. He then conceived, that the matt r of grease was an imperfect preservative against the small-pox. This opinion was founded on the following circumstance: It had been remarked, that farriers e ther wholly escaped the small-pox, or had that distemper in a milder manner than other people. This, however, is easily reconcileable to reason, if we only suppose, that in some cases the infection is communicated when the virus possesses all its prophylactic virtue; and in others, when its specific q ality is in some measure lost.

This variation in the effects produced by the virus of the horse, inclined Dr. Jenner to believe that it was modified, and underwent some peculiar alteration in nuine disease in the cow; yet a considerabe Dr. Jenner has elucidated one point of advantage is derived from its being trans-

This theory, that the preservative time submitted to that infection in the against variolous contagion is perfect when it issues from the fountain-head, and comes immediately from the hands of Nature, is consonant with reason, and consistent with analogy Thus one obstacle more to the universal adoption of the practice is removed

Another point respecting vaccine inoculation, which has been much controverted, is the permanency of its effect. Instances have been known where persons have escaped the small-pox for a number of years, and yet have ultimately proved not eruptions. When such attend vaccine insusceptible of its infection. When such persons had previously undergone the vaccine disease, their apparent security was erroneously ascribed to that cause; but we have not even a shadow of proof, that the cow-pox possesses in the least degree the property of a temporary prophyl ctic, since it appears not even to retard the eruption of the small-pox. where previous infection has been re-

By this remark, it is not meant to be asserted, that it never supercedes or modifies the small pox, for we have great reason to believe that such beneficial effects often flow from vaccination; but where an eruption of the small-pox actually takes place after vaccine inoculation, the two diseases frequently co-exist, without retarding each other in the smallest degree. It is therefore contrary to all reason and analogy, to consider the cow-pox as a mere temporary preservative: it is nothing less than a perfect and permanent security against that terrible disease.

A number of cases are recorded by Dr. Jenner, and other authors who have written on this subject, in which persons who had received the cow-pox by casual infection, twenty, thirty, forty, and fifty years before, still continued insusceptible of variolous contagion, in whatever form

it was applied.

As the cow-pox destroys the susceptibility of the small-pox, so the small-pox destroys that of the cow-pox. To this general rule, however, a few exceptions are said to have occurred. Certain it is, that a pustule has now and then been excited by the insertion of vaccine virus, in those who have had the small-pox, and that this pustule has been known to yield the genuing virus; but it is not equally certain that the pustule has been perfect in all respects. Possibly it may have been defective in point of size or duration; in respect to its areola, or the limpidity of its contents. That such a pustule has, in some instances, yielded effectual virus, is admitted; but this is no more than what has often happened, in cases where persons who have had the small-pox are a second traced to some other cause. We have in-

same form.

The artificial cow-pox in the human subject is much milder than the casual disease; and incomparably milder than the small-pox, even under the form of inoculation. It neither requires medicine nor regimen; it may be practised at any season of the year; and, not being infectious by effluvia, one person may be inoculated without endangering the life of another.

This affection produces no pustulous inoculation, they are owing to some adventitious cause, such as the small pox, which it is well known may co-exist with the cow-pox. The vaccine vesicle is confined to the parts where matter is inserted; it is therefore entirely a local and an inoculated dise; se. Nevertheless it is certain, that eruptions of other kinds in some instances attend vaccine inoculation; such as a nettle rash, or an eruption resembling a tooth rash, but rather larger than what is commonly called by that name

Among other singularities attending the cow-pox, the mildness of the disease, under the form of inoculation, has been urged as an argument against the practice, the cause appearing to ordinary comprehensions, inadeq ate to the effect. This, it must be allowed, is the best apology that can be offered for scepticism on that point; but it will weigh but little when put into the scale against actual observation, and incontroverible fact. The efficacy of the cow-pox as a safeguard against the small pox, rests, perhaps, on more extensive evidence, and a more solid foundation, than any-other axiom in the whole circle of medical science can boast,

That the cow-pox is not infectious by effluvia, is naturally concluded from its never being communicated from one person to another in the dairies; where the disease is casual, and appears under its worst form. The same inference may be drawn from its never spreading in a family, when only one person is inoculated a' a time. To confirm this proposition more fully, the vaccine pustules have been ruptured, and persons who have never had the disorder have been suffered to inhale the effluvia several times a day, but to no purpose. This is no more than might be expected, in an affection where the pustulous appearance on the surface of the body is nearly

As to the constitutional indisposition, it is seldom considerable, unless there is a complication of this with some other distemper; and whenever any unfavourable symptoms appear they may in general be

deed great reason to believe, that no ill plaint attended with fever, or by extreme consequence ever arises from the cow- cold. Another frequent cause of a slow pox itself, unless from ignorance or ne- progress in the pustule, or a total failure

disease, is often remarked by the parents small-pox. themselves, within forty-eight hours after the matter is inserted. In a majority of pears within two or three days after inocucases, a slight increase of heat is per-lation, there is reason to suspect that ceptible, together with an acceleration of infection has not taken place; and if supthe pulse, and other signs of pyrexia; but puration ensues, that suspicion ought, in not in such a degree as to alarm the most general; to stand confirmed. Now and timorous mother. Sometimes the patient then, however, it happens, that after the is restless at nights; and now and then a sporious pustule, or, more properly speakcase is met with, in which vomiting occurs, ing, the phlegmon, has run its course, but in many eases, no constitutional in which is within a few days, a vesicle bedisposition whatever can be perceived, gins to appear, bearing every characteristiven then, the cow-pox has never failed tic of the genuine vaccine disease, and to prove an effectual preservative against yielding a limpid and efficient virus for the small-pox, provided the pustule has future inoculations. In this case the pabeen perfect.

security of the patient, too minute an at- the puncture had preceded. The occurtention cannot be paid to its rise, progress, rence of such a case, though rare, is wor-and decline. The best mode of inoculat- thy to be recorded; because some practiing is by making a very small oblique tioners have concluded a spurious pustule pointure in the arm, near the insertion of to be a certain proof of failure.

the deltoid musele, with the point of a The areola commonly begins to be exlaneet charged with fluid matter. In order tensive on the ninth day, and to deeline to render infection more certain, the in- about the eleventh or twelfth. At this

upon the puncture.

be exposed to variolous contagion, it is the surrounding efflorescence decreases, advisable to inoculate in more places till at length nothing remains but a cirthan one, but, unless there is imminent cular scab, of a dark brown mahogany danger of catching the small-pox, it is bet- colour, approaching to black. Sometimes ter not to make more than one paneture in it resembles the section of a tamarınd each arm, lest too much inflammation stone; and it often retains the depression

The vaccine fluid may be taken for in- disease before exsicuation takes place. oculation as soon as a vesiele appears; but if the vesicle is punctured at a very early vaccine pustule, though regular, and per-period, it is more apt to be injured. When feet in all other respects, has been totally virus is wanting for inoculating a consider- destitute of arcola; at least, where neither able number, it is better to let the pustule the medical practitioner, on visiting the remain untouched till about the eighth patient, northe attendants, have remarked day, by which time it has in general ac- any appearance of that symptom. In quired a reasonable magnitude. After these cases, the patient has proved as that day, if the pustule has made the usual insusceptible of variolous infection, as if progress, the matter begins to lose its the surrounding efflorescence had covered virtue; but it may, in general, be used the whole arm. It must, however, be with safety, though with less certainty of confessed, that we have no proof of the producing infection, till the areola begins non-existence of an areola in these cases. to be extensive.

The first sign of infection commonly appears on the third day. A small red effectual. spot rather elevated, may be perceived at reason to believe, that the surrounding the place where the juncture was made, efflorescence, though usually a concomi-Sometimes, however, the mark of infectant circumstance, is not an essential retion having succeeded is not visible till a quisite to the vaccine disease. much later period. It may be retarded, If hy any accident the vesiele is rup-or even entirely prevented, by any other tured, suppuration often ensues. In this disorder, such as dentition, or any com- case more attention than ordinary ought

of success, is debility. Sometimes it is But notwithstanding the symptoms are impossible to discover any sign of infec-so mild, they frequently occur at a very early period. A drowsiness, which is one the cow pox is subject to the same laws, of the most common attendants of the and liable to the same variation, as the

When a considerable inflammation aptient is as perfectly secured from all dan-This being the grand eriterion of the ger of the small-pox, as if no festering of

strument may be charged again, and wiped period also the pustule begins to dry; the first sign of which is a brown spot in the In places where the patient is likely to centre. In proportion as this increases, in the centre, which characterises this

> Instances have been known, where the It might have been trivial; it might have been transient; yet it might have been There is, however, greater

phænomena of the local affection; both on account of the uncertainty of success in the pustule, as a prophylactic; and the greater

probability of tedious ulceration.

If there is room for the least doubt of the sufficiency of the first inoculation, a second ought to be performed without delay. This, if unnecessary, is seldom attended with inconvenience, and never with danger. Either no effect is produced, or a slight festering, which terminates in a few days. An exception occurs, but rarely, where a spurious, or, perhaps, even a genuine pustule, takes place, in those persons who are known to have had the cow-pox or the small-pox already; but this cannot be the least cause of alarin to any one who knows the benign character of the distemper.

Various topical applications, both stimulant and sedative, have been recommended, in order to allay the violence of inflammation. If the operation for the insertion of matter is not unnecessarily severe, nor the pustule irritated by friction or pressure, or other violence, no such applica-Nevertheless, if tions are necessary. either the anxiety of the professional man, or the importunity of a tender parent, should demand a deviation from this general rule, any of the following remedies may be had recourse to. The pustule may be touched with very diluted sulphuric acid; which should be permitted to remain on the part half a minute, and then be washed off with a sponge dipped in cold water. This has been ignorantly, or artfully, called an escharotic; but any one who tries the application will soon discover, that its operation is mild and harmless.

To avoid cavil and misrepresentation, it is better to apply a saturnine lotion; either made with aq. litharg. comp. or cerusa acetata; compresses, dipped in such a lotion, may be applied at any time when inflammation runs high, and renewed as

occasion requires.

If the pustule should chance to be broken, a drop of aq. litharg. acet. undiluted, may be applied as an exsiceant; but if ulceration threatens to become obstinate, or extensive, a mild cataplasm is the best resource. In case the ulceration is only superficial, and not attended with immoderate inflammation, a bit of any adhesive plaister, spread on linen, will prove the most convenient dressing, and seldom fail of success. It will, in general, be unnecessary to renew it oftener than every other day.

These minute observations no one will despise, unless there be any person so ignorant as not to know that the care of

to be paid to the progress, and to all the medical practitioner in vaccine inoculation; and that nothing disgusts the public so much against the practice, as a sore arm, and the ill consequences which, tom a neglect of that symptom, too often ensue.

> When fluid virus cannot be procured. it is necessary to be can ious how it is preserved in a dry state. The most improper mode is that of keeping it on a lancet; for the metal quickly rusts, and the vaccine matter becomes decomposed. This method, however, is as likely to succeed as any, when the matter is no to be kept above two or three d ys. If the virus be takenon glass, care must be taken not to dilute it much; otherwise it will in

all probability fail.

Cotton thread is a very commodious vehicle. If it is intended to be sent to any considerable distance, it ought to be repeatedly dipped in the virus. No particular caution is necessary with regard to the exclusion of air; nevertheless, as it can be done with so little trouble, and is more satisfactory to those who receive the matter, it is better to comply with the practice. On this account it may be enclosed in a glass tube, or in a tobacco-pipe scaled at each end, or between two square bits of glass, which may, if necessary, be also charged with the matter, and wrapped in gold-beater's skin.

Nothing is more destructive to the efficacy of cow-pox matter than heat: on this account it must not be dried near the fire, nor kept in a warm place. The advantage of inserting it in a fluid state is so great, that it is to be wished every practitioner would endeavour to keep a constant supply for his own use, by inoculating his patients in succession, at such periods as are most likely to answer that purpose.

The rapidity with which this practice now spreads in various parts of the globe, justifies our cherishing a hope, that it will ere long exanguish that most dreadful pestilence, and perpetual bane of human

felicity, the small-pox.

(From varus, unequal, so VARIUS. called from the irregularity of its shape.) The cuboid bone is called os varium, from

its irregular shipe.

(From varus, i. e. obtertus.) VARIX A dilatation of a vein A genus of disease in the class locales and order tumores of Cullen; known by a soft tumour on a vein which does not pulsate. Varicose veins mostly become serpentine, and often form a plexus of knots, especially in the groins and scrotum

VAS DEFERENS. (Vas, a vessel, and deferens, from defero, to convey.) A duci which arises from the epididymis, and passes through the inguinal ring in the the arm is almost the whole duty of the spermatic cord into the cavity of the pelvis; VEINS. 847

and terminates in the vesiculæ seminales. Their use is to return the blood to the Its use is to convey the senien secreted in heart. the testicle, and brought to it by the epididynis into the vesiculæ seminales.

VASA BREVIA. The arteries which come from the spleen, and run along the large arch of the stomach to the dra-

phragm.

VASA DEFERENTIA. Vas deferens.

VASA VORTICOSA. The contorted vessels of the choroid membrane of the

VASTUS EXTERNUS. (Vastus, so called from its size ) A large, thick, and fleshy muscle situated on the outer side of the thigh: it arises, by a broad thick tendon, from the lower and anterior part of the great trochanter, and upper part of the linea asperia; it I kewise adheres by fleshy fibres, to the whole outer edge of that rough line. Its fibres descend obliquely forwards, and after it has run four or five inches downwards, we find it adhering to the anterior surface and outer side of the cruræns, with which it continues to be connected to the lower part of the thigh, where we see it terminating in a broad tendon, which is inserted into the upper part of the patella laterally, and sends off an aponeurosis that adheres to the head of the libia, and is continued down the leg

This muscle, VASTUS INTERNUS. which is less considerable than the vastus externus, is situated at the inner side of the thigh, being separated from it by the

rectus.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from between the fore-part of the os femoris, and the root of the lesser trochanter, below the insertion of the psoas magicus, and the iliacus internus; and from all the inner side of the linea aspera. Like the vastus externus it is connected with the cruræus, but it continues longer fleshy than that muscle. A little above the knee we see its outer edge uniting with the inner edge of the rectus, after which it is inserted tendinous into the upper part and inner side of the patella, sending off an aponeurosis which adheres to the upper part of the tibia.

(Vena, from renio, to come, because the blood comes through it ) Veins are long membranous canals, which contiqually become wider, do not pulsate, and which unites with the external and inreturn the blood from the arteries to the heart. All veins originate from the extre- vein which brings the blood from the mities of arteries only, by anastomosis, and vertebral sinuses; it receives also the terminate in the annicles of the hearn; e.g. blood from the mediastinal, pericardiac, the vena cava in the right, and the pul- diaphragmatic, thymic, internal mammary monary voins in the left auricle. They are and largugeal veins, and then unites with composed, like arteries, of three tunies or its fellow, to form the vena cava superior, coats, which are much more slender than or, as it is sometimes called, vena cava in the ar cries, and are supplied with semi- descendens. lunar membranes or folds called valves.

The blood is returned from every part of the body, except the lungs, into the right auricle, from three sources:

1. The vena cava superior, which brings it from the head, neck, thorax, and supe-

rior extremities.

2. The vena cava inferior, from the abdomen and inferior extremities.

3. The coronary vein receives it from the coronary arteries of the heart.

1. The vena cava superior. This vein terminates in the superior part of the right auricle, into which it evacuates the blood, from the right and left subclavian veins, and the vena azygos. The right and left sub lavian veins receive the blood from the head and upper extremities, in the following manner. The veins of the fin-

from the digital arteries, and empty it into, The cephalic of the thumb, which runs on the back of the hand along the thumb, and evacuates itself into the external ra-

gers, called digitals, receive their blood

dial.

The salvatella, which runs along the little finger, unites with the former, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubital veins. At the bend of the fore arm are three veins, called the great cephalic, the basilic, and the median.

The great cephalic runs along the superior part of the fore-arm, and receives the

blood from the external rad al

The basilic ascends on the under side, and receives the blood from the external and internal cubital veins, and some branches which accompany the brachial artery, called venæ satellitum.

The median is situated in the middle of the tore-arm, and arises from the union of several branches. These three voins all unite above the bend of the arm, and

The brachial voin, which receives all their blood, and is continued into the axilla, where it is called

The axillary vein. This receives also the blood from the scapula, and superior and inferior parts of the chest, by the superior and inferior thoracic vein, the vena

muscularis, and the scapularis.

The axillary vein then passes under the clavicle, where it is called the subclavian, ternal jugular veins, and the vertebral

The blood from the external and in-

ternal parts of the head and face is re- the last vertebra of the loins, and form turned in the following manner into the the vena cava inferior or ascendens, which external and internal jugulars, which ter- ascends on the right side of the spine. minate in the subclavians.

The frontal, angular, temporal, auricular, sublingual, and occipital veins receive the blood from the parts after which they are named; these all converge to each side of the neck, and form a trunk, called

the external jugular vein.

The blood from the brain, cerebellum, lower extremities. medulla oblongata, and membranes of these parts, is received into the lateral in the substance of the liver, and brings sinuses. or veins of the dura mater, one of the blood into the vena cava inferior from which emptics its blood through the fora- the branches of the vena porte, a great men lacerum in basi cranii into the internal vein which carries the blood from the ab. jugular, which descends in the neck by dominal viscera into the substance of the the carotid arteries, receives the blood liver. The trunk of this vein, about the from the thyroideal and internal maxillary fissure of the liver in which it is situated, veins, and empties itself into the subcla- is divided into the hepatic and abdominal vians within the thorax.

The vena azygos receives the blood from the bronchial, superior asophageal, hamorrhoidal veins. These three venous vertebral and intercostal veins, and empties branches carry all the blood from the

it into the superior cava.

ferior is the trunk of all the abdominal and large intestines, into the sinus of the veins and those of the lower extremities, vena portæ. The hepatic portion of the from which parts the blood is returned in vena portæ enters the substance of the the following manner. The veins of the liver, divides into innumerable ramificatoes, called the digital veins, receive the tions, which secrete the bile, and the sublood from the digital arteries, and form perfluous blood passes into corresponding on the back of the foot three branches, branches of the venæ cavæ hepaticæ. one on the great toe called the cephalic, another which runs along the little toe, pulsate; the blood which they receive called the vena saphena, and on the back from the arteries flows through them very of the foot, vena dorsalis pedis; and on slowly, and is conveyed to the right anthe sole of the foot they evacuate them- ricle of the heart, by the contractility of selves into the plantar veins.

foot coming together above the ankle, contraction of the muscles, and respiraform the anterior tibial; and the plantar tion; and it is prevented from going backveins with a branch from the calf of the wards in the vein by the valves, of which leg, called the sural vein, form the poste- there are a great number. rior tibial; a branch also ascends in the direction of the fibula, called the peroneal the power of curing and preventing the These three branches unite before the ham, into one branch, the subpopliteal vein, which ascends through the ham, soft membrane of the intestines. carrying all the blood from the foot: it then proceeds upon the anterior part of lum. Velum pulatinum. The soft palate. the thigh, where it is termed the crural or The soft part of the palate, which forms femoral vein, receives several muscular two arches, affixed laterally to the tongue branches, and passes under Poupart's and pharynx ligament into the cavity of the pelvis, where it is called the external sliac.

The arteries which are distributed about the pelvis evacuate their blood into the portando, because through it things are external hamorrhoidal veins, the hypogas- carried) tric veins, the internal pudendal, the vena magna ipsius penis, and obturatory veins, which receives the blood from the abdomi-

the internal iliac vein.

blood from the external pudendal veins, the former is ramified through the suband then unites with the internal iliac at stance of the liver, and carries the blood

receiving the blood from the sucral lumbar right spermatic veins, and the vena cava hepatica; and having arrived at the dia. phragm, it passes through the right foramen, and enters the right auricle of the heart, into which it evacuates all the blood from the abdominal viscera and

Vena cava hepatica. This vein ramifies portions. The abdominal portion is composed of the splenic, meseraic, and internal siomach, spleen, pancreas, omentum, 2. Venu cava inferior. The vena cava in- mesentery, gall-bladder, and the small

The action of the veins Veins do not their coats, the pressure of the blood from The three voins on the upper part of the the arteries, called the vis a tergo, the

VEJUCA DU GUACO. A plant which has bite of venomous serpents.

VELAMENTUM BOMBYCINUM. The interior

VELUM PENDULUM PALATI. Ve-

VENA AZYGOS. See Azygos vein.

VENA MEDINENSIS. See Medinensis vena. (Venu portæ, a VENA PORTÆ. Vena portarum. The great vein, situated at the entrance of the liver, all of which unite in the pelvis, and form nal viscera, and carries it into the substance of the liver. It is distinguished The external iliac vein receives the into the hepatic and abdominal portion: destined for the formation of the bile, held sacred, and was employed in cele-which is returned by branches to the trunk brating the sacrificial rites; and with a of the vena eava; the latter is composed view to this, more than the natural power of three branches; viz. the splenic, me- of the plant, it was worn suspended about senteric, and internal hamorrhoidal veins. the neck as an amulet Sec Veins.

VENE LACTEE. The lactcal absorbents

were so called. See Lacteals.

Venereal disease. See Gonorrhea and Syphilis.

the larger eireumscribed cavities of the body, as the abdomen and thorax.

heart. See Cerebrum and Heart.

ventricle of the heart.

That VENTUICULUS SUCCENTURIATUS, portion of the duodenum, which is surrounded by the peritoneum, is sometimes testimonics in favour of vervain, it has so large as to resemble a second stomach, deservedly fallen into disuse in Britain; and is so called by some writers.

by the chemists

Polygynia. Order, Monoecia.

hellebore. See Helleborus albus.

rus niger.

VERBASCUM. (Quasi barbascum, from emes of the Materia Medica its hairy coat ) 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, Pen- is sometimes so called See Erysimum. tandria. Order, Monogynia. Mullien.

2. The pharmacopæial name of the name of vervain. See Verbena Candela regia: Tapsus barbatus: Candelaria: Lunaria: The Verbascum nigrum of copper. It is prepared by stratifying and Verbascum thapsus appear to be or copper plates with the husks of grapes, pharmacopæias. The flowers, leaves, and when they have been kept for some time roots, are used occasionally as mild adimperfectly exposed to the air, in an apartthe intestines.

VERBASCUM THAPSUS. name of the yellow mullein. See Verbas- an efflorescence on their surfaces of a green

Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopæial name of what slight tint of blue. Peristerium. is also called Verbenuca. therobotane cephulalgia. Herba sacra, dised, probably by the atmospheric air, Vervain. This plant Verbena officinalis of aided by the affinity of the acetic acid; Linnaus, is destitute of odour, and to and a portion of this acid remains in comthe taste manifests but a slight degree of bination with the oxyde, not sufficient, bitterness and adstringency. In former however, to produce its saturation. When times the verbena seems to have been acted on by water, the acid with such a

This practice, thus founded on superstition, was, however, in process of time, adopted in medicine; and therefore to obtain its virtues more effectually, the vervain was directed to be bruised before VENTER, A term formerly applied to it was appended to the neck; and of its good effects thus used for inveterate headaches, Forestas relates a remarkable in-VENTRICLE. A term given by ana-stance. In still later times it has been tomists to the eavities of the brain and employed in the way of cataplasm, by which we are told the most severe and VENTRICULUS PULMONARIS. The right obstinate eases of cephalalgia have been cured, for which we have the authorities of Etmuller, Hartman, and more espeeially De Ilcan. Notwithstanding these nor has the pamphlet of Mr. Morley, writ-VENUS. Copper was formerly so called ten professedly to recommend its use in scrophulous affections, had the effect of VERATRUM 1. The name of a genus restoring its medical character. of plants in the Linnaan system. Class, gentleman directs the root of vervain to be tied with a yard of white satin riband 2. The pharmacopogal name of white round the neck, where it is to remain till the patient recovers. He also has re-VERATRUM ALBUM. See Helleborum albus. course to infusions and ointments prepared VERATRUM NIGRUM. See Hellebo- from the leaves of the plant, and oceasionally calls in aid the most active medi-

VEHBENA FEMINA. The hedge mustard

VERBENA OFFICINALIS. The systematic

VERDIGRIS. An impure subacetate dered indifferently by this name in the after the expression of their juice, and stringents. The leaves possess a rough- ment warm but not too dry, so as to pass ish taste, and promise to be of service in to a state of fermentation, whence a quandiarrheas and other debilitated states of tity of vinegar is formed. The copperplates are placed in jars in strata, with the VERBASCUM NIGRUM. The systematic liusks thus prepared, which are covered. name of the black mullein See Verbuscum. At the end of twelve, fifteen, or twenty The systematic days these are opened: the plates have colour and silky lustre: they are repeat-VERBENA. (Quasi herbena, a name edly moistened with water; and at length, of distinction for all herbs used in sacred a crust of verdigris is formed, which is rites.) 1. The name of a genus of plants scraped off by a knife, is put into bags, in the Linnman system. Class, Decandria. and dried by exposure of these to the air and sun. It is of a green colour, with a

In this preparation the copper is oxy-

\* 5 Q

portion of oxyde as it can retain in solution, are dissolved, and the remaining oxyde is left undissolved. From this analysis of it by the action of water, Proust inferred that it consists of 43 of acetate of copper, 27 of black oxyde of copper, and 30 of water, this water not being accidental, but existing in it in intimate combination.

Verdigris is used as a pigment in some of the processes of dyeing, and in surgery it is externally applied as a mild detergent in cleansing foul ulcers, or other open wounds. On account of its virulent properties, it ought not to be used as a medicine without professional advice; and in case any portion of this poison be accidentally swallowed, emetics should be first given, and afterwards cold water gently alkalized ought to be drank in abundance.

VERJUICE. An acid liquor prepared from grapes or apples, that are unfit to be con- bones, we may remark the body of the verted into wine or cyder. It is also made bone, its processes and cavities. The body from crabs. It is principally used in may be compared to part of a cylinder cut sauces and ragous, though it sometimes off transversely; convex before, and conforms an ingredient in medicinal composi- cave behind, where it makes part of the

VERMICULARIS. See Illecebra.

tia vernu formis. The substance which unites the two hemispheres of the cerebellum of the vertebra, and gives the name of like a ring, forming a process. It is called vermiform, from its resemblance to the contortions of worms.

VERMIFUGES. mis, a worm, and fugo, to drive away.) See spinous process. The four others, which Anthelmintics.

Vermilion. See Cinnabar.

species of herpetic eruption on the skin. VERMIS TERRESTRIS. See Earth-worm.

ronica mas. pauli chamadrys. Veronica officinalis of above it : and they are called oblique pro-Linnaus; spicis lateralibus; pedunculatis cesses, from their situation with respect foliis oppositis; caule procumbente is not to the processes with which they are arunfrequent on dry barren grounds and ticulated. These oblique processes are arheaths, as that of Hampstead, flowering in June and July. This plant was formerly used as a pectoral against coughs and asthmatic affections, but it is now justly forgotten.

VERRICULARIS TUNICA. The retina of the

VERTEBRÆ. (From verto, to turn.) The spine is a long bony column, which extends from the head to the lower part of the trunk, and is composed of irregular bones which are called vertebræ.

The spine may be considered as being composed of two irregular pyramids, which are united to each other in that part of the loins where the last of the lumbar vertebræ is united to the os sacrum.

The vertebræ, which form the upper and longest pyramid, are called true vertebra; and those which compose the lower pyra. mid, or the os sacrum and coccyx, are termed false vertebra, because they do not in every thing resemble the others, and particularly because, in the adult state, they become perfectly immoveable, while the upper ones continue to be capable of motion. For it is upon the bones of the spine that the body turns, and their name has its derivation from the Latin verb verto, to turn, as observed above.

The true vertebræ, from their situations with respect to the neck, back, and loins. are divided into three classes, of cervical, dorsal, and lumbar vertebræ. We will first consider the general structure of all these, and then separately describe their

different classes.

In each of the vertebræ, as in other

cavity of the spine.

Each vertebra has commonly seven pro-VERMIFORM PROCESS. Protuberan- cesses. The first of these is the spinous process, which is placed at the back part spine to the whole of this bony canal, Two others are called transverse processes, from their situation with respect to the (Vermifuga, from ver- spine, and are placed on each side of the are called oblique processes, are much smaller than the other three. There are VERMIS MORDICANS. Vermis repens. A two of these on the upper and two on the lower part of each vertebra, rising from near the basis of the transverse processes. VERONICA. 1. The name of a genus They are sometimes called articular proof plants in the Linnaan system. Class, cesses, because they are articulated with Diandria. Order, Monogynia. Speedwell. each other; that is, the two superior pro-2. The pharmacopæial name of the Ve- cesses of one vertebra are articulated with Thea Germanica. Betonica the two inferior processes of the vertebra ticulated to each other by a species of ginglimus, and each process is covered at its articulation with cartifage.

There is in every vertebra, between its body and apophyses, a foramen, large enough to admit a finger. These foramina correspond with each other through all the vertebrz, and form a long bony conduit, for the lodgment of the spinal marrow.

Besides this great hole, there are four notches on each side of every vertebra, between the oblique processes and the body of the vertebra. Two of these notches are at the upper, and two at the lower part of the bone. Each of the inferior notches, meeting with one of the superior notches of the vertebra below it, forms a foramen; whilst the superior in a longitudinal direction, is extended notehes do the same with the inferior over the back part of the bodies of the notelies of the vertebra above it. These vertebræ, where they help to form the four foramina form passages for blood ves- eavity of the spine, and reaches from the sels, and for the nerves that pass out of the foramen magnum of the occipital bone to

The vertebræ are united together by means of a substance, compressible like the vertebræ diminish in density and firmcork, which forms a kind of partition ness of texture, in proportion as they between the several vertebræ. This inter- increase in size, so that the lower vertevertebral substance seems, in the fœtus, bræ, though larger, are not so heavy in to approach nearly to the nature of liga- proportion as those above them. In conments; in the adult it has a great resem- sequence of this mode of structure, the blance to eartilage. When cut horizon- size of the vertebræ is increased without tally, it appears to consist of concentrical adding to their weight; and this is an curved fibres, externally it is firmest object of no little importance, in a part of and hardest; internally it becomes thin the body, which, besides flexibility and ner and softer, till at length, in the een- suppleness, seems to require lightness as tre, we find it in the form of a mucous sub- one of its essential properties. stance, which facilitates the motions of the

Genga, an Italian anatomist, long ago observed, that the change which takes place in these intervertebral eartilages, (as they are usually called) in advanced life, oceasions the decrease in stature, and portions, which form the foramen for the the stooping forwards, which are usually medulla spinalis. The oblique processes to be observed in old people. The earti- are at that time complete, and the translages then become shrivelled, and eonse- verse processes beginning to be formed; but quently lose, in a great measure, their the spinous processes are totally wanting. elasticity. But, besides this gradual age and size of the subject; in tall, young people, it will be nearly an inch; but in older, or shorter persons, it will be less considerable.

Besides the connexion of the several vertebræ, by means of these cartilages, there are likewise many strong ligaments, which unite the bones of the spine to each external ligaments, we observe one which of which, like the external one, are spread part of this anterior portion is concave.

the os sacrum.

We may venture to remark, that all

In the fœtus, at the ordinary time of birth, each vertebra is found to be composed of three bony pieces, connected by cartilages which afterwards ossify of these pieces is the body of the bone: the other two are the posterior and lateral

The cervical vertebra, are seven in effect of old age, these cartilages are number, their bodies are smaller and of a subject to a temporary diminution, from firmer texture than the other bones of the weight of the body in an erect posture, so that people who have been long these vertebræ are shorn, and forked for standing, or who have earried a consider- the lodgment of museles; and, at the able weight, are found to be shorter than bottom of each of these processes, there is when they have been long in bed. Hence a foramen, for the passage of the cervical we are taller in the morning than at night. artery and vein. The spinous process of This fact, though seemingly obvious, was each of these vertebræ is likewise shorter not ascertained till of late years. The than the other vertebræ, and forked at its difference in such cases depends on the extremity; by which means it allows a more convenient insertion to the muscles of the neck. Their oblique processes are more deserving of that name than either those of the dorsal or lumbar vertebræ. The uppermost of these processes are slightly concave, and the lowermost slightly convex. This may suffice for a general description of these vertebra; other. Some of these ligaments are ex-ternal, and others internal. Among the serve to be spoken of more particularly. The first, which is called Atlas, from its is common to all the vertebræ, extending, supporting the head, differs from all the in a longitudinal direction, from the fore other vertebræ of the spine. It forms a part of the body of the second vertebra kind of bony ring, which may be divided of the neck, over all the other vertebra, into its anterior and posterior arches, and and becoming broader as it descends to- its lateral portions. Of these, the anterior wards the os sacrum, where it becomes arch is the smallest and flattest; at the thinner, and gradually disappears. This middle of its convex fore part we observe external longitudinal ligament, if we may a small tubercle which is here what the so call it, is strengthened by other shorter body is in the other vertebræ. To this ligamentous fibres, which pass from one tubercle a ligament is attached, which vertebra to another, thoughout the whole helps to strengthen the articulation of the spine. The internal ligament, the fibres spine with the os occipitis. The back

and covered with cartilage, where it re- atlas moves upon this adontoid process of ceives the odontoid process of the second the second vertebra. But, as the face vertebra. The posterior portion of the cannot turn a quarter of a circle, that is, vertebra, or, more properly speaking, the to the shoulder, upon this vertebra alone, posterior arch, is larger than the anterior without being liable to injure the medulla one. Instead of a spinous process, we spinalis, we find that all the cervical ver. observe a rising, or tubercle, larger than tebræ concur in this rotatory motion, when that which we have just now described, it is in any considerable degree; and inon the fore part of the bone The lateral deed we see many strong ligamentous portions of the vertebra project, so as to fibres arising from the sides of the odon. form what are called the transverse pro- tiod process, and passing over the first cesses, one on each side, which are longer vertebra, to the os occipitis, which not and larger than the transverse processes of only strengthen the articulation of these the other vertebræ. They terminate in a bones with each other, but serve to regu-roundish tubercle, the end of which has a late and limit their motion. It is on this slight bend downwards. Like the other account that the name of moderators has transverse processes, they are perforated sometimes been given to these ligaments. at their basis, for the passage of the cervical artery. But, besides these transverse dentata are short, inclined downwards, processes, we observe, both on the supe- and forked at their extremities. Its spirior and inferior surface of these lateral nous process is short and thick. portions of the first vertebra, an articulat- superior oblique processes a slightly coning surface, covered with cartilage, answer- vex, and somewhat larger than the artiing to the oblique processes in the other culating surfaces of the first vertebra, by vertebræ. The uppermost of these are oblong, and slightly concave, and their upon this second vertebra is performed external edges rise somewhat higher than their internal brims. They receive the condyloid processes of the os occipitis, with which they are articulated by a species of gioglimus. The lowermost articulating surfaces, or the inferior oblique processes, as they are called, are large, concave, and circular, and are formed for vertebra prominens. receiving the superior oblique processes of the second vertebra; so that the atlas in number, are of a middle size, between differs from the rest of the cervical verte- the cervical and lumbar vertebra; the bræ in receiving the bones, with which it upper ones gradually losing their resemis articulated both above and below.

In the fœtus we find this vertebra composed of five, instead of three pieces, as in the other vertebræ. One of these is the flattened at their sides, more convex beanterior arch; the other four are the fore, and more concave behind, than the posterior arch and the sides, each of the latter being composed of two pieces. The transverse process, on each side, re- sides we observe two depressions, one at mains long in a state of epiphysis with their upper, and the other at their lower respect to the rest of the bone. second vertebra is called dentata, from sions in the vertebra above and below, the process on the upper part of its body, form articulating surfaces, covered with which has been, though perhaps improperly, cartilage, in which the heads of the ribs compared to a tooth. This process, which are received. These depressions, however, is the most remarkable part of the verte- are not exactly alike in all the dorsal bra, is of a cylindrical shape, slightly flat-tened, however, behind and before. An-teriorly it has a convex, smooth, articu-lating surface, where it is received by the atlas, as we observed in our description of that vertebra. It is by means of this articulation that the rotatory motion of the head is performed; the articulation the head is performed; the articulation and twelfth of the dorsal veriebra, with of the os occipitis with the superior ob- which the eleventh and twelfth ribs are lique processes of the first vertebra, allow- articulated separately. Their spinous proing only a certain degree of motion back- cesses are long, flattened at the sides, wards and forwards, so that when we turn divided at their upper and back part into the face either to the right or left, the two surfaces by a middle ridge, which is

The transverse processes of the vertebra which mechanism, the motion of that bone with greater safety. Its inferior oblique processes have nothing singular in their

structure.

The seventh vertebra of the neck differs from the rest chiefly in having its spinous process of a greater length, so that, upon this account, it has been sometimes called

The dorsal vertebræ, which are twelve blance to those of the neck, and the lower ones coming nearer to those of the loins. The bodies of these vertebræ are more other bones of the spine. Their upper and lower surfaces are horizontal. At their The edge, which, united with similar deprespart of the spinous process immediately bility, above it, and connected to it by a liga- We ment. Those spinous processes are ter-lowermost and largest vertebræ are not minated by a kind of round tubercle, so heavy in proportion as those above

either side

the lumbar vertebra, the lowest of the by thrusting a pointed instrument between true vertebra, are five in number. They are larger than the dorsal vertebra. Their atlas and the second vertebra. Besides bodies are extremely prominent, and increase these uses of the vertebra in defending nearly of a circular form at their fore part; the spinal marrow, and in articulating the posteriorly they are concave. Their intermediate cartilages are of considerable thickness, especially anteriorly, by which means the curvature of the spine forwards, lodgment of nutseles, and to enable the towards the abdomen, in this part, is latter to act more powerfully on the trunk, exceptly assisted. Their spinous processes by affording them a lever of considerable are short and thick, of considerable length. ones are concave, and turned inwards; would require a greater number of nusthe inferior ones convex, and turned out-eles. Through the whole length of the wards. Their transverse processes are thorax it is carried in a curved direction thin and long, except in the first and last backwards, and thus adds considerably to vertebræ, where they are much shorter, that the lateral motions of the trunk might affords more room to the lungs, heart, not be impeded. The inferior surface of all large blood-vessels. In the loins, the all these vertebræ is slightly oblique, so spine again projects forwards, in a direction with the centre of gravity, by which somewhat thicker than its hind part; but means the body is easily kept in an erectible is more backwards and thus adds considerably to vertebræ, and thus adds considerably to the cavity of the chest, and consequently that the inferior surface of spine again projects forwards, in a direction with the centre of gravity, by which somewhat thicker than its hind part; but means the body is easily kept in an erectified in a curved direction than all large blood-vessels. the lowermost vertebra, which is connected with the os sacrum. Many anatomists it again recedes backwards, and helps to
describe the os sacrum and the os coccygis
form a cavity called the pelvis, in which
as when considering the bones of the spine,
the urinary bladder, intestinum rectum, whilst others regard them as belonging and other viscera, are placed. more properly to the polvis. These bones the reader may consult. It now remains of so great a number of bones, and conto notice the uses of the spine. We find structed for such a variety of motion, as the spinal marrow lodged in this bony the spine is, luxation is more to be excanal, secure from external injury. It pected than fracture; and this is very defends the thoracic and abdominal viscera, wisely guarded against in every direction. and forms a pillar which supports the by the many processes that are to be found hand, and gives a general firmness to the in each vertebra, and by the cartilages, whole trunk

To give it a firm basis, we find the bodies of the vertebræ gradually increasing in breadth as they descend; and to fit it for a variety of motion, it is composed of a tebralis. A branch of the subclavian, progreat number of joints, with an interme- ceeding through the vertebræ to with-

received by a small groove in the inner firmness there is added a perfect flexi-

We have already observed, that the minated by a kind of round tuberele, which slopes considerably downwards, except in the three lowermost vertebra, excepting at their circumference, where they are shorter and more creet. Their transverse processes are of considerable length and thickness, and are turned obliquely backwards. Anteriorly they have an articularing surface, for receiving the tuberosity of the ribs, except in the eleventh and inclifth of the dorsal vertebra to which the ribs are articulated by their heads only. In the last of these vertebra the transverse processes are very short and thick, because otherwise they tween them, excepting in the neck, where they are almost perpendicular and leave most ribs, when we bend the body to most ribs, when we bend the body to a greater space between them. Hence, in some countries, it is usual to kill cattle The lumbar vertebra, the lowest of the by thrusting a pointed instrument between greatly assisted. Their spinous processes by affording them a lever of considerable

breadth, erect, and terminated by a kind. In the neck, we see the spine projectthis is more particularly observable in posture; for otherwise we should be liable

> In a part of the body that is composed ligaments, and other means of connexion, which we have described as uniting them together.

VERTEBRAL ARTERY. Arteria ven. diate elastic substance, so that to great in the cranium, where, with its fellow, it

forms the basilary artery, the internal an ampulla; it is upon these ampulla. auditory, and the posterior artery of the which communicate by means of an alveus dura mater.

VER FEX. The crown of the head. VERTICALIA OSSA. See Parietal bones.

VERTICIS OS. See Parietal bones.

VERTIGO. Giddiness. Vervain. See Verbena.

Vervain, female. See Erysimum.

VESANIÆ. (From Vesamus, a madman.) The fourth order in the class neuroses of Cullen's nosological arrangement; comprehending diseases in which the judgment is impaired, without either coma or pyrexia

VESICA. (Dim. of vas, a vessel.) A

bladder

VESICA FELLIS. The gall-bladder. See Gull-bladder.

URINARIA.

bladder See Urinary bladder.

VESICATORIES. (Vesicatoria, from vesica, a bladder; because they raise a

bladder.) See Epispastics.

VESICLE. (Vesicula, a diminutive of vesica, a bladder.) An elevation of the cuticle, containing a transparent watery

The gall-bladder. VESICULA FELLIS.

VESICULE DIVE BARBARE. The confluent small-pox

VESICULE GINGIVARUM. The thrush.

VESICULÆ PULMONALES. The air cells which compose the greatest part of the langs, and are situated at the termina-

tion of the bronchia.

branous receptacles, situated on the back part of the bladder above its neck. The excretory ducts are called ejaculatory They proceed to the urethra, into which they open by a peculiar orifice at the top of the verumontanum. They have vessels and nerves from the neighbouring parts, and are well supplied with absorbent vessels, which proceed to the lymphatic glands about the loins. The use of the vesiculæ seminales is to receive the semen brought into them by the vasa deferentia, to retain, somewhat inspissate, and to excern it sub coitu into the urethra, from whence it is propelled into the vagina uteri. See Pemphigus.

Vesicular fever. See Pemphigus.

VESTIBULUM. A round cavity of the internal ear, between the cochlea and semicircular canals, in which are an oval opening communicating with the cavity of when bruised and put into the nose. Boil-the tympanum and the orifices of the ed it forms a useful adstringent gargle in semicircular canals. It is within this cavi- common sore throat, and it is given by ty and the semicircular canals, that the some in phthisical complaints. new apparatus, discovered by the celebrated neurologist Scarpa, lies. He has kle. demonstrated membranous tubes, connectis dilated in the cavity of the vestibule into expelling poisons.) Hermidinaria. Ascle-

communis, that branches of the portio mol. lis are expanded.

VETONICA CORDI. See Betonica.

VIBIX. (Vibex, sing. plu. Vibices.) The large purple spots which appear under the skin in certain malignant fevers.

VIBRISSÆ. (Vibrissa, from vibro, to quaver.) Hairs growing in the nostrils.

Sec Capillus.

VICHY WATER. Is obtained from the tepid mineral springs that arise in the vicinity of Vichy, in France. On account of its chalybeate and alkaline ingredients, it is taken internally, being reported to be of great service in bilious colics, diarrhæs, and in disorders of the stomach, especially such as arise from a relaxed or debilitated The urinary state of that organ.

These waters are likewise very useful when employed as a tepid bath, particularly in rheumatisms, sciatica, gout, &c. by combining the internal use with the external application, they have often effected a cure where other remedies had failed to

afford relief.

VICIA FABA. The systematic name of the

common bean plant. See Bean.

VICTORALIS LONGA. This officinal is the Allium victoralis of Linnaus. root, which when dried loses its alliaceous smell and taste, is said to be efficacious in allaying the abdominal spasms of graved females.

VIGILANCE. Pervigilium. Vigilance, VESICULÆ SEMINALES. Two mem-when attended by anxiety, pain in the amous receptacles, situated on the back head, loss of appetite, and diminution of strength, is by Sauvage and Sagar considered as a genus of disease, and is called

agrypnia.

VERRUCA. A wart.

VERRUCARIA. (From Verruca, a wart; because it was supposed to destroy warts.)

The herb turnsole.

VINCA. (From vincio, to bind; because of its said usefulness in making bands.) The name of a genus of plants in the Linnæan system. Class, Pentandria. Order, Monogynia. The herb periwinkle, or pervincle.

VINCA MINOR. The systematic name of the lesser periwinkle. See Vinca pervinca. Clematis daphnoides major. This plant Vinca minor of Linnaus, possesses bitter and adstringent virtues, and is said to be efficacacious in stopping nasal hamorrhages

VINCA PERVINCA. The lesser periwin-

VINCETOXICUM. (From vinco, to overed loosely by cellular texture, within the come, and toxicum, poison; so named bony semicircular canals, each of which from its supposed virtues of resisting and

pias. Swallow wort. Tame poison. The repentibus. The recent flowers of this root of this plant Asclepias vincetaxicum of plant are received into the catalogues of the Linnaus, smells when fresh somewhat of valerian; chewed it imparts at first a considerable sweetness which is soon succeeds taste. Their virtues are purgative or laxaed by an unpleasant subserid bitterness, tive, and by some they are said to possess. It is given in some countries in the cure of an anodyne and pectoral quality. The glandular obstructions.

line See Vitis.

Vine, white. See Bryonia alba. Vine, wild. See Bryonia alba.

Vinegar. See Acetum

Vinegar, distilled. See Acetum distilla-

Vinegar, spirits of See Acetic acid.

VINUM. See Wine

VINUM ALOES. Wine of aloes. Former'v known by the names of tinctura hiere and tinctura sucra. "Take of extract of spoked aloe, eight ounces; canella bark, two oances; wine, sex pints; proof spirits, two pints." Rub the aloc into powder with white sand, previously ele msed from any impurities: rub the caneda-bark also into powder; and after having mixed these powders together, pour on the wine and spirit. Macerate for fourteen days, oceasionally shaking the m xture, and afterwards strain. A stomachie purgative, calculated for the aged and prlegniatic, who are not troubled with the piles. The dose is from half a fluidounce to an ounce.

VINUM ANTIMONII. In small doses this proves alterative and diaphoretic, and a large dose emetic; in which last intention it is the common emeric for children.

VINUM ANTIMONII TARTARIZATI.

Liquor antimonii tartarizati.

ealled vinium chalebeatum. "Take of iron filings, two onnees; wine, two pints." Mix, and set the mixture by for a month, oc- a small quantity of odorous essential oil, of easionally shaking it; then fil er it through a somewhat aerid taste. The dried herb paper. For its virtues see Ferrium tarta- yields about half its weight of watery exrizatum.

VINUM IPECACUANUE. cacuanha. "Take of ipecacuanha-root, materia medica represent this plant as a bruised, two ounces; wine, two pints" powerful medicine in epilepsy, asthma, ul-Macerate for fourteen days, and strain, cers, seables, and entaneous complaints, The close, when used as an emetic, from yet the viola tricolor owes its present chatwo fluiddrichins to half an ounce.

known by the names of landanum liquidum especially as a remedy for the crusta lac-Sydenham, and tinctura thebaica "Take tea. For this purpose, a handful of the of extract of opinen, an ounce; einnamon- fresh herb, or half a drachm of it dried, bark, bruised, cloves, bruised, of each a boiled two hours in milk, is to be strained drachm; wine, a pint." Macerate for eight and taken night and morning. Bread, with days, and strain. See Opium.

first tound in Ionia.) 1. The name of a treatment it has been observed, that the genus of plants in the Linnwan system, eruption during the first eight days in-Class, Gyngenesia. The violet.

laria. Sweet violet. Viola odorata of Linnaus:-ucaulis, foliis cordatis, stolenibus the scabs disappear, and the skin recovers

officinal preparation of this flower is a syrup, which, to young children, answers the purpose of a purgative; it is also of considerable utility in many chemical inquiries, to detect an acid or an alkali; the former changing the blue colour to a red,

and the latter to a green.
VIOLA CANINA. The dog violet. root of his plant, Viola canina of Linnæus, possesses the power of vomiting and purging the bowels; with which intention a scruple of the dried root must be exhibited. It appears, though neglected in this country, worthy of the attention of physicians.

VIOLA IPECACUANHA. The plant which was supposed to afford the ipecacuanha-

VIOLA LUTEA. The wall-flower was so called. See Cheirs.

VIOLA ODORATA. The systematic name of the sweet violet. See Viola.

VIOLA PALUSTRIS. See Pinguicula. VIOLA TRICOLOR. Harts-ease. Pansies. This well known beautiful little plant grows in corn-fields, waste, and cultivated grounds, flowering all the summer months. It varies much by cultivation; and by the vivid colouring of its flowers often becomes extremely beautiful in gardens, where it is distinguished by various names. To the See taste, this plant in its recent state is extremely glutinous, or mucilaginous, ac-VINUM FERRI. Wine of iron, formerly companied with the common herbaceous flavour and roughness. By distillation with water, according to Hause, it affords tract, the fresh plant about one eighth. Wine of ipe- Though many of the old writers on the raeter as a medicine to the modern autho-VINUM OPIL. Wine of opium, formerly rities of Starick, Metzer, Haase, and others, this decoction, is also to be formed into a VIOLA (From lov; because it was poultice and applied to the part. By this Order, Monogynia. ereases, and that the urine, when the medicine succeeds, has an odour similar to that 2. The pharmacopaial name of the Vio. of cats; but on continuing the use of the plant a sufficient time, this smell goes off,

its natural purity. Instances of the successfil exhibition of this medicine, as cited by these authors, are very numerous; indeed this remedy, under their management, seems rarely, if ever, to have failed. It appears, however, that Mursinna, Akermann, and Flennig, were less fortunate in the employment of this plant; the last riment, and without its feeling pain. See of whom declares, that in the different cutaneous disorders in which he used it, no benefit was derived. Haase, who admini- conservatrix. A term employed by physistered this species of violet in various forms, cians to express that healing power in an and large doses, extended its use to many chronic disorders; and from the great the body is enabled to regain its healthy number of cases in which it proved successful, we are desirous of recommending it to a farther trial in this country.

It is remarkable that Bergius speaks of this plant as a useful mucilaginous purgative, and takes no notice of its efficacy in the crusta lactea, or in any other disease.

VIOLARIA. See Viola.

Violet, dog. See Viola canina. Violet, sweet See Viola.

Viper. See Vipera.

Viper-grass. See Scorzonera.

VIPERA. (Quod vi pariat; because it was thought that its young eat through the mother's bowels.) The viper, or adder. This viviparous reptile, Coluber berus of Linnæus, possesses the power of forming a poisonous fluid in little bags near its teeth. The flesh is perfectly innocent, and often taken by the common people against the king's evil, and a variely of disorders of the skin. Experience evinces it to be an inefficacious substance.

VIPERARIA. See Serpentaria Virginiana. VIPERINA. (From viper, a snake; so called from the serpentine appearance of its roots.) See Serpentaria virginiana.

VIPERINA VIRGINIANA. See Serpentaria

virginiana.

Herba dorea. Conyza co-VIRGA AUREA ma aurea. Symphytum. Petræum Elichry. sum. Consolida saracenica. Golden rod. The leaves and flowers of this plant, Solidago virga aurea of Linnæus, are recommended as aperients and corroborants in urinary obstructions, ulcerations of the kidneys and bladder, and it is said by some to be particularly useful in stopping internal hæmorrhages.

The sagittal suture VIRGATA SUTURA.

of the skull.

VINGINALE CLAUSTRUM. The hymen. Virginian tobacco. See Nicotiana.

Virgins' bower, upright. See Flammula

Virgins' milk. A solution of gum ben-

zonium.

Contagion.

VIS CONSERVATRIX. Sec Vis medi-

VIS ELASTICA. Elasticity.

VIS INERTIÆ. The propensity to rest inherent in nature.

VIS INSITA. This property is defined by Haller to be that power by which a muscle, when wounded, touched, or irritated, contracts, independent of the will of the animal that is the object of the expe-Irritability

VIS MEDICATRIX NATURÆ. animated body, by which, when diseased,

VIS MORTUA. That property by which a muscle after the death of the animal, or a muscle immediately after having been cut out from a living body, contracts.

VIS NERVOSA. This property is considered by Whyte to be another power of the muscles by which they act when excited by the nerves

VIS PLASTICA. That facility of formation which spontaneously operates in

anımals.

VIS A TERGO. Any impulsive power, VIS VITÆ The natural power of the animal machine in preserving life.

VISCUM. Mistletoe. Viscum album of This singular parasitical plant Linnæus. most commonly grows on apple-trees, also on the pear, hawthorn, service, oak, hasel, maple, ash, lime-tree, willow, elm, horn-beam, &c. It is supposed to be propagated by birds, especially by the field-fare and thrush, which feed upon its berries, the seeds of which pass through the bow-els unchanged; and along with the excrement adhere to the branches of trees where they vegetate.

The mistletoe of the oak has, from the times of the ancient druids, been always preferred to that produced on other trees; but it is now well known that the viscus quercus differs in no respect from others.

This plant is the 13 of the Greeks, and was in former times thought to possess many medicinal virtues; however, we learn but little concerning its efficacy from the ancient writers on the materia medica, nor will it be deemed necessary to state the extraordinary powers ascribed to the mistletoe by the crafty designs of druidical knavery. Both the leaves and branches of the plant have very little smell, and a very weak taste of the nauseous kind. In distillation they impregnate water with their faint unpleasant smell, but yield no essential oil. Extracts, made from them nium.

by water, are bitterish, roughish, and subVIRUS. A synonym of contagion. See saline. The spirituous extracts of the wood has the greatest austerity, and that of the leaves the greatest bitterness. berries abound with an extremely tenacious and most ungrateful sweet mucilage.

The viscus querous obtained great repu- of the vine, called lachryma, has been retation for the cure of epilepsy; and a case commended in calculous disorders: and it of this disease, of a woman of quality, in is said to be an excellent application to which it proved remarkably successful, is weak eyes and specks of the cornea. mentioned by Boyle. Some years after- unripe fruit has a harsh, rough, sour taste; wards its use was strongly recommended its expressed juice, called verjuice, was in various convulsive disorders by Colbach, formerly much esteemed, but is now suwho has related several instances of its perseded by the juice of lemons; for exgood effects. He administered it in sub- ternal use, however, particularly in bruises stance in doses of half a drachm, or a and pains, verjuice is still employed, and drachm, of the wood or leaves, or an infusion of an ounce. This author was follow. See also Uve passe, wine, and acetum. ed by others, who have not only given testimony of the efficacy of the mistletoe in different convulsive affections, but also in those complaints denominated nervous, in which it was supposed to act in the character of a tonic. But all that has been written in favour of this remedy, which is certainly well deserving of notice, has not prevented it from falling into general ne-glect; and the colleges of London and Edinburgh have, perhaps not without reason, expanged it from their catalogues of the materia medica.

The systematic name VISCUM ALHUM of the parasitical mistletoc. See Viscum.

VISCUS. Any organ or part which has an appropriate use, as the viscera of the abdomen, &c.

Vision. See Sight.

Vision, defective See Dysopia.

VISUS DEFIGURATUS. See Metamorphopsia.

VITA ARROR. See Arbor vita.

VITE LIGNUM See Guaiacum.

Vital actions. See Vital Functions. VITAL FUNCTIONS. Vital actions. Those actions of the body upon which life immediately depends, as the circulation of

the blood, respiration, heat of the body, &c. See Function.

Vital principle. See Life.

VITALRA. Traveller's joy. This plant is common in our hedges, and is the Clema. tis vitalba of Linnaus ;-foliis pinnatis, foliolis cordatis scandentibus: its leaves when fresh produce a warmth on the tongue, and if the chewing is continued, blisters arise. The same effect follows their being rubbed on the skin. The plant has been administered internally to cure lues venerea, scrofula, and rheumatisms. In France, the young sprouts are caten, when boiled, as hoptops are in this country.

VITILIGO. (From vitio, to infect.) See

VITIS. 1. The name of a genus of plants in the Linnwan system. Class, Pen. phas.

tandria. Order, Monogynia.

2. The pharmacopoial name of the Vitis phas. vinifera of Linnæus:-foliis lobatis sinua-tis nudis. Vine-leaves and the tendrils have an adstringent taste, and were formerly used in diarrheas, hamorrhages, and other disorders requiring refrigerant and styptic medicines. The juice or sap

considered to be a very useful application.

VITIS ALBA. See Bryonia alba. VITIS ALTUS. St. Vitus's dance.

VITIS IDMIA. The red whortle-berry. The leaves of this plant, Vaccinium vitie idea of Linnaus, are so adstringent as to be used in some places for tanning. are said to mitigate the pain attendant on calculous diseases when given internally in the form of decoction. The ripe berries abound with a grateful acid juice; and are esteemed in Sweden as aperient, antisceptic, and refrigerant, and often given in putrid diseases.

VITIS STLYESTRIS. White briony.
VITIS VINIFERA. The systematic name
of the grape-tree. See Vitis and wine.

VITIX AGNUS CASTUS. The systematic name of the chaste tree. See Agnus cas-

VITRARIA. The pellitory of the wall.

VITREOUS HUMOUR. Humour The pellucid tody which fills the whole bulb of the eye behind the crystalline lens. The vitrcons substance is composed of small cells which communicate with each other, and are distended with a transparent fluid.

Vitriol, acid of. See Sulphuric acid. Vitriol, blue. See Sulphus cupri. Vitriol, green. See Ferri sulphas. Vitriol, Roman. See Sulphas cupri. Vitriol, sweet spirit of. See Spirits atheris

vitriolici.

Vitriol, white. See Zinci sulphas.

Vitriolated kali. See Potassæ sulphas. VITRIOLUM. (From vitrum, glass; so called from its likeness to glass. Hollandus says this word is fictitious, and composed from the initials of the following sentence: Vade in terram rimando, invenies, optimum lapidem veram medicinam.) Calcadinum. Calcatur. Calcotar. thos. Calcanthum. Calcitea. Vitriol, or sulphate of iron.

VITRIOLUM ALBUM. See Zinci sulphas. VITRIOLUM CŒRULEUM. See Curpi sul-

VITRIOLUM ROMANUM. See Curpi sul-

VITRIOLUM VIRIDE. See Ferri sulphas. VITRUM. Glass.

VITRUM ANTIMONII. Glass of antimony: Antimony first calcined, then fused in a crucible.

VITRUM ANTIMONII CERATUM. \* 5 R

aphoretic compound exhibited in the cure a continued ligament from its strength; of dysenteries arising from checked perspiration.

VITRUM HYPOCLEPTICUM. A funnel to

separate oil from water.

VOICE. Vox. The principal organ of the voice is the larynx; for, when it is injured, the air passes through the windpipe without yielding any sound.

Volsella. A probang, or instrument to remove bodies sticking in the throat.

VOLVULUS. (From volvo, to roll up ) The iliac passion, or inflammation in the bowels, called twisting of the guts.

VOLVULUS TERRESTRIS. Small bind-

weed. The convolvulus minof.

Named from its great resemblance to a plough-share. It is a slender thin bone separating the nostrils from each other, consisting of two plates much compressed together, very dense and strong, yet so thin as to be transparent; these two plates seem at every edge to separate from each other, and thus a groove is formed at every side .- 1. This groove, on the upper edge, or, as it may be called, its base, is wide, and receives into it the projecting points of the athmoid and sphenoid bones, and thus it stands very firmly and securely on the skull, and capable of resisting blows of considerable violence .-2. The groove, upon the lower part, is narrower, and receives the rising line in the middle of the palate plate, where the bones join to form the palate suture. At the fore part it is united by a ragged surface, and by something like a groove, to the middle cartilage of the nose, and as the vomer receives the other bones into its grooves, it is, as it were, locked in on all sides, receiving support and strength from each, but more particularly from the thick and strong membrane which covers the whole, and which is so continuous as to resemble a periosteum, or rather

thus the slender vomer possesses sufficient strength to advert from it all those evils which must inevitably have occurred, had it been less wisely or less strongly constructed.

VOMICA. (From vomo, to spit up; because it discharges a sanies.) An abscess of the lungs.

VOMICA LIQUORIS ÆTERNI.

VOMITING. Vomitio. A forcible ejection of food, or any other substance, from the stomach, through the esophagus and mouth. It is either idiopathic, when arising from a cause in the stomach itself: or symptomatic, when originating from diseases seated in any other part of the body. Its immediate cause is an antiperystaltic. spasmodic, convulsive constriction of the stomach and pressure of the diaphragm and abdominal muscles. It is an effort of nature to expel whatever molests or is tro blesome in the stomach.

Vaniting of blood. See Hamatemesis. VOMITUS CRUENTUS. See Hamatemesis.

Voracious appetite. See Bulimia Vox abscissa. Hourseness, a loss of voice. VULGAGO. The asarabacca was so called.

See Asarum.

VULNERARIA. (From vulnus, a wound.) Medicines which heal wounds. A herb named from its uses in healing wounds.

VULNERARIA AQUA. Arquebusade VULNUS SCLOPETICUM. gun-shot

wound.

VULVA. (Quasi valva, the aperture to the womb; or quasi volva, because the fætus is wrapped up in it.) The pudendum muliebre, or parts of generation proper to women; also a foramen in the brain.

VULVARIA. (From vulva, the womb; so named from its smell or use in disorders of the womb.) Stinking orach. See Atri-

plex olide.

W

WAKE robin. See Arum. Wall-flower. See Cheiri. Wall-pellitory. See Parietaria. Wall-pepper. See Illecebra.

Walnut. See Juglans. near Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire, con- fluid, made up of two substances, neither taining a small portion of iron dissolved in of which can be exhibited separately, exfixed air; of absorbent earth combined cept in the gaseous form; and when acriwith hepatic air; of vitriolated magnesia, form, they are known, the one as hydroand muriated mineral alkali; but the pro- gen gas, or inflammable air; the other as

portions of these constituent parts have not been accurately ascertained. Walton water is chiefly efficacious in obstructions and other affections of the glands.

WATER According to the Aqua. WALTON WATER. A mineral spring opinion of modern chemists is a compound WATER:

oxygen gas, or vital air. These gases, in which distinguishes it from pure water; the proportion of about three of hydrogen and the aqueous exhalation from living boto eleven of oxygen, when united chemi-cally, and reduced from the form of an air to that of a liquid, constitute the fluid,

It is transparent, without colour, smell, or taste; in every degree compressible; when pure, not liable to spontaneous change; hiquid in the common temperature of our atmosphere, assuming the solid form at 32° Fahrenheit, and the gaseous at 212°, but returning unaltered to its liquid state on resuming any degre of heat be- higher power than any other as a solvent of tween these points; capable of dissolving a greater number of natural bodies than any other flind whatever, and especially those known by the name of the saline; performing the most important functions in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, and entering largely into their composition as a constituent part. The simple waters are

the following: 1. Distilled water. This is the lightest of all others, containing neither solid nor gaseous substances in solution, is perfectly void of taste and smell, colourless and beautifully transparent, has a soft feel, and wets the fingers more readily than any other. It mixes uniformly with soap into a smooth opalme mixture, but may be added to a solution of soap in spirit of wine without injuring its transparency. clearness of distilled water is not impaired by the most delicate chemical re-agents, such as lime-water, a solution of barytes in any acid, nitrated silver, or acid of sugar. When evaporated in a silver vessel it leaves no residuum; if preserved from access of foreign matter floating in the air, it may be kept for ages unaltered in vessels upon which it has no action, as it does not possess within itself the power of decomposition. As it freezes exactly at 32° of Fahrenheit, and boils at 212° under the atmospherical pressure of 29.8° inches, these points are made use of as the standard ones for their mometrical division; and its specific weight being always the same under light pressure and temperature, it is employed for the comparative standard of specific gravity,

Pure distilled water can only be procured from water which contains no volatile matiers that will rise in distillation, and continue still in union with the vapour when condensed. Many substances are volatile during distillation, but most of the recommended as a fair subject of experigases, such as common air, carbon c acid, and the like, are incapable of uniting with water at a high temperature; other bodies, distilled water, is that which has underhowever, such as vegetable essential oil, gone a natural distillation from the earth, and, in general, much of that which gives and is condensed in the form of rain. This the peculiar odour to vegetable and animal is a water so nearly approaching to absoma ter, will remain in water after distilla- lute purity as probably to be equal to distion. So the steam of many animal and tilled water for every purpose except in

dies, which is a kind of distillation, has a

similar impregnation.

To obtain distilled water perfectly pure, much stress was laid by former chemists on repeating the process a great number of times; but it was found by Lavoisier, that rain water once distilled, rejecting the first and last products, was as pure a water as could be procured by any subsequent distillations.

Distilled water appears to possess a all animat and regetable matter, and these it holds in aution as little as possible altered from the state in which they existed in the body that yielded them. Hence the great practical utility of that kind of chemical analysis which presents the proximate constituent parts of these bodies, and which is effected particularly by the assistance of pure water. On the other hand, a saline, earthy, or otherwise impure water, will alter the texture of some of the paris, impair their solubility, produce material changes on the colouring matter, and become a less accurate analyser on account of the admixture of foreign contents.

Distilled water is seldom employed to any extent in the preparation of food, or in manufactures, on account of the trouble of procuring it in large quantities; but for preparing a great number of medicines, and in almost every one of the nicer chemical processes that are carried on in the liquid way, this water is an escential requi-site. The only cases in which it has been used largely as an article of drink, have been in those important trials made of the practicability of procuring it by condensing the steam of sea water by means of a simple apparatus adapted to a ship's boiler; and these have fully shown the ease with which a large quantity of fresh water of the purest kind, may be had at sea, at a mode. rate expense, whereby one of the most distressing of all wants may be relieved. There are one or two circumstances which seem to shew that water, when not already loaded with foreign matter, may become a solvent for concretions in urinary passages. At least, we know that very material advantage has been derived in these cases from very pure natural springs, and hence a course of distilled water has been ment.

2. Rain water, is the next in purity to vegetable decoctions has a certain flavour the nicer chemical experiments. The fo860 WATER.

reign contents of rain water appear to vary soilthrough which it flows. When the ingreaccording to the state of the air through dients are not such as to give any peculiar which it falls. The heterogeneous atmos- medical or sensible properties, and the phere of a smoky town will give some im- water is used for common purposes, it is pregnation to rain as it passes through, and distinguished as a hard or soft spring, this, though it may not be at once percep- sweet or brackish, clear or turbid, and the tible on chemical examination, will yet like. Ordinary springs insensibly pass into render it liable to spontaneous change; and hence, rain water, if long kept, especially in hot climates, acquires a strong smell, becomes full of animalcula, and in some degree putrid. According to Margraaff, the constant foreign contents of rain water appear to be some traces of the muriatic and nitric acids; but as this water is always very soft, it is admirably adapted for dissolving soap, or for the solution of alimentary or colouring matter, and it is accordingly used largely for these purposes. The specific gravity of rain water is so nearly the same as that of distilled water, that it requires the most delicate ins ruments to ascertain the difference. Rain, that falls in towns, acquires a small quantity of sulphat of lime and calcareous matter from the mortar and plaister of the houses.

3. Ice and snow water. This equals rain water in purity, and, when fresh melted, contains no air, which is expelled during freezing. In cold climates and in high latitudes, thawed snow forms the constant drink of the inhabitants during winter; and the vast masses of ice which float on the polar seas afford an abundant supply to the mariner. It is well known, that in a weak brine, exposed to a moderate freezing cold, it is only the watery part that congeals, leaving the unfrozen liquor proportionably stronger of the salt. The same happens with a dilute solution of vegetable acids, with fermented liquors, and the like; and advantage is taken of this property to reduce the saline part to a more concentrated form. Snow water has long lain under the imputation of occasioning those strumous swellings in the neck which deform the inhabitants of many of the Alpine valleys; but this opinion is not supported by any well-authenticated indisputable facts, and is rendered still more improbable, If not entirely overturned, by the frequency of the disease in Sumatra, where ice and snow are never seen, and its being quite unknown in Chili and in Thibet, though the rivers of these countries are chiefly supplied by the melting of the snow, with which the mountains are covered

Under this compre-4. Spring water. hensive class are included all waters that spring from some depth beneath the soil, and are used at the fountain head, or at least before they have run any considerable distance exposed to the air. It is obvious that spring water will be as various in its contents as the substances that compose the ture, it loses common air and carbonic

mineral springs, as their foreign contents become more notable and uncommon: though sometimes waters have acquired great medical reputation from mere pu-

By far the greater number of springs are cold; but as they take their origin at some depth from the surface, and below the influence of the external atmosphere, their temperature is, in general, pretty uniform during every vicissitude of season, and always several degrees higher than the freezing point. Others, again, arise constantly hot, or with a temperature always exceeding the summer heat; and the warmth possessed by the water is entirely independent of that of the atmosphere, and varies little winter or summer.

One of the principal inconveniences in almost every spring water, is its hardness, owing to the presence of earthy salts, which, in by far the greater number of cases, are only the insipid substances, chalk and selenite, which do not impair the taste of the water; whilst the air which it contains, and its grateful coolness, render it a most agreeable, and generally a perfectly innocent, drink; though sometimes, in weak stomachs, it is apt to occasion an uneasy sense of weight in that organ followed by a degree of dyspepsia. The quantity of earthy salts varies considerably; but, in general, it appears that the proportion of five grains of these in the pint will constitute a hard water, unfit for washing with soap, and for many other purposes of bousehold use or manufactures. The water of deep wells is always, ceteris paribus, much harder than that of springs which overflow their channel; for much agitation and exposure to air produce a gradual deposition of the calcareous earth; and hence spring water often incrusts to a considerable thickness the inside of any kind of tube through which it flows, as it arises from the earth. specific gravity of these waters is also, in general, greater than that of any other kind of water, that of the sea excepted. Springs that overflow their channel, and form to themselves a limited bed, pass insensibly into the state of stream, or river water, and become thereby altered in some of their chemical properties.

This is in general much 5. River water. softer and more free from earthy salts than ' the last, but contains less air of any kind; for, by the agitation of a long current, and in most cases a great increase of temperaacids, and, with this last, much of the lime ments to be a river of great purity. It which it held in solution. The specific might be expected that a river which has gravity thereby becomes less, the taste not passed by a large town, and received all so harsh, but less fresh and agreeable, and its impurities, and been used by numerous out of a hard spring is often made a stream dyers, tanners, hatters, and the like, that of sufficient purity for most of the pur- crowd to its banks for the convenience of poses where a soft water is required. plenty of water, should thereby acquire Some streams, however, that arise from a such a foulness as to be very perceptible clean siliceous rock, and flow in a sandy to chemical examination for a considerable or stony bed, are from the outset remark- distance below the town; but it appears, ably pure. Such are the mountain lakes from the most accurate examination, that and rivilets in the rocky districts of Wales, where the stream is at all considerable, the source of the beautiful waters of the these kinds of impurity have but little in-Dec, and numberless other rivers that fluence in permanently altering the quality flow through the hollow of every valley, of the water, especially as they are for Switzerland has long been celebrated for the most part only suspended and not truly the purity and excellence of its waters, dissolved; and, therefore, mere rest, and which pour in copious streams from the especially filtration, will restore the water mountains; and give rise to some of the to its original purity. Probably, therefinest rivers in Europe. An exceilent ob- fore, the most accurate chemist would find server and naturalist, the illustrious Haller, it difficult to distinguish water taken up at thus speaks of the Swiss waters, "vulgaribus aquis Helvetia super omnes fere Court, after each has been purified by Europæ regiones excellit. Nusquam h- simple filtration. quidas illas aquas et crystalli similimas se mili obtulisse memmi postquam ex Hel- present the greatest impurities to the vetia excessi. Ex scopulis enim nostræ senses, are those of stagnant pools, and per puros silices percolara nulla terra vi- low marshy countries. They are filled tiantur." Some of them never freeze in with the remains of animal and vegetable the severest winter, the cause of which is matter undergoing decomposition, and, probably, as Haller conjectures, that they during that process, becoming in part sospring at once out of a subterraneous reluble in water, thereby affording a rich servoir so deep as to be out of the reach of nutriment to the succession of living plants frost, and during their short course when and insects which is supplying the place of exposed to day they have not time to be those that perish. From the want of sufcooled down from 53°, their original tem- ficient agitation in these waters, vegetation perature, to below the freezing point

not take their rise from a rocky soil, and aquatic plants; and as these standing waare indeed at first considerably charged ters are in general shallow, they receive with foreign matter, during a long course, the full influence of the sun, which further even over a rich cultivated plain, become remarkably pure as to saline contents, but often fouted with mud, and vegetable or animal exuviæ, which are rather suspended than held in true solution. Such is that of ter. However, it should be remarked, the Thames, which taken up at London at low water, is a very soft and good water, and, after rest and filtration, it holds but a very small portion of any thing that could prove noxious or impede any manufacture. It is also excellently fitted for sea store; but it here undergoes a remarkable spontaneous change. No water carried to sea becomes purid sooner than that of the Thames. When a cask is opened after being kept a month or two, a quantity of inflammable air escapes, and the water is so black and affensive as scarcely to be borne. Upon racking it off, however, into large earthen vessels (oil jars are commonly used for the purpose), and exposing it to the air, it gradually deposits a quantity of black slimy mud, becomes clear as crystal, and remarkably sweet and palatable. The Seine has as high a reputation in France, and appears from accurate experi-

London, from that procured at Hampton

6. Stagnated waters The waters that goes on undisturbed, and the surface be-Some river waters, however, that do comes covered with converva and other promotes all the changes that are going on within them. The taste is generally vapid, and destitute of that freshness and agreeable coolness which distinguish spring wathat stagnant waters are generally soft, and many of the impurities are only suspended, and therefore separable by filtra-tion; and perhaps the unpalatahleness of this drink has caused it to be in worse credit than it deserves, on the score of salubrity. The decidedly noxious effects produced by the air of marshes and stagnant pools, have been often supposed to extend to the internal use of these waters; and often, especially in hot climates, a residence near these places has been as much condemned on one account as on the other, and, in like manner, an improvenient in health has been as much attributed to a change of water as of air.

Water-brash. See Pyrosis.

Water-cress. See Nusturtium aquati-

Water-dock. See Hydrolapathum. Water-flug, yellow. See Iris pulustris. Water-germander. See Scordium. Water-hemp. See Eupatorium. Water-lily, white. See Nymphea alba. Water-lily, yellow. See Nymphaa lutea. Water-pursnip. See Sium.

Water pepper. See Hudropiper.

WATER ZIZANIA. A reed-like plant, zizania aquatica of Linnæus, which grows in the swampy parts of Jamaica and Virginia. The Indians are exceedingly fond of its grain, and account it more delicious than rice.

Waters, mineral. See Mineral Waters.

Wax. See Cera. WHEAT. The seeds of the Triticum hybernum, and astivium of Linnaus, are so termed It is to these plants therefore we are indebted for our bread, and the various kinds of pastry. Wheat is first ground between mill-stones, and then sifted to obtain its faring or flour. The flour It is afterwards strongly and uniformly of wheat may be separated into its three stirred. When the whole mass has stood constituent parts, in the following manner. quietly for a certain time, the extract, The flour is to be kneaded into a paste (mash,) or sweet wort, is brought into the with water in an earthen vessel, and the boiler, and the malt remaining in the tub water continue pouring upon it from a is once more extracted by infusion with cock which, as it falls upon the paste, hot water. takes up from it a very fine white powder, by means of which it acquires the colour ner, is added to the first, and both are and consistency of milk. This process is boiled together. to be continued till the water run off clear, when the flour will be separated into three and called boiled wort. To make the beer distinct parts: 1. A grey elastic matter more fit for digestion, and at the same time that sticks to the hand, and on account of to deprive it of its too great and unpleasant its properties has gained the name of the sweetness, the wort is mixed with a de-glutinous, or vegeto-animal part. 2. A coccion of hops, or else these are boiled white powder which falls to the bottom of with it. After which it ought to be quickly the water, and is the feculum or starch. cooled, to prevent its transition into ace-3. A matter which remains dissolved in tous fermentation, which would ensue if it the water, and seems to be a sort of mu- were kept too long in a high temperature. cilaginou extracts.

tained, is likewise disposed to vinous fer- large surface to cold air, and from this to mentation, on account of its saccharine the fermenting tub, that by addition of a contents, the aptitude for fermentation of sufficient portion of recent yeast it may these mealy seeds increases if they be first begin to ferment. When this fermentation converted into malt; inasmuch as by this has proceeded to a due degree, and the process, the gluten which forms the germ yeast ceases to rise, the beer is conveyed is separated, and the starchy part appears into casks (casked), placed in cool cellars, to be converted into saccharine matter, where its finishes its fermentation, and The making of malt, for which purpose where it is well kept and preserved, under barley and wheat are generally chosen, is the name of barrelled beer, with the preas tollows: The grains are put in the caution of filling up occasionally the vamalting tub, and immersed in cold water, cancy caused in the vessels by evaporation; in a temperate and warm season, changing or the beer is bottled before it has done this fluid several times, especially in hot fermenting, and the bottles are stopped a weather, and they are thus kept soaking little before the fermentation is completely till they be sufficiently soft to the touch, over. By so doing the bottled beer is ren-Upon this they are piled up in heaps on a dered sparkling. In this state it frequentroomy, clean, airy floor, where, by the ly bursts the bottles, by the disengagement heat spontaneously taking place, the vege- of the carbonic acid gas which it contains, tation begins, and the grains germinate, and it strongly froths, like Champaign, To cause the germutation to go on uni- when brought into contact of air on being formly, the heaps are frequently turned, poured into another vessel. In this state the vegetation is suffered to continue till the germs have about two- and clear, possess a due quantity of spirit,

thirds or three-fourths of the length of the corn. It is carried too far when the leafy germs have begun to sprout.

For this reason limits are set to the germination by drying the malt, which is effected by transferring it to the kiln, or by spreading it about in spacious airy lofts. Dried in the last way it is called air dried malt, in the first, kiln-malt. In drying this latter, care must be taken that it does not receive a burnt smell, or be in part converted into coal.

From this malt, beer is made by extraction with water and fermentation.

With this view a quantity of malt freed from its germs, and sufficient for one intended brewing, is coarsely bruised by grinding, and in the mash-tub first well mixed with some cold, then scalded with hot, water, drawn upon it from the boiler.

This second extract treated in like man-

This clear decoction is now drawn off,

On this account the wort is transferred Flour, from whatever species of corn ob- into the cooler, where it is exposed with a

Beer well prepared should be limpid

and excite no disagrecable sweet taste, wanted. In some of the islands in the and contain no disengaged acid. By these South Sea, where each individual is his properties it is a species of vinous beve- own lawgiver, it is no uncommon thing for rage, and is distinguished from wine, in a near relation to excuse a murderer, for a the strict sense, and other liquors of that good drunken bout of cirikind, by the much greater quantity of mucilaginous matter which it has received by Hydarthrus. extraction from the malted grains, but which also makes it more nourishing. This disease is marked by the discharge of Brown beer derives its colour from malt a thin white or yellow matter from the strongly roasted in the kiln, and its bitter- uterus and vagina, attended likewise with ish taste from the hops. Pale beer is some degree of foctor, smarting in making brewed from malt dried in the air, or but water, pains in the back and loins, anslightly roasted, with but little or no hops orexia and atrophy. In some cases, the at all.

Wheat, buck. See Buck wheat.

Wheat, eastern buck. See Buck wheat, eastern.

Wheat, Indian. See Zea mays.

WHEAT, TURKEY. The Turkey wheat occasioning a weeping from the urethrais a native of America, where it is much cultivated, as it is also in some parts of rhea, it will be very necessary to attend to Europe, especially in Italy and Germany. There are many varieties, which differ in is constant, but in a small quantity; there the colour of the grain, and are frequently is much ardor urine, itching of the pudenraised in our gardens by way of curiosity, whereby the plant is well known. It is tion to venery, and very frequently an en-the chief bread corn in some of the largement of the glands in the groin; southern parts of America, but since the whereas in the former the discharge is introduction of rice into Carolina, it is but irregular, comes away often in large lumps, little used in the northern colonies. It and in considerable quantities, and is makes a main part too of the food of the neither preceded by nor accompanied poor people in Italy and Germany. This with any inflammatory affection of the is the sort of wheat mentioned in the book of Ruth, where it is said that Boaz treated Ruth with parched cars of corn dipped in vinegar. This method of eating the roasted ears of Turkey wheat is still practised in the East; they gather in the ears when about half ripe, and having scorched them to their minds, eat them with as much satisfaction as we do the best flour bread.

In several parts of South America they parch the ripe corn, never making it into bread, but grinding it between two stones, mix it with water in a calabash, and so eat The Indians make a sort of drink from this grain, which they call bici. This liquor is very windy and intoxicating, and has nearly the taste of sour small beer: but they do not use it in common, being too lazy to make it often, and therefore it is chiefly kept for the celebration of feasts and weddings, at which times they mostly get intolcrably drunk with it. The manner of making this precious beverage, is to steep a parcel of corn in a vessel of water, till it grows sour, then the old women, being provided with calabashes for the purpose, chew some grains of the corn in discharge from the utcrus and vagina, of a their mouths, and spitting it into the cala- fluid which, in different women, varies bashes, empty them, spittle and all, into the much in colour, being either of a white, sour liquor, having previously drawn off green, yellow, or brown hue. In the bethe latter into another vessel.

The chewed grain soon raises a fermentation, and when this ceases, the liquor is complaint acquires the various discoloura-

White swelling. See Arthropussis and

WHITES. Fluor albus. Leucorrhaa. discharge is of so acrid a nature, as to produce effects on those who are connected with the woman, somewhat similar to venereal matter, giving rise to exceriations about the glans penis and preputium, and

To distinguish leucorrhæa from gonorthe symptoms. In the latter the running da, swelling of the labia, increased inclinapudenda.

Immoderate coition, injury done to the parts by difficult and tedious lalours, frequent miscarriages, immoderate flowings of the menses, profuse evacuations, poor diet, and abuse of tea, and other causes giving rise to general debility, or to a laxity of the parts more immediately concerned, are those which usually produce the whites, vulgarly so called, from the discharge being commonly of that colour.

Fluor albus, in some cases, indicates that there is a disposition to disease in the uterus, or parts connected with it, especially where the quantity of the discharge is very copious, and its quality highly acrimonious. By some the disease has been considered as never arising from debility of the system, but as being always a primary affection of the uterus. Delicate women, with lax fibres, who remove from a cold climate to a warm one, are, however, vcry apt to be attacked with it, without the parts having previously sustained any kind of injury.

The disease shews itself by an irregular ginning it is, however, most usually white and pellucid, and in the progress of the let off from the dregs, and set by till tions, and different degrees of acrimony, from whence proceeds a slight degree of thereby occasion much flatulency and eruc smarting in making water. Besides the tations of acid matter; heartburn and vio-discharge, the patient is frequently afflict- lent pains in the stomach from spasms are ed with severe and constant pains in the back and loins, loss of strength, failure of by passing into the intestines and mixing appetite, dejection of spirits, paleness of the countenance, chilliness, and languor. Where the disease has been of long contimance, and very severe, a slow fever, attended with difficult respiration, palpitations, faintings, and anasarcous swellings of the lower extremities, often ensues.

A perfect removal of the disorder will at all times be a difficult matter to procure; but it will be much more so in cases of long standing, and where the discharge is accompanied with a high degree of acri-In these cases, many disorders, such as prolapsus uteri, ulcerations of the organ, atrophy and dropsy, are apt to take place, which in the end prove fatal.

Where the disease terminates in death, the internal surface of the uterus appears, on dissection, to be pale, flabby, and relaxed; and where organic affections have arisen, much the same appearances are to be met with as have been noticed under the head of menorrhagia. See Leucorhæa.

Whortle berry, bears. See Uva ursi. Whortle-berry, red. See Vitis idæa. Widow-wail. See Mezereum. Wild carrot. See Daucus sylvestris. Wild cucumber. See Cucumis agrestis. Wild navew. See Napus. Willow, crak. See Salix. Willow, sweet. See Myrtus brabantica. Willow, white. See Salix.

Willow-herb. See Lysimachia purpurea. Willow herb, rosebay. See Rosebay wil-

Willow-leaved oak. See Quercus phellos. WINE. Vinum. The fermented juice of the ripe fruit of the Vitis vinifera of Linnæus :- foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis. The wines principally used in medicine are, the vinum album hispanicum, or mountain wine, vinum cauarium, canary or sack wine, the vinum rhenanum, or Rhenish wine, and the vinum rubrum, or Port wine. On a chemical investigation, all wines consist chiefly of water, alcohol, a peculiar acid, the carbonic acid, tartar, and an adstringent gummi-resinous matter in which the colour of the red wine resides, and which is expressed from the husks of the grape. They differ from each other in the proportion of these ingredients, and particularly in that of alcohol, which they contain. The qualities of wines depend not only upon the difference of the grapes, or sulphurated hydrogen, possess of preas containing more or less of saccharine cipitating lead in a black form, has been juice and the acid matter which accompa- long ago made public; snd this propernies it, but also upon circumstances at- ty has been employed to determine tending the process of fermentation. New the quality of wines by means of the liwines are liable to a strong degree of aces- quor probatorius Wirtembergensis, or Wircency when taken into the stomach, and temberg proving-liquor. But in trying

also often produced; and the acid matter. with the bile, is apt to occasion colics or excite diarrheas. Sweet wines are likewise more disposed to become acescent in the stomach than others: but as the quantity of alcohol which they contain is more considerable than appears sensibly to the taste, their acescency is thereby in a great measure counteracted. Red port, and most of the red wines, have an adstringent quality, by which they strengthen the stomach, and prove useful in restraining immoderate evacuations; on the contrary, those which are of an acid nature, as Rhenish, pass freely by the kidneys, and gently loosen the belly. But this, and perhaps all the thin or weak wines, though of an agreeable flavour, yet as containing little alcohol, are readily disposed to become acid in the stomach, and thereby to aggravate all arthritic and calculous complaints, as well as to produce the effects of new wine. The general effects of wine are, to stimulate the stomach, exhilarate the spirits, warm the habit, quicken the circulation, promote perspiration, and, in large quantities, to prove intoxicating, and powerfully sedative. In many disorders, wine is universally admitted to be of important service, and especially in fevers of the typhus kind, or of a putrid tendency; in which it is found to raise the pulse, support the strength, promote a diaphoresis, and to resist putrefaction; and in many cases it proves of more immediate advantage than the Peruvian bark. Delirium, which is the consequence of excessive irritability, and defective state of nervous energy, is often entirely removed by the free use of wine. It is also a well-founded observation, that those who indulge in the use of wine are less subject to fevers of the malignant and intermittent kind. In the putrid sore throat, in the small-pox, when attended with great debility and symptoms of putridity, in gangrenes, and in the plague, wine is to be considered as a principal remedy; and in almost all cases of languor, and of great prostration of strength, wine is experienced to be a more grateful and efficacious cordial than can be furnish. ed from the whole class of aromatics.

Method of discovering whether wine has been adulterated with any metals prejudicial to the health .- The property which the sulphuret of potash and hepatic air, wines supposed to have been adulterated, not to produce any vibration of the lathis proof does more harm than service, because it precipitates iron of the same colour as the pernicious lead. Many winemerchants of the greatest respectability rendered by these means suspected, have been ruined. There was wanting then a re-agent, which should discover in wine those metals only which are projudicial to the health of man.

The following liquor, precipitates lead and copper in a black form, and arsenic of an orange colour, &c. but does not precipitate iron, which is not noxious, and rather salutary to the constitution, and frequently gets into wines by accident.

Method of preparing the proving liquor — Mix equal parts of oyster-shells and crude sulphur in a fine powder, and put the mixture into a crucible; heat it in a wind furnace, and increase the fire suddenly, so as to bring the crucible to a white heat, for the space of fifteen minutes; pulve-rize the mass when it is cold, and preserve it in a bottle closely stopped. prepare the liquor, put 120 grains of this powder and 120 grains of cream of tartar (acidnlous tartrite of potash) into a strong bottle; fill the bottle with common water, which boil for an hour, and then let it cool; close the bottle immediately, and shake it for some time; after it has remained at rest to settle, decant the pure liquor, and pour it into small phials, capable of holding about an ounce each, first putting into each of them twenty drops of muriatic acid. They must be stopped them, which live in no other situation. very closely with a piece of wax, in which there is a small mixture of turpentine. One part of this liquor mixed with three parts of suspected wine, will discover, by a very sensible black precipitate, the least traces of lead, copper, &c. but will produce no effect upon iron, if it contains any of that metal. When the precipitate has fallen down, it may still be discovered whether the wine contains iron, by saturating the decanted liquor with a little salt of tartar, by which the liquor will immediately become black. Pure wines remain clear and bright after this liquor has been added to them.

Winter-bark. See Winteranus cortex. Winter-cherry. See Alkekengi

WINTERA AROMATICA. The systematic name of the winter bark-tree. See Winter- orders, genera, and species. anus cortex.

WINTERANUS CORTEX. Winteranus cortex magellanicus. The bark of the Wintera arematica podunculis aggregatis terminalibus, pistillis quatuor; it is very much allied in its properties to the canella alba. See Canella alba.

WINTERANUS SPURIUS. See Cancila alba. WHISPERING. A lowness of speech caused by uttering the words so feebly as

Wolfs' bane. Sec Aconitum. Wolfs' bane, blue. See Aconitum.

Womb. See Uterus.

Womb, inflammation of. See Hysteritis

Wood-louse. Sec Millepedes. Wood-sorrel. See Lujula.

Woody nightshade See Dnlcamara.

Worm-bark See Geoffræa. Wormgrass, perennial. See Spigelia.

Worm guinea. See Dracunculus.

Worm-ring See Herpes. Worm-seed See Santonicum.

WORMS. Vermes. There are several kinds of animals which infest the human body. Their usual division is into those which inhabit only the intestinal canal, as the ascarides, &c.: and those which are found in other parts, as hydatids. &c. Such is the nature and office of the human stomach and intestincs, that insects and worms, or their ovula, may not unfrequently be conveyed into that canal with those things, that are continually taken as food; but such insects, or worms, do not live long, and seldom, if ever, generate in a situation so different from their natural one. Besides these, there are worms that are never found in any other situation than the human stomach, or intestines, and which there generate and produce their species. Thus it appears that the human stomach and intestines are the seat for animalculæ, which are translated from their natural situation, and also for worms proper to

First Class.

This contains those which are generated and nourished in the human intestinal canal, and which there propagate their species.

Second Class.

Comprehends those insects or worms that accidentally enter the human primæ viæ ab extra, and which never propagate their species in that canal, but are soon eliminated from the body; such are several species of Scarabæi, the Lumbricus terestris, the Fasciola, the Gordins intestinalis, and others. The second class belongs to the province of natural history. The consideration of the first class belongs to the physician, which, from the variety it affords, may be divided into different

Order I. Round worms.

Genus I. Intestinal ascarides.

Character. Body round, head obtuse. and furnished with three vesicles.

Species 1. Ascaris lumbricoides. The long round worm, or lumbricoid ascaris.

Character. When full grown, a foot in length. Mouth triangular.

II. Ascaris vermicularis. The thread or maw-worm.

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Character. When full grown, half an inch in length, tail terminates in a fine point.

Genus II. Intestinal trichurides.

Character. Body round, tail three times the length of the body, head without vesi-

Species. Trichuris vulgaris. The trichu-

ris, or long thread worm. Character. The head furnished with a

proboscis. Order II. The flat worms.

Genus I. Intestinal tape-worm.

Character. Body flat and jointed. Species I. Tania osculis marginalibus. The long tape-worm.

Character. The oscula are situated upon

the margin of the joints. II. Tenia osculis superficialibus.

broad tape-worm.

Character. The oscula are placed upon the flattened surface.

These worms were all known to the ancients, the trichuris only excepted, and are mentioned in the works of Hippocrates, Galen, Celsus, Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny.

Worms may readily be distinguished by the following symptoms, viz. variable appetite, focid breath, acid eructations and pains in the stomach, grinding of the teeth during sleep, picking of the nose, paleness of the countenance; sometimes dizziness, hardness and fulness of the belly; its success in this disease are to be seen in slimy stools, with occasional griping pains, more particularly about the navel, heat and itching about the anus; short dry cough; emaciation of the body; slow fever, with evening exacerbations and irregular pulse. and sometimes convulsive fits.

Wormwood. Sec Absinthium vulgare.

Wormwood, mountain. The Artemisia glacialis of Linnaus, which is common about the Alps, and similar in its virtues to the common wormwood.

Wormwood, Roman. See Absinthium vul-

Wormwood, sea. See Absinthium mari-

Wormwood, tartareum. See Santonicum.

Worr. An infusion of malt. This has been found useful in the cure of the scurvy.

Dr. Macbride, in his very ingenious experimental essays, having laid down as a principle, "that the cure of the scurvy depends on the fermentative quality in the remedies made use of," was led to inquire after a substance capable of being

preserved during a long sea voyage, and yet containing materials by which a fermentation might occasionally be excited in the bowels. Such an one appeared to him to be found in malt, which is well known to be the grain of barley, brought suddenly to a germinating state by heat and mois-ture, and then dried, whereby its saccharine principle is developed, and ren. dered easy of extraction by watery liquors. The sweet infusion of this he proposed to give as a dietetic article to scorbutic persons, excepting that it would ferment in their bowels, and give out its fixed air, by the antiseptic powers of which the strong tendency to putrefaction in this disease might be corrected.

It was some time before a fair trial of this proposed remedy could be obtained; and different reports were made concerning it. By some cases, however, published in a postscript of the second edition of the Doctor's work, in 1767, it appears that scorbutic complaints of the most dangerous kinds have actually been cured at sea by the use of wort. Its general effects were to keep the patients open, and to prove highly nutritious and strengthening. It sometimes purged too much, but this effect was easily obviated by the tinctura thebaica. Other unquestionable cases of the London Medical Essays and Inquiries.

The use of wort has hence been adopted in other cases where a strong putrid disposition in the fluids appeared to prevail, as in cancerous and phagadenic ulcers; and instances are published in the fourth volume of the work above-mentioned of its remarkable good effects in these cases.

As the efficacy of the malt infusion depends upon its producing changes in the whole mass of fluids, it is obvious that it must be taken in large quantities for a considerable length of time, and rather as an article of diet than medicine From one to four pints daily have generally been directed. The proportion recommended in preparing it, is one measure of ground malt to three equal measures of boiling water. The mixture must be well stirred, and left to stand, covered three or four hours. It should be made fresh every day.

Woundwort. See Panax.

Wrist, bones of. See Carpal bones.

XALAPPA. (Prom the province of Xalappa, in New Spain, whence it comes.) Jalap. µugov, an ointment.) A dry ointment.

XANTHIUM. (From ξανθος, yellow; so named because it is said to make the hair yellow.) The lesser burdock. This dry inflammation of the eye without disherb Xanthium strumarium of Linuxus, charge. was once esteemed in the cure of scrophula, but like most other remedies against this disease, proves ineffectual. The seeds are administered internally in some countries against erysipelas.

XANTHICM STRUMARIUM. The systematic name of the lesser burdock. See

Xanthium.

XERASIA. (From Engos, dry.) excessive tenuity of the hairs similar to

XEROCOLLYRIPM. (From Engos, dry, and ZONNUEIOV, a collyrium.) A dry collyrium.

XEROMYRUM. (From Engos, dry, and

XEHOPHTHALMIA. (Engos, dry, and οφθαλμια, an inflammation of the eye.) A

XIPHIUM. (From Eigos, a sword; so named from the sword-like shape of its

leaves.) Spurge wort

XIPHOID. (Xiphoides, from Eugos, a sword, and elses, likeness.) A term given by anatomists to parts which had some resemblance to an ancient sword, as the xiphoid cartilage.

Xiphoid cartilage. See Cartilago ensiformis.

XYLOALOES. See Lignum aloes.

XYLOBAISAMPM. See Ralsamum gilea-

YAM. An esculent root, obtained principally from three species of Dioscorea, the ypsiloid bone, and γλωσσα, the tongue.) alata, bulbifera, and sativa. They grow A muscle originating in the ypsiloid bone, spontaneously in both Indies, and their and terminating in the tongue.

Proofs are promisciously caten as the potaroots are promiscuously eaten as the pota-oblong, and weigh from one pound to two.

They are esteemed when dressed as being furtitions and easy of digestion, and are gluene in several of its properties. It is preferred to wheaten bread. Their taste smooth and unsipid. It is infusible along. is somewhat like the potatoe, but more but vitrifies with supersaturated borate of food is yams, boil and mash them They precipitated from those solutions by amin bread and peddings.

When they are to be kept for some time, they are exposed upon the ground to the sun as we do onions, and when sufficiently withered they are put into dry sand in casks, and placed in a dry garret, where they remain often for many seasons without loosing any of their primitive goodness.

Firrow, common. See M. llefolium. Fires. The African name for raspberry.

See Frambasia

Yellow fever See Febris continua. Yellow & unders. See Sintalum album. Yorkshire samele. Sec Pinguicula.

(From fixacions, the YPSILOGLOSSUS.

luscious. The negroes, whose common soda. It combines with the acids, and is are also ground into flour, and made into nia and prussiate of potash. It is also precipitated by tannin. The precipitate is not soluble in acetous acid. As some of its salts are coloured, and its weight nearly approaches to that of metals, it is considered as the link which connects the metals with the earths. It differs from glucine in not being soluble in fixed alkalis, nor being precipitated by the succinates. Its attraction for the acids is also generally stronger than that of glucine, and its saline compounds have not the same saccharine taste. Its other properties have not yet been examined.

BACCHARUM. See Saccharum. ZAFERAN. (Arab.) Saffron. ZABAC, (Arab ) Quicksilver.

of the sarsaparilla.

ZEA MAYS. the Indian wheat plant, a native of Ame- black, &c. and with various degrees of rica, and cultivated in Italy and several lustre and transparency. This zinc ore is parts of Europe, for its grain, which is contaminated with iron, lead, argillaceous ground for the same purposes as our wheat, and siliceous earths, &c. It occurs both to which it is very little inferior.

ZEDOARIA. 1 The name of a genus of plants in the Linnzan system. Class,

2 The pharmacopoial name of the blueish tint. It possesses some degree of Kampferia rotunda of Linnaus, foliis lanductility, and may be extended when ceolatis petiolatis. The roots of this plant carefully passed between metallic cylinders are brought to us in long pieces about in a flatting mill. Its specific gravity is the thickness of the little finger, two or 7.190. It melts at 700° Fahr. By a farthree inches in length, bent, rough, and ther increase of heat it is volatilized withangular, or in roundish pieces about an out change. When melted in contact with inch in diameter, of an ash colour on the the air, its surface becomes covered with outside, and white within. They have an agreeable camphoraceous smell, and a bitterish aromatic taste. Though formerly much esteemed against rheumatic affections, they are at present thought to possess very little medicinal powers, although they have a place in the confection aromatica of the London pharmacopæia.

ZEDOARIA LONCA. The long roots of

the Zedoaria rotunda of Linnæus.

ZEDOARIA ROTONDA. The systematic name of the zedoary plant. See Zedoaria. Zedoary. See Zedoavia.

ZERNA. An ulcerated impetigo. Lepra. ZIBETHUM. (From Zobeth, Arab.) Civetta. Civet. A soft unctuous odoriferous substance about the consistence of honey or butter, of a whiteish, yellowish, or brownish colour, sometimes blackish, contained in some excretory follicles near the thus of the Viberra zibetha of Linnæus. It has a grateful smell when diluted, and an unctuous subacrid taste, and possesses stimulating, nervine, and antispasmodic virtues.

ZINC. (Zincum, Germ.) A metal found in nature combined with oxigen, carbonic acid, and sulphuric acid; and mineralised by sulphur. Native oxid of zinc is commonly called calamine. It occurs in a loose, and in a compact form, amorphous, of a white, grey, yellow, or brown colour, without lustre or transparency. Combined with carbonic acid, it is called vitreous zinc ore, or native carbonate of zinc. It is found in solid masses, sometimes in

is generally greyish inclining to black. It is often transparent. Sulphate of zinc is found efflorescent in the form of stalacties ZARZA. An ancient and provincial name or in rhombs. Sulphuret of zinc, or blende, is the most abundant ore. It is found of The systematic name of various colours; brown, yellow, hyacinth, in amorphous masses and crystallized in a diversity of polygonal figures.

Properties of zinc .- Zinc on its fracture Monandria. Order, Monogynia. Zedoary. appears of a shining white colour, with a an imperfect oxid; when heated a little above ignition it burns with a bright yellowish white flame, slightly tinged with green, and a white oxid is formed in light flakes, which are carried off by the rapid current of air in the burning metal. It undergoes very little alteration from the air, its surface becomes slightly tarnished. It is not acted on by water at the usual temperature of our atmosphere, but at that of ignition, it decomposes this fluid rapidly. It is oxidated and dissolved by the greater number of the acids. It has a very strong attraction for oxigen, and therefore precipitates the greater number of the metals from their acid solutions. All the alkalis when digested or boiled with zinc blacken its surface and dissolve a minute portion of it. It decomposes muriate of animonia, sulphate of potash, and various other neutral salts. A mixture of nitrate of potash and zinc detonates with rapidity. Sulphur and zinc cannot be united by fusion. Gold, silver, platina, and nickel form brittle compounds with zinc. It easily unites with mercury and tin. It does not combine with lead or bismuth. The most frequent and at the same time most useful combination of zinc is that with copper. It unites with great difficulty to arsenic, iron, and cobalt. It inflames in oxigenated muriatic acid gas, and fulminates by pressure or a blow with oxigenated muriate of potash. It is a very strong conductor of galvanism. The use of zinc in the arts is very considerable. six-sided compressed prisms, both ends In medicine the sulphate of zinc, or white being covered with pentagons. Its colour vitriol, as it is called is given internally

in the dose of from Bj to 3ss, as a vomit. In small doses it cures dropsics, intermitting head-achs, and some nervous diseases, and is a powerful antispasmodic and tonic. A solution of white vitriol is also used to remove gleets, gonorrhoas, and for cleaning foul ulcers

Zinc, vitriolated. See Zinci sulphus.

ZINCUM Sec Zinc.

ZINCUM CALCINATUM. See Oxydum zinci. ZINCUM VITRIOLATUM. Sec Zinci salphas. ZINCUM VITRIOLATUM PURIFICATUM. Zinci sulphas.

Zingi. An ancient name of the stellated anniseed. Sec Anisum stellatum

ZINGIBER. (Ziy TiGopis, Indian.) Zingiber nigrum, Zingiber inger. Amonum zingiber giber album, commune. Ginger. of Linnxus. The white and black ginger are both the produce of the same plant, the difference depending upon the mode of preparing them. Ginger is generally considered as an aromatic, and less pungent and heating to the system than might be expected from its effects upon the organ of taste. It is used as an antispasmodic and carminative. The cases in which it is more immediately serviceable are flatulent colics, debility, and laxity of the stomach and intestines; and in torpid and phlegmatic constitutions to excite brisker vascular action. It is seldom given but in combination with other medicines. In the pharmacopæias it is directed in the form of a syrup and condiment, and in many compositions ordered as a subsidiary ingredient.

ZINGIHER ALBUM. The root of the amomum zingiber of Linnans is so termed when deprived of its radicles and sordes.

ZINGINER COMMUNE. See Zingiber. The root of the ZINGIHER NIGRUM. Amonum zingiber of Linnxus is so called

when suffered to dry with its radicles and the sordes which usually hang to it.

ZIRCON. An earth discovered in the year 1793, by Kl proth of Berlin, in the Zircon or Jargon, a gem first brought from the island of Ceylon, but also found in France, Spain, and other parts of Enrope. Its colour is either grey, greenish, yellowish, reddish-brown, or purple. It has little lustre, and is nearly opaque. is likewise found in another gem called the livacinth. This stone is of a yellowish red colour mixed with brown. It possesses

lustre and transparency.

Properties.—It has a white colour, is exceedingly heavy, and rough or harsh to the touch like silex. It has neither taste nor odour, and is insoluble in water, but forms with it a kind of jelly. melts with borax into a transparent colourless glass It suffers in a charcoal crucible a pasty fusion by intense heat, and centracts in its dimensions, acquiring a

grey colour and scintillating hardness. In this state it is very hard and insoluble in acids. Its specific gravity is 4.3. Neither air nor combustible bodies act upon it. It is soluble in water, but retains while drying in the air a large quantity of it, which gives it the semi transparency and appearance of a yellow jelly, or gum arabic; it exhibits the same vitreous fracture. It unites with all the acids and form salts, differing from those of the other bases by being decomposable by alumine, glucine, the alkalis, and by mere heat. with alumine and silex. It is insoluble. even by boiling in a solution of alkalis. neither can it be fused with them by means of heat; but it is soluble in alkaline carbonates.

By these properties this earth may be distinguished from every other. It is still

of no use in the arts.

Method of obtaining zircon.-Reduce the mineral to powder, mix it with three times its weight of potash, and fuse it in a crucible. Wash the obtained mass in distilled water, till the whole of the potash bc extracted; then dissolve the residuum as facas possible in diluted muriatic acid. Boil the solution to precipitate any silex it may contain, filter it, and gradually add solu-tion of potash. The zircon will now be-come precipitated. Wash it repeatedly in distilled water and dry it.

ZIZANIA AQUATICA. The systematic name of a reed whose grain is much esteemed.

See Water zizania.

Zizyraus. The jujubes were formerly so called. See Jujubæ.

ZONA. (From Zarros, to surround.) Zoster. The shingles

(Zoologia, from Jacv, an ZOOLOGY. animal, and notice, a discourse.) That par of natural history which treats of animals (From Zour, an animal ZOONOMIA.

and 10 µ05, a law ) The laws of organic life (Zistomia. From 31. ZOOTOMY an animal, and repix, to cut.) The d.sse

tion of animals.

Zosten. (From Zarrout, to gird) kind of crysipelas which goes round the body like a girdle.

Zuchan. (Arab.) Sugar.

ZYGOMA. (From Zules, a yoke; be cause it transmits the tendon of the temporal muscle like a yoke.) The cavity under the zygomatic process of the temporal bone, and os malæ.

ZYGOMATIC PROCESS. An apophysis of the os jugale and another of the tem-

poral bone are so called.

ZYGOMATIC SUTURE. Sutura zygo. The union of the zygomatic promatica. cess of the temporal bone to the cheek

ZYGOMATICUS MAJOR. This muscle arises how the cheek bone near the

zygomatic suture, taking a direction down- angles of the mouth up as in laughter, and wards and inwards to the angle of the from, in this way, rendering the face dismouth; it is a long slender muscle, which torted, it has obtained the name of distor. ends by mixing its fibres with the orbicu- tor oris. The strong action of this muscle laris oris and the depressor of the lip.

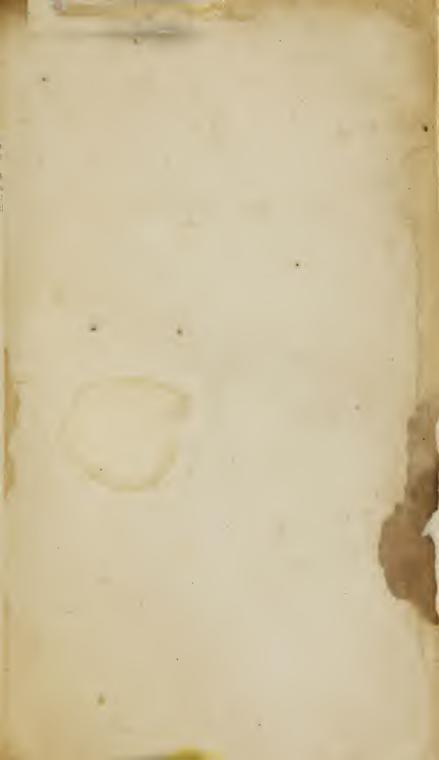
ZYGOMATICUS MINOR. This mus- or grinning. cle arises a little higher up than the zygomaticus major, upon the cheek bone, but which make together what we commonly nearer the nose; it is much more slender call posset-drink; a term often to be met than that muscle, and is often wanting. It with in Sydenham. is the zygomatic muscle that marks the face with that line which extends from the cheek these two letters, from Eurern, a name for bone to the corner of the mouth, which is it common amongst them; but the late particularly distinguishable in some per- writers use them only for the Zinziber, sons. The zygomatic muscles pull the ginger.

is more particularly seen in laughter, rage.

ZYTHOGALA. Ζυθογαλα. Beer and milk.

zz. The ancients signify Myrrh by

THE END.







B X. Bittues





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